



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

### Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

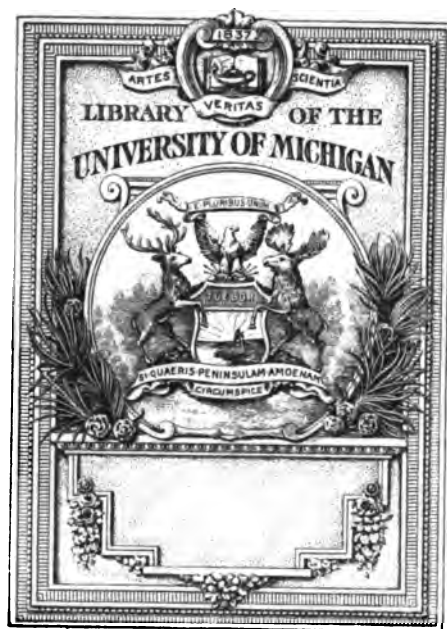
- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

### About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>







JV  
418  
.46







U. S.  
TREASURY DEPARTMENT—BUREAU OF STATISTICS.

---

# COLONIAL ADMINISTRATION, 1800-1900.

METHODS OF GOVERNMENT AND DEVELOPMENT ADOPTED BY THE PRINCIPAL  
COLONIZING NATIONS IN THEIR CONTROL OF TROPICAL AND  
OTHER COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES.

WITH STATISTICAL STATEMENTS OF THE AREA, POPULATION, COMMERCE,  
REVENUE, ETC., OF EACH OF THE WORLD'S COLONIES.

---

INCLUDING BIBLIOGRAPHY OF COLONIES AND COLONIZATION PREPARED  
BY THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS.

---

[FROM THE SUMMARY OF COMMERCE AND FINANCE FOR OCTOBER, 1901.]

---

O. P. AUSTIN,  
*Chief of Bureau.*

---

WASHINGTON:  
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.  
1901.





# CONTENTS.

## COLONIAL ADMINISTRATION.

	Page.
COLONIAL ADMINISTRATION, 1800-1900 .....	1199
Six great questions regarding the methods of governing and developing tropical colonies and their people.....	1217
1. What share of the government of the successfully managed colony originates at the seat of the home Government? ...	1218
2. What share of the administration within the colony is conducted by representatives of the home Government? .....	1237
3. What steps are taken to improve the material, mental, and moral condition of the people of the colony?.....	1278
4. How are habits of industry and thrift inculcated among the natives? .....	1340
5. How are the necessary funds for the conduct of the colonial government raised? .....	1356
6. Commercial and tariff relation between the colonies and their governing countries .....	1390
Area and population of world's colonies .....	1199
Review of the colonizing experiences of the century.....	1201
Share of government conducted in the mother country .....	1218
Administration at the seat of the home government .....	1219
British Crown colony system described by Earl Grey.....	1232
Government in the colony and the share intrusted to the natives .....	1237
Defenses of the colonies .....	1262
Elective franchise in the colonies.....	1264
The civil service in the colonies .....	1264
Development of the material, mental, and moral condition of the natives .....	1278
Construction of roads and railways .....	1278
Telegraphs and telephones in the colonies .....	1283
Postal facilities in the colonies .....	1284
Methods of intercommunication .....	1285
Irrigation in the tropical colonies .....	1290
How the cost of development is borne .....	1292
Systematic study of productive powers .....	1297
Diversification of industries in tropical colonies .....	1299
Money and banking in the colonies .....	1305
Currency and banking systems of the colonies described .....	1308
Regulations of banking system in the British colonies.....	1314
Emigration of capital to the colonies.....	1315
Use of chartered companies in modern colonial development.....	1316
Laws and law-making in the colonies.....	1319
Laws of the world's colonies described .....	1320
Education in the colonies.....	1324
Educational systems of the world's colonies described .....	1326
Religion in the world's colonies .....	1329
Economics of colonization: How studied in the colonizing countries .....	1330
Colonial indebtedness: How created and how met.....	1332
Land ownership in the colonies.....	1334
Language in the colonies.....	1337
How industry is encouraged.....	1340
Contract labor experiments in tropical colonies .....	1342
✓ Labor in Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands .....	1345
Revenue raising in the world's colonies: Methods described.....	1356
Tariff relations of the world's colonies to the mother country .....	1390
Colonial supply of tropical products for the mother country.....	1390
Tropical importations of the temperate zone .....	1390
Colonies a constant market for manufactures.....	1401
Tariffs adjusted to facilitate exchange between colonies and the mother country.....	1402
Summarization of the results of the study of colonial methods.....	1407
Discussions by distinguished writers and students .....	1409
Description of each of the world's colonies: Population, area, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1464
Statistics of the world's colonies.....	1495
Bibliography of colonies and colonization (prepared by Library of Congress).....	1567
MAPS.—Colonial system of the world.....	facing 1199
Geographical divisions of the world, 1800-1900 .....	facing 1201
(For index to Colonial Administration, see pp. 1627-1631.)	



COLONIAL ADMINISTRATION,  
1800-1900.

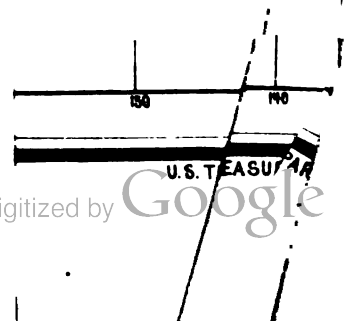
No. 4—2

1197









# COLONIAL ADMINISTRATION, 1800-1900,

---

The purpose of this study is to present a picture of present governmental conditions in the colonies of the world. It is not intended as an historical study, except so far as is necessary to present in concrete form the fundamental causes which have led to the adoption of the existing systems of government, in the world's principal colonies, and which are the result of many years of experiment by many nations and among many classes of people. Careful studies of these subjects, by able and experienced men of all nations, have given to the public in concrete form a series of analyses of the causes of colonial failures and successes and the requirements for successfully and faithfully dealing with a people who are being governed in noncontiguous territory. These discussions, the result of many years of study and practical experience in colonization, have been freely drawn upon in this study in the hope of thus presenting in a single view what may be termed the world's best judgment of to-day's requirements in the government of a people differing in race characteristics and climatic environment from that of the governing people, and occupying noncontiguous territory. The feature of these studies which, for obvious reasons, most interests the people of the United States at the present moment, is that relating to tropical and subtropical countries and peoples rather than that of well-developed communities, composed chiefly of former residents of the mother country or their descendants. For this reason conditions in such advanced colonies as Canada, Australia, and South Africa are not presented in the detail which would be appropriate to a work of more general character.

In all of the discussions which follow, it should be remembered that the facilities for properly administering a government in noncontiguous territory are vastly better to-day than a century or half century ago. Communication between the home government and that of the colony, which formerly required weeks, is now instantaneous, and exchanges of the productions of one section for those of another, which then required months of time and heavy expense of transportation, are now accomplished with but a fraction of the time and cost, while the increased facilities by which the people of the country and colony may visit and become acquainted with each other favor a closer and more harmonious relationship than was possible under the conditions formerly existing.

## AREA AND POPULATION OF THE WORLD'S COLONIES.

The colonies, so-called, of the world, including in this term all territory not contiguous to the country by whose Government it is controlled, occupy two-fifths of the land surface of the globe and contain one-third of the world's population, or about 500,000,000 people.

## TWO GREAT CLASSES OF COLONIES.

Of this 500,000,000 of colonial population, only three small groups, numbering less than 15,000,000, or 3 per cent of the whole, are composed in any considerable degree of the people of the governing country or their descendants. The population of the "self-governing" English colonies of British North America, Australasia, and South Africa is less than 15,000,000, and when these have been considered we seek in vain for a colony of any importance among the remaining 485,000,000 people so classed whose population is in any considerable degree composed of the stock of the governing country. These 15,000,000 people of British stock who make up the self-governing colonies are located chiefly in the temperate zone, while most of the other 485,000,000, native to the so-called colonies, are located in a tropical or subtropical climate.

## TROPICAL COLONIES.

The methods of government which have been found best adapted to the colonies located in the Tropics and composed chiefly of people differing in race and customs from those of the governing country are, for obvious reasons, those which chiefly interest the people, the lawmakers, and the executive officers of the United States at the present moment.

The colonies containing the 485,000,000 people of stock differing from that of the governing country and located in the Tropics may be roughly divided into three great groups: (a) East Indian; (b) West Indian; (c) African.

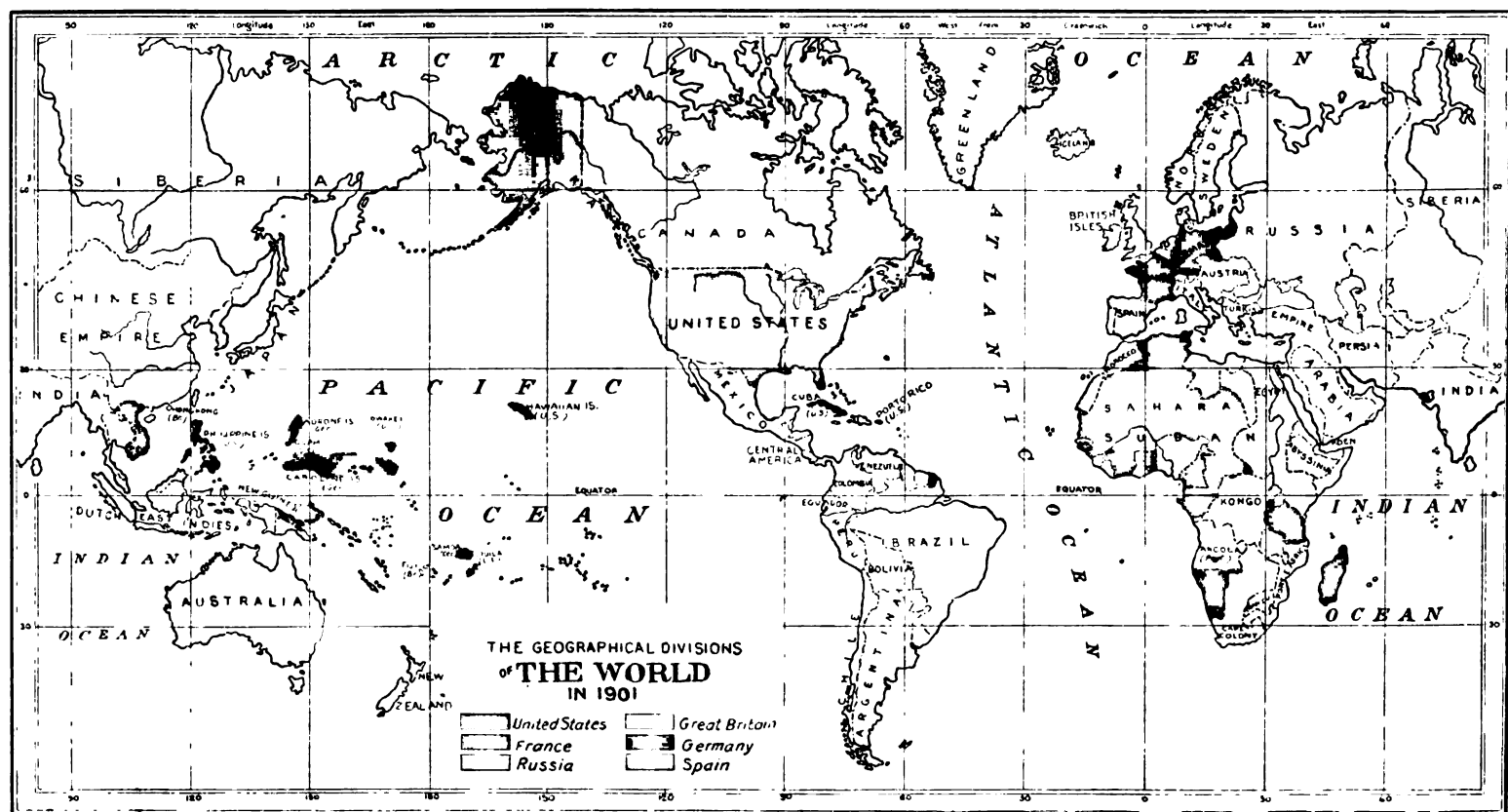
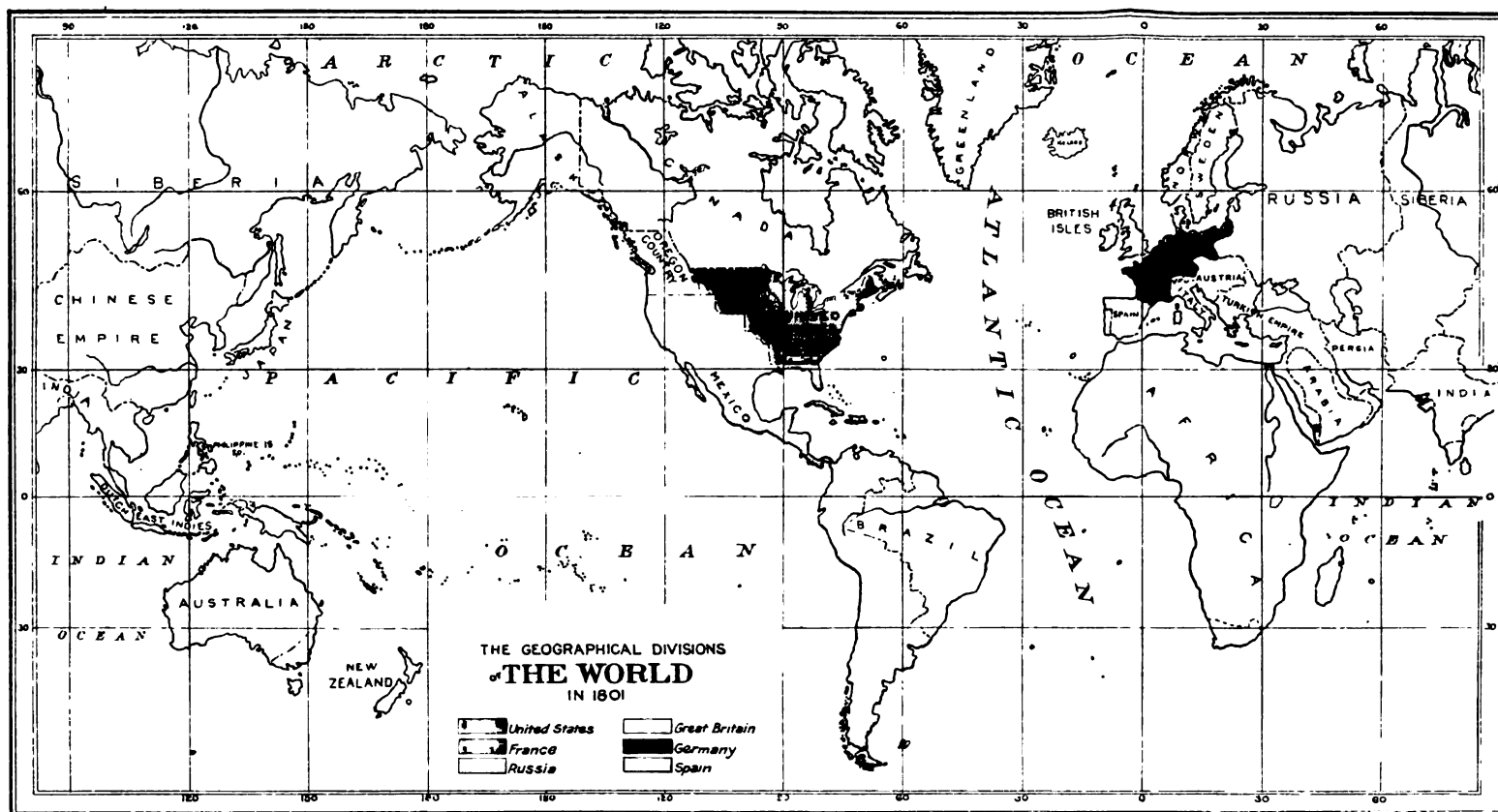
This classification, while not including everyone of the 140 tropical and subtropical colonies of the world, or professing to be strictly accurate in ethnological grouping, brings into three distinct groups the three great masses of people, in as many parts of the world, who have respectively many similar characteristics of race, habits of life, occupation, climatic conditions, and government. In the East Indian or Oriental group may be included the British colonies of India, Ceylon, the Malayan Peninsula, Fiji and Borneo; the Dutch colonies of Java and Sumatra, and the French colony of Indo-China, all located comparatively near to the Philippines and having a population, climate, and conditions somewhat similar to those of the Philippines. This is especially true of the Malayan Peninsula, Java, and part of Indo-China, whose population is largely of the Malayan stock, which forms the bulk of the population of the Philippines and the original population of the Hawaiian Islands. The second group, the West Indian, brings together for general consideration the British, French, Dutch, and Danish West India Islands, having a population, climate, production, and government similar to each other in many particulars, and in a study of which we are, for obvious reasons, also interested. The third group would include the numerous colonies, dependencies, and protectorates of Africa, in which conditions do not parallel so closely those of the islands now under the control of the United States as do those of the East and West Indian groups.

## OBJECT LESSONS IN THE EAST INDIES AND WEST INDIES.

For these reasons attention is chiefly given in this study to the two great groups of colonies in the East and West Indies and the methods of government which have been found most successful in the centuries of experiment and study which the European nations have devoted to them. The East Indian or Oriental group contains about 350,000,000 people, the West Indian group about 5,000,000.

The seven great nations which have in modern times experimented with the government of noncontiguous people, or "colonies," so called, are England, Netherlands, France, Belgium, Germany, Portugal, and Spain, and their relative success may be considered as in about the order in which they are here named. The population of those of Great Britain is in round numbers 350,000,000; Netherlands, 35,000,000; France, 56,000,000; Belgium (Kongo Free State), 30,000,000; Germany, 15,000,000; Portugal, 9,000,000; and Spain, 135,000. Of England's 350,000,000, nearly 300,000,000 are in the East Indian group, and less than 3,000,000 in the West Indies. Netherlands has about 35,000,000 in the East Indian group and 50,000 in the West Indies, and France, 25,000,000 in the East Indian group and 300,000 in the West Indies.





U.S. TREASURY DEPARTMENT, BUREAU OF STATISTICS.

*W. Austin.*  
CHIEF OF BUREAU.

## A REVIEW OF THE CENTURY.

---

### CHANGES IN THE COLONIAL MAP OF THE WORLD AND THE CAUSES ASSIGNED.

Before presenting present conditions in the world's colonies it may not be improper to state in concise form the colonial conditions of the world at the beginning and close of the present century, the important changes which have occurred meantime, and to present therewith the views of distinguished writers of the world's principal nations as to the causes of those changes.

A study of the map of the world's colonies in 1800 and 1900, presented herewith, shows that Spain, which at the beginning of the century controlled all of South America except Brazil, all of Central America, a considerable share of the North American continent, and the most valuable of the West India islands, is scarcely represented upon the colonial map of the year 1900; that Portugal, which in the closing part of the eighteenth century controlled large areas in South America, Africa, and the Orient, and in 1800 was still in control of much of that territory, is now represented only by colonies upon the East and West coasts of Africa; that France, which at one time controlled large areas in the northern part of North America, the Mississippi Valley, and considerable areas in the Orient, had by 1800 already lost a considerable part of that territory, and by the close of the Napoleonic wars had almost disappeared from the colonial map of the world, but in 1834 began to acquire territory in the north of Africa, and in 1861 and 1862 gained a foothold in Indo-China, to which she added largely in 1884 and 1893, and since 1880 has also enormously increased her African possessions; that the Dutch, whose possessions at one time included territory in America, South Africa, India, Ceylon, Australia, and the East Indies, are now chiefly represented on the world's colonial map by their possessions in Java, Sumatra, Borneo, and adjacent islands; and that England, whose colonial possessions at the beginning of the century were chiefly in North America, the extreme south of Africa, a comparatively small area in India, and a mere foothold in Australia and certain of the West India islands, now has extended her control to all of India, all of Australia, a large share of East Africa, and considerable areas on the West Coast, and an increased number of islands in the Atlantic, the Pacific, and the Indian oceans and the Mediterranean, until her colonial population is eight times as great and the colonial territory ninety times as great as that of the mother country. Meantime Germany has, in the closing quarter of the century, extended her possessions to Africa, the islands of the Pacific and the control of a certain area in China. Italy has recently attempted to enter the list of colonial powers, having a small area in northern Africa, and Belgium now successfully governs a large area in central Africa and the Kongo Free State.

As to the causes of these successes and failures, it may not be improper to here quote certain distinguished writers, including representatives of the various nations in question, in the hope of thus obtaining a consensus of opinion based upon long and careful study.

#### SPAIN.

One of the most careful and successful students of colonial matters and methods throughout the world is Mr. Charles P. Lucas, C. B., formerly of Balliol College, Oxford, author of the *Historical Geography of the British Colonies*, issued in 1887, and of the highly prized introduction to the 1891 edition of Sir George Cornewall Lewis's *Government of Dependencies*, and who for many years has occupied an important position in the British Colonial Office, thus giving him exceptional facilities for studies of this character. In the introduction to his *Historical Geography of the British Colonies* Mr. Lucas says of the successes and failures of Spain:

"The history of Spain is the history of a power which rose quickly to a great height and then as quickly declined. The Spaniards were a fighting and conquering race, but they were not traders to any great extent, and they did not, in spite of redeeming points, succeed as governors. There was an absence among them of steady progress and development. There was no growth of liberty, no tendency to equality, no gradual expansion of view on the part of either the Government or the nation. They regarded the colonies as tributaries to the mother country; they did not train them to self-government. They lost them as suddenly as they gained them, and left them to be, as they are at the present day, a set of restless, unstable, and ill-organized communities. \* \* \* The vast American dominions of Spain were the result of rapid conquest, not of gradually growing commercial settlement. In North America the English made slow way in a desolate land, among scattered savage tribes which could be exterminated, but not enslaved. The course of the Spaniards was widely different. In Mexico and Peru they conquered at a blow nations which were rich, powerful, and well organized, but which had long been broken in to despotism and when once subdued became the slaves of the conquerors. English colonization of North America was, from the first, colonization in its true sense. It consisted of settlements in which there was no native element to be found, and in spite of isolated instances of intermingling, the English and Indians lived entirely outside of each other. The Spanish-American colonies, on the other hand, were simply conquered dependencies, containing a large native population. The Spanish conquest was too rapid to produce sound and beneficial results. The conquerors lost their heads, plunged into cruelty and extravagance, glutted themselves with gold and silver, instead of quietly developing commerce and agriculture, and yielding to the temptations of their position and the enervating influence of the climate, in no long time degenerated in mind and body. The home Government might have checked the pace at which the work was carried on, but, if well-meaning, it was unwise. It instantly sanctioned fresh conquests and encouraged the colonization of the mainland before the colonies on the islands were well and healthily established. \* \* \* When the first wave of



Spanish conquest had spent itself, the interference of the home Government with the colonies became more and more pronounced. The Spanish rulers, like the Spanish adventurers, looked to America for direct returns of gold and silver more than for any revenue from indirect sources. They regarded their new possessions simply as producing so much tribute, and hence watched them very closely and kept them strictly under control. The elements of decay in the mother country were carefully imported into America—political depotism, the undue power of the Church, and social and commercial exclusiveness. The social distinctions between races and classes were carefully maintained, the official appointments were all held by natives of Spain, creoles being jealously excluded, the land was tied up by direct entails, and the system of commercial monopoly was carried to a greater extreme by Spain than by any other country of Europe, all foreigners being excluded from the Spanish Indies, and the trade with the colonies being, until the middle of the eighteenth century, confined to a certain number of ships each year and to the single Spanish port, first of Seville and subsequently Cadiz."

MORRIS.

Mr. Henry C. Morris, of Chicago, in his *History of Colonization*, published in 1900, commenting upon the decline of Spanish colonization, says: "Two abiding characteristics of Spanish colonization, from the administrative point of view, are the attempt to reproduce European methods in the New World and the persistent suspicion and mistrust shown toward the colonists. A fully developed form of rule was introduced among a simple, untutored people. Favoritism was fostered and every man became a detective set over his neighbor. Multitudes of Spaniards invading these possessions regarded the masses as their legitimate prey. Their object was to accumulate wealth for their support in their retirement when they again returned home, for few if any of the officeholders established their permanent residence in America. Another evil factor was the priesthood, for little by little the primitive uprightness and honesty of the clergy were lost. Among the chief obstacles to the development of the country was the large extent of the landed estates which the Church gathered in its hands in perpetuity or main mort. In some provinces at the time of the insurrections it owned 80 per cent of the real property, and in several States the monasteries covered 75 per cent of the total area, while the number of monks was immense. \* \* \* A detailed discussion of the reasons for the misfortunes suffered by the Spaniards in colonization is not necessary. In every epoch and region the subjects were soon to reap the whirlwind. To repeat the causes would be a long and monotonous undertaking—too centralized administration, utter lack of self-government, corrupt officials, avaricious greed for quick returns at the sacrifice of future prospects, a restrictive commercial system, trade monopoly, erroneous economic doctrines, the admission of the Church to an exaggerated share in public affairs, a general wastefulness of resources accompanied by enormous taxation are the elemental facts to which disaster was due. The Crown always clung to the maxim that it was the right of the parent State to draw all possible benefit and advantage to itself from the colonies, irrespective of the interests of the latter."

BLACKMAR.

Prof. Frank W. Blackmar, in the August, 1900, issue of the publication of the American Economic Association, discussing Spanish colonial policy, points out that the trade of Spain with the colonies was made a monopoly in the hands of an organization known as the *Casa de Contratación*, which controlled absolutely the trade between Spain and the colonies; that commerce with the colonies was subjected to a duty of  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent, which was afterwards advanced to 12 per cent; that the home Government forbade the colonists to raise any products that could be raised at home, and the universal principle adopted that whatever colonial occupation interfered with home industry was to be destroyed directly by law or taxed out of existence. "All the laws," he says, "the control of trade, commerce, agriculture, finance, taxation, the foundation of municipalities, the management of the natives, and the regulation of religion were made in the mother country and sent to the colonies with the expectation that the latter would adapt themselves to the laws. Nor did the decrees of the Crown and its agencies stop here, but the home bureau organized the colonial government, local and central. The officers and rulers were natives of Spain sent out to rule these distant dependencies. During the Spanish domination in America nearly all the important offices of the state and church had been filled by Spaniards. The presidents and judges of the courts were from Spain. There were 18 Americans out of 672 viceroys, captains-general, and governors; and 105 native bishops out of 706 who ruled in the colonies. This system of officialism continued in all of the colonial possessions of Spain to the close of the present century. It was strongly marked in Cuba and Porto Rico at the time of the occupation of those islands by the United States. Thus the independent wealth of the colonies was destroyed and barriers against development were set up. It was really a strange attitude for a nation to assume—that of making the newly discovered territory a part of the royal domain, to extend over it the system of government practiced by the home Government, to supply its officers and courts, in fact, to make it a part and parcel of the nation and then turn against it to exploit and rob it as if it were an enemy of the nation. The establishment of central authority and the attempt to govern arbitrarily these Spanish colonies regardless of their interests proved a burden to the nation that improvised the system. The policy of promoting trade became a means of hindering and destroying it. It established commercial prices and controlled trade, but in doing so it prevented the development of wealth, and finally forced commerce into the hands of foreigners. \* \* \* The failure to develop vital and vigorous colonies with an independent life and wealth-creating power, and the repression of wholesome trade brought poverty instead of wealth to both parties. \* \* \* The whole system of pretended self-government was a farce, an imperialism extended to the remotest bounds of the colonial province. Viewed from one standpoint the colony was a part of the central Government controlled by hordes of royal officeholders. Viewed from another, it was a territory to be used, robbed, a matter of convenience, the rights and privileges of whose inhabitants the central Government was in no way bound to respect."

BRANDT.

Arthur A. Brandt, of Java, in a discussion of the "Evolution of colonial policy," published in "*Bertrage zur Kolonial Politik und Wirtschaft*," Berlin, 1900-1901, says: "Spanish and Portuguese seafarers crossed and conquered the world; Dutch and English followed suit. All these conquests, however, had as their purpose in the acquisition of territory only the gathering of riches. Europe of those days was so thinly populated that there was no necessity for emigration. Wherever there was a chance to abstract metallic treasure found in the hands of the natives, the latter were simply called for; in those cases where neither gold, silver, nor precious stones were procurable, but instead products of native growth, such as coffee, sugar, tea, spices, or other tropical products, the native population was tolerated to exist as a necessary evil. Their lives were spared, though extreme exploitation by the conquerors was resorted to."

## MERIVALE.

Prof. Herman Merivale, A. M., professor of political economy at Oxford University, in his lectures on colonization and colonies, in 1839, 1840, and 1841, says of the causes of failure of the Spanish colonial system: "The state of society in the American colonies early assumed the character of an oligarchy. The pure Spanish families were few in number. They were often possessed of considerable wealth, either from their agricultural possessions or from successful mining operations. \* \* \* It was this oligarchical character of society, together with the system of restrictions under which they lived which produced the habit of the Spanish Creoles to congregate in cities, contrary to what has already been observed of the general spirit of modern colonists. The bulk of the population of these cities was made up of the mixed classes—those which grew up from the intermixture of Spaniards with Indians, and of both with the negroes, who, in the course of time were imported into the continent. The Indians, where sufficiently numerous, tilled the soil or wrought the mines. Each capital city stood in a rich and well-cultivated district, separated from the rest of the world by deserts of ice and snow. \* \* \* Thus each community dwelt apart, divided at once by natural and artificial barriers. The commercial policy of the Spanish Government toward its continental colonies exhibits the most perfect monument of systematic tyranny of which any age has furnished an example. The traffic with the mother country was confined, at first, to the single port of Seville; afterwards to that of Cadiz, and was under the control of a board termed the 'Casa de Contratación,' which was subjected to the direct government of the Crown. Two squadrons were annually dispatched. \* \* \* It was the great amount of business, relatively speaking, carried on by those few vessels, and the sudden activity communicated to commerce during the brief transactions which supplied the wants of a whole continent—all the trade of the Empire collected as it were on one focus—which dazzled the eyes of European observers, and occasioned the most fallacious ideas respecting the amount of annual exchanges actually made. \* \* \* Thus, while the Americans had to buy the goods of the mother country, or those which the importers had purchased from abroad, at a price far exceeding their values, the benefit of this monopoly was reserved to a small and privileged class alone. \* \* \* The political treatment of the Spanish colonies was quite in keeping with their commercial administration. The system of government by viceroys, captains-general, audiencias, and councils, with their various relations to each other, has been truly described as a complicated contrivance to render every part of the government a check on every other. The best governors found it impossible to carry into effect any scheme for the amelioration of society; the worst found it easy enough to enrich themselves and aggrandize their favorites. The state of the church was perhaps the worst feature of all in the condition of these colonies. \* \* \* The clergy, both religious and secular, were notoriously lazy and corrupt to a degree unknown in the mother country. The Inquisition, with all its appurtenances, was transferred across the Atlantic; education was for the most part sedulously discouraged, and Viceroy Gil de Lemos said to a deputation from the collegians of Lima, who sought some extension of their privileges, 'Learn to read, write, and say your prayers, for this is as much as any American ought to know.'"

## PORTUGAL.

Commenting upon the decline of the Portuguese colonies, Lucas says: "The Portuguese, like the Spaniards, were a conquering and crusading race, but there was more of the trader in the Portuguese than in the Spanish character. \* \* \* Being traders, they did not attempt to do so much as the Spaniards in so short a time, and were content for the most part to plant stations on the coast without extending their dominion far inland. They emigrated in large numbers and colonized the outskirts of the East to a greater extent than the European nations which came in after them. Their rise and decline, however, like those of the Spanish power, were very rapid. They rose on the tide of chivalry, religious fanaticism, and adventurous search for riches, and, like the Spaniards, treated the natives with cruelty and carried into their dependencies religious and commercial oppression. The monopoly of trade in the Portuguese, as well as in the Spanish Empire, was reserved to the Crown, and no charter companies helped to build up the dominion and extend the trade of Portugal in the East. Nor was the policy of the home Government in the administration of their dependencies such as to hold together and consolidate an empire. The viceroys were elected at intervals of three years, changes which were accompanied by a corresponding mutation in the subordinate offices. Their power was restricted by making them dependent upon councils of advice and control, and the single viceroyalty of the East Indies was broken up into independent governments. The King and his ministers regarded the officers whom they sent out with jealousy and suspicion, and were served in turn by a set of men who kept the authorities at home in the dark as to the true condition of their dependencies, who did not administer justice to the people, but only inquired what profit their predecessors derived from their administration, that they might obtain more. Lastly, in addition to the mistake which the Portuguese, in common with the older European nations, made of crippling their trade by a system of close monopolies, they further erred in not laying themselves out directly to supply the markets of Europe; they brought back the riches to Lisbon only, and left it to the Dutch to distribute them throughout European ports."

## MORRIS.

Morris, commenting upon the decline of Portuguese colonization and its causes, says: "In their desire to seize and retain the whole traffic of the regions within their empire, the Portuguese fell into the error which had misled their predecessors. They believed that force of arms was necessary to effect the ends of trade. Never was there a more fallacious proposition. \* \* \* The Portuguese also proclaimed Lisbon the sole European port to which their ships might resort and at which they might discharge their cargoes. The transportation of the wealth of the Indies to other than the capital city was the only labor required of their mariners. \* \* \* The administration of the Indies was intrusted to a viceroy, stationed at Goa, invested with supreme authority, both military and civil, but appointed for three years only, lest by a longer term he might become too powerful, and, consequently, insubordinate to the Crown. The result was that, almost universally, these governors, regardless of means and methods, improved their limited opportunity to amass wealth, and petty functionaries, no less than chief executives, devoted their period of service to their personal aggrandizement. Portuguese ships and traders paid as taxes, port dues, and customs collected in the Indies immense sums, which went directly into the coffers of the viceroys and their subalterns, the metropolis receiving a bare dribble of its revenues. The participation of officials in trade was the capstone of demoralization. From the highest to the lowest the representatives of the Government were unscrupulous, and the eastern colonial edifice of Portugal, when touched from within, collapsed, therefore, as if built on sand."

## ITALY.

Italy's colonial experiences cover a comparatively short period and are not characterized by such success as to justify a detailed study, though they may warrant a brief examination of the history of her colonial work, if only with the purpose of avoiding errors.

## KELLAR.

Mr. Albert G. Kellar, in the August, 1900, number of the *Yale Review*, says: "Italy is a nation which by taking thought hoped to add unto her stature. Granted that England's greatness is emphasized and augmented by her colonial possessions, it is but a logical non sequitur to conclude that Italy, by acquiring colonies and possessions, will thereby take her place among the powers. And yet the Italians seem to have believed it possible to substitute for the long and toilsome road from cause to effect a convenient short-cut from effect to cause. Colonies were not only to increase Italy's political importance; they were also to build up her trade, develop her merchant marine, and make her rich. Italy was not prepared to take her place among colonizing nations; she lacked the internal cohesion and organization necessary to the political unity that turns its arms to the outside world. She lacked capital and, in a certain sense, superfluous population for external colonization; what forces she had could better have been used for internal development, which in turn would have aided national organization and prosperity. She lacked the objective knowledge of lands and peoples which the great colonizing nations attained from the actual experience of their traders and navigators long before their colonial empires were even begun. She was unfit for colonization because she lacked those things which she hoped the possession of colonies would bring her. One more disqualification must be noted: The Italians, together with the other Latin nations, suffered from a race temperament unfortunate in colonizers. They are dominated too much by feeling and too little by judgment. They are attracted too much by abstract theory, military glory, and all that. They can not accept defeat with dignity, renounce a high-sounding ideal, and bide their time with patience. \* \* \* With an eye ever upon England and Holland, the endeavor was made to construct a greater Italy. To these high ambitions, however, were joined the most absurd fears, an unsettled policy, a general weakness and indecision—qualities seldom exhibited in any degree by a people ripe for colonization. During the early days of the colonial agitation the Italian consul at Nice, one of those whose opinion concerning the new policy was officially asked, opposed such a movement, saying that for colonization capital, hands, and heads were needful, but that Italy possessed only the last of these requirements. \* \* \* Considering the ground she has had to work on, Italy has certainly made a creditable showing, but it must not be imagined that her liberal administration cost nothing; deficits appear annually in the colonial budget. There have been repeated struggles to reduce the yearly expenses of the colonies to 9,000,000 or 8,000,000 lire, but no such scheme seems to have succeeded. The deficit has averaged considerably more than this figure, and during the latter period of colonial expansion up to 1896 the losses are estimated by Brunialti as 10,000 men and 500,000 lire. For a country whose debt was in the thousand millions, who, out of every 100 lire, pays 33 for interest on debt and 33 for maintenance of army and navy, this colonial policy was certainly what one of its opponents called it, a 'politique de luxe.' For a rich nation to expend great sums in the work of civilization or extermination may be wastefulness; for a poverty-stricken, debt-burdened nation full of internal strife and uproar it is almost suicide."

## FRANCE.

The French colonial system of the present day, which is largely the product of the last thirty years, can not be said to have as yet attained unquestioned success, at least as regarded from a financial standpoint. A large proportion of the colonial territory now held by France has been secured since the loss of a part of her own territory in the Franco-Prussian war, and necessarily the cost of creating and maintaining government in and developing this new territory draws heavily upon its revenues. In the older colonies, however, especially Algeria, which France has controlled since 1830, and which is treated as a province of France and not as a colony in the ordinary acceptance of that term, conditions are prosperous and the control of the territory is looked upon as advantageous to France in many ways. The receipts are sufficient for the ordinary expenses, its fields supply many of the wants of France, and of its imports in 1899, which amounted to 310,000,000 francs, 280,000,000 francs were drawn from France; while of the exports in 1899, valued at 325,000,000 francs, 271,000,000 francs were sent to France. French Indo-China, which includes Cochin China, Tonking, Anam, and Cambodia, with an area of 283,000 square miles, or considerably more than that of France, and a population of over 22,000,000, has also recently become self-supporting so far as the ordinary current expenses are concerned. The *Annuaire Colonial*, issued by the French Government in 1901, states that the budget general of 1899 showed an excess of receipts over expenditures of 8,000,000 francs, and that of 1900 an excess of receipts over expenditures of more than 7,000,000 francs, and adds: "The prosperity of the commerce is measured by the following facts. Before 1897 the commerce general of Indo-China was from 200,000,000 to 215,000,000 francs; in 1896, it was 215,000,000; in 1897, 257,000,000; in 1898, it was 298,000,000; in 1899, 357,000,000, and in 1900, 471,000,000. This is in four years an increase of 118 per cent." Aside from these two colonies of Algeria and Cochin China, the French colonies have not as a rule reached the self-supporting condition, and the French budget for 1900 called for 106,000,000 francs for colonies and that of 1901 for 103,000,000 francs. No nation or people gives more careful study to the theory of colonization or to the methods of advancing colonial prosperity than the French. The public officials, the educational institutions, the economists, and the press follow with great care and discuss in much detail the condition of their colonies and the lessons to be drawn from present conditions and the experiences of the past.

## M. DE LANESSAN.

One of the most careful and experienced students of colonial affairs is M. J. L. de Lanessan, the present Minister of Marine of the French Government, who spent many years in the English and French colonies, especially the latter, serving subsequently in the French Chamber of Deputies, where he gave special attention to colonial matters during the period of greatest colonial expansion of that Government in the nineteenth century, and subsequently serving as governor-general of French Indo-China during the most important period of its history. His views, therefore, upon colonial matters and methods are extremely valuable, and his discussion of the methods of his own Government in extending and developing its colonies especially important. "Generally speaking," says M. de Lanessan in his work, *Principes de Colonisation*, "it may be said that in the French colonial possessions very little regard has been shown for the interests of the native people. Imbued with the spirit of the Roman jurisprudence, which lies at the basis of all institutions of the mother country,

we (the French) have shown no greater regard than that of transferring to our colonial possessions the whole administrative and judiciary machinery of the mother country, without asking ourselves whether the natives for whose benefit we profess to work would not find in this machinery simply tools of oppression and exploitation. Not to mention the old colonies, where a new race formed by a mixture of black and white required political, administrative, and judicial institutions better adapted than ours to their special character, we have introduced in colonies such as Cochin China and Senégál, where the native population is altogether distinct from the European race by custom, religion, etc., an organization which seems to have been constructed in such a way as to crush and triturate the native so as to reduce him to a pasty mass fitting the taste of the Europeans. What else are the colonial councils of Senégál and Cochin China with the preponderance in them of European members and their considerable power as regards the assessment of fiscal charges and expenditures but an organization for the exploitation of the natives? What else are the introduction of our codes, our administration, our lawyers and our men of affairs but another means of turning over the natives to the exploitation of Europeans? I believe that to make these colonies prosperous and to acquire the sympathy and confidence of the people we ought to strive to protect them against the proclivities on the part of Europeans of exploiting them. Our laws and codes ought to be introduced as little as possible and each colony ought to have the right to adopt for itself a system of legislation adapted to the particular necessities of the country and the habits of the natives. If the people of the colonies are yet in a state of more or less distinct barbarism, the colonizing nation is obliged to take in its hands the direction of its administrative affairs, but in doing so should make as much use as possible of the chiefs and the heads of the more important families, in order to show its intention of not breaking with the local customs. But it should treat the customs, habits, religion, and even prejudices of the natives in such manner as to earn sympathies which might be utilized in order to introduce gradually progress and civilization. \* \* \* The direction of affairs in the colony should never be intrusted to the military authorities, as by its education, personal interests, and surroundings the army is irresistibly led to the abusive use of force.

LUCAS.

Commenting upon French colonial history and policy, Mr. Lucas says, in his introduction to the *Historical Geography of Colonies*: "The French have in many respects always been eminently suited for colonizing. They have never been found wanting in enterprise, in fighting qualities, or power of adapting themselves to new peoples and new countries. Their leaders showed a definite policy in dealing with the native races; they treated them with humanity and consideration; they organized them and gave them cohesion; they formed alliances and counter alliances, and carried the spirit of European politics into Asia and America. Their first connection with the New World was that of traders pure and simple. They went out not to conquer or to look for gold, but to follow up the fisheries of Newfoundland and the fur trade of Canada. Starting with commercial objects they steadily settled in Canada, took their way up the St. Lawrence and down the Ohio to join the settlement which La Salle placed at the mouth of the Mississippi. And, when finally conquered, they left the present Province of Quebec to be at all times an evidence of solid French civilization. Again, in the West Indian Islands the colonies were the result of individual enterprise, of the efforts of adventurers and buccaneers who played for their own hand, attacked the monopoly of the Spanish Main, and succeeded to such an extent that Santo Domingo, one of the points at which they established themselves, was prior to the French Revolution the most thriving of all the islands. What, then, were the failings of the government which in the end more than counterbalanced the aptitude of the people for colonization? \* \* \* The errors which proved fatal were not commercial, but partly political and partly religious. Politically they made two mistakes—in the first place, they tried to do too much; in the second place, they wanted a settled and continuous and a reliable policy. Professor Seeley thought France had too many irons in the fire; that 'she lost the New World because she was always divided between a policy of colonial extension and a policy of European conquest.' Professor Freeman shows also that while France conquered her neighbors on the Continent, she lost her dependencies abroad. It need hardly be added that the same fault of taking up too much at once has been conspicuous in French foreign policy in late years. The French Government also perpetually interfered with its chartered companies, instead of giving them a steady, consistent support. There were no fewer than six distinct East India companies, the first incorporated in 1604, the sixth in 1719. \* \* \* Court favorites were appointed to high commands, corruption and peculation were rife among the subordinate officers, and even where there were capable men at the head of affairs, ruinous dissensions and jealousies sprang up and were fostered. The attitude in the matter of religion was even more fatal to the strength and permanence of the French colonial empire. \* \* \* The judgment of history is that France lost Canada through the policy of religious exclusiveness which her rulers pursued. \* \* \* In spite, however, of the loss of her dependencies in the last century, the French at the present day fill a very different position among colonizing nations from that of the Spaniards or Portuguese. France is still a power, and a forward power in all parts of the globe, conquering rather than settling, and still, as of old, interfering in too many places at once."

MORRIS.

Commenting upon the earlier failures and more recent successes of France as a colonizing power, Morris, in his *History of Colonization*, published in 1900, says: "The reasons why France was not able to retain her colonial power are so self-evident as not to require exemplification. The love of territorial conquest is everywhere the destruction of French rule. The aims of the representatives of French sovereignty were the exclusive control of the best regions of North America and the expulsion of England and Holland utterly and entirely from India and the Indian Ocean. The hope to consummate the Herculean task was as preposterous as it was unessential. Had the nation been willing to hold a few places, seriously to colonize and strongly to fortify them, the nucleus would have been formed for future healthy and vigorous development; but such a modest policy did not satisfy the visions of glorious achievement dreamed by France and her governors. The attenuated distribution of navy and army in distant parts of the world, thus imposed, in connection with the necessity of constant vigilance at home, swiftly enfeebled national resources. \* \* \* The one practical lesson to be drawn from the experience of France in this early period is that a colonial system can not be artificially created by the State. It must be a spontaneous manifestation of a popular desire. Mere territorial aggrandizement does not imply strength. In peopling and cultivating remote lands the prime element is the participation of the masses; adventurous lives, glorious deeds, large capital, nominal control, and titular sovereignty over millions of savages or untutored aborigines are not the essential mainstays. Rapid conquests do not imply enduring power. Slower, more plodding, but more prudent and more assiduous methods are required to insure success."

Commenting upon the later French colonial history, Mr. Morris says: "The verdict on French (colonial) enterprises is not yet written. French rule over foreign lands may well be said to be for the most part in the transitory stage. \* \* \* To have effected these results since 1830, in view of the few dilapidated fragments of the former colonial domain then recently recovered, is certainly a work of which the French people may be proud. While these achievements are not yet by any means final, the foundation is well laid for the subsequent erection of the superstructure. \* \* \* Whatever be the opinion of the details of French rule, it must be conceded that the doctrines of to-day constitute a decided improvement over the theories of the old system. \* \* \* It must be with deep regret that French statesmen of this age reflect upon the disasters of the past. Liberty and exemption from paternalism are the crying needs of French colonization. Let France have the courage to remodel the administration of her colonies, to liberate them from red tape officialism, and to give them their local independence. With these essential reforms, drawing in their wake so many minor ameliorations, permanent prosperity will be assured."

DIGELOW.

Poultney Bigelow, in his "Children of the Nations," 1901, says: "Since the Franco-German war the French nation has sought consolation in colonial expansion, and the French flag now flies over an immense area of northern and tropical Africa, Tonquin, and parts of Polynesia. France now, as in the days of Champlain, shows no lack of venturesome spirits, and the annals of modern exploration contain few names more glorious than that of Colonel Monteil. But, though France in her colonies shows to-day greater liberality than in the time of Louis XIV, she yet reflects the failings of the mother country to an extent which depresses her own most serious writers on the subject. \* \* \*

"Next door to French Guiana was British Guiana, flourishing under a healthy representative administration, while Cayenne pined away under the suffocating influence of too much officialism. The excellent roads which the French have built in northern Africa, and, above all, the vast sums expended on railway construction and military effectiveness, prove that France is thoroughly in earnest from an administrative point of view. The general commanding the division of Oran told me that he regarded the railway as the main civilizing instrument of France; that we must have patience and faith in the future; that savage tribes who now prowled on the flanks of caravan columns would ultimately give up nomadic life and till the soil, when the locomotive should have demonstrated that brigandage was no longer profitable or even possible.

"The French nation has shown itself strangely susceptible to far-reaching projects and ideals far removed from mere gain. It develops vast military energy and popular enthusiasm in acquiring colonies which produce no revenue, but flatter the rising generation, who think that the size of a country is the measure of its importance. The French are proverbially reluctant to leave their country, even as tourists. Yet in no other country does the public mind occupy itself so much with the military and official side of colonization. The Frenchman, impatient of military routine at home, has but to plunge into the African wilderness and plant the flag of his country in some lonely place to be immediately recognized by the press as a notable person. Should it happen that the flag was inadvertently stuck into soil already occupied by England, and should his action be resented in London, he returns not merely a hero, but something of a martyr as well. On his way to Paris deputations from the various towns greet him with wreath and brass bands. The press finds in his glorious failure a text from which to preach upon the greed of 'perfidious Albion,' and thus new fuel is added to the popular fires of colonial zeal.

"Northern Africa is dear to the Frenchman, for it represents the soil on which his armies have fought from the Pyramids to the Pillars of Hercules. He has done much for Egypt. Notably was it a Frenchman who built the Suez Canal in 1869; but it was English shipping which made it profitable, and it was ultimately England to whom Egypt owed the capture of Khartoum and the good administration throughout the valleys of the Nile.

"Algiers is but a few hours' sail from the south of France, and Tunis not much farther. Here is the field in which we might look for a prosperous French peasantry under climatic conditions but slightly different from those prevailing in Provence or Gascony. Yet to-day it is not the Frenchman, but the Italian and the Spaniard, who furnish the language of the white man for this part of the world. There are French cafes in the towns, and the little round tables are occupied by French officials; French uniforms are on all sides, and the French flag waves over the Government buildings. That flag is a blessing to the country, so far as it means good roads, efficient police, courts of justice, harbor works, and other necessary expenditure. But from a colonial point of view, Spain and Italy are the countries directly benefited rather than France. \* \* \*

"France is doing a great work in the civilization of the world, notably among inferior races. Her missionaries are more successful than ours; and, whether in the backwoods of Canada, among the negroes of the West Indies, or in the Far East, the Frenchman has to a remarkable degree shown a capacity to live the life of the subject race and acquire personal ascendancy over him.

"The history of the French in India has been frequently noted by English historians as a notable instance of failure on the eve of a great triumph, for at one time France, with a handful of clever negotiators and enterprising soldiers, had apparently mastered the land of the Great Mogul. Yet the French administration in India crumbled to pieces under the quick strokes of a handful of Englishmen with the same startling completeness which characterized her loss of Canada at about the same time (1759). And the reasons were roughly analogous—persisting to this day. The Frenchman is a brave soldier, and his fellow-citizens have a passion for detailed administration. They conquer and they govern, but they do not colonize. When they govern, they govern too much. They are suspicious of native initiative and distrustful of colonial self-government.

"It does, indeed, seem as though history rejoiced in paradoxes, which we have to note, that the Scandinavians, the Germans, and the Italian people, without colonies worth mentioning, send forth annually a powerful stream of humanity to enrich other countries, and that France, with her vast colonial possessions, should show herself capable of producing nearly everything but colonies."

IRELAND.

Regarding the methods in the French colonies, Mr. Alleyne Ireland, an Englishman who resided many years in the British colonies, but who is at present a resident of the United States, says in his *Tropical Colonization*, 1899:

"In regard to their forms of government, the French tropical colonies may be divided into two classes—those in which the government is carried out to some extent by the passage of laws, and those in which all matters are settled by the simple decree of the

governor. To the first class belong Martinique, Guadeloupe, and Réunion; to the second class all the other French tropical colonies. In the first class of colonies the principal subjects to which the passage of laws is applicable are the exercise of political rights, the regulation of contracts, matters relating to wills, legacies, and succession, the institution of juries, criminal procedure, recruiting for naval and military forces, the method of electing mayors, municipal deputies, and councilors, and the organization of the local councils-general. In regard to all other matters of importance all the French tropical colonies are on the same basis of legislation—that is, government by decrees issued by the governor or the minister of the colonies.

"The governor of a French colony has very wide powers. He is commander of the local land forces and of such vessels of war as may be attached to his station, as well as of the local militia. He can, of his own authority, declare his colony in a state of siege, and has at all times the power to appoint courts-martial for the trial of military offenders. In his administrative capacity he has absolute authority to regulate nearly all the internal affairs of his colony; and he is above the law, for he can not be brought before the local courts for any cause whatever.

"The governor is to some extent guided by the advice of two bodies—the privy council, which is a nominated body consisting of official and unofficial members, and the general council, which is made up of councilors elected by the votes of all male persons over 25 years of age who have resided for more than one year in the colony. Generally speaking, these bodies merely advise, but in regard to a few matters, such as the fixing of the tariff, the regulation of transfers of property and mortgages, the governor is bound to follow the advice thus given him. Such, in brief, is the constitution of the French tropical colonies; but in addition to the privy council and the general council, some of the colonies have local councils and conseils d'arrondissements. The exact delimitation of the functions of these various bodies would involve an amount of detail which would be out of place in a volume intended merely as an introduction to the study of tropical colonization.

"The principal officers under the governor in the French colonies with which I am dealing are the director of the interior, the military commandant, the chief of the health department, the permanent inspector of finances, the attorney-general, and the judges of the superior courts. It is to be noted that Martinique, Guadeloupe, and some of the other colonies which I have named send representatives to the French assembly, usually one senator and two deputies; but it is difficult to see that the colonies derive any advantage from this arrangement.

"The system which I have just described would seem to imply a very rigid government control over the French colonies; but my observation leads me to suppose that, although such control does undoubtedly exist in some of the French colonies, notably in Madagascar and Indo-China, in others, owing to the weakness of French officials and the fear inspired by the aggressive attitude of the natives, the ignorant masses are practically in control. In this view I am supported by no less authority than Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, the eminent French economist. In his work, 'De la Colonisation chez les Peuples Modernes,' he says, 'As regards politics, we have introduced French liberty into our colonies; we give them civil governors; we admit their representatives into our Parliament. \* \* \* All these reforms are excellent in themselves. It is unfortunately to be feared that they will, in practice, result in abuses, and that unless the mother country is very watchful those free powers which she has granted to her colonies will become powers of oppression.'"

#### NETHERLANDS.

The colonial history of Netherlands, like that of France, may be considered in two distinct periods: The earlier, characterized by the acquisition of large areas (in many cases with but doubtful success), followed by losses of a considerable portion of its scattered territories; and in the later period application to a development of its island possessions in the Orient, especially Java and Sumatra, in which, particularly the former, it has been remarkably successful from a financial standpoint, and in more recent years through the internal development of the island and improvement in the condition of the natives.

#### LUCAS.

"The rise of the Netherlands as a colonizing nation," says Lucas in his introduction to the Historical Geography of the Colonies, "dates from the beginning of the seventeenth century. By 1661 they had practically driven their Portuguese rivals out of the Indian seas, taken Mauritius and St. Helena, planted a colony at the Cape, established factories on the shores of the Persian Gulf, in the Persian capital of Ispahan, along the Malabar and Coromandel coasts of India, in Bengal, Burmah, and Cochin-China; had expelled the Portuguese from Ceylon, Malacca, and Formosa, and killed their trade with China and Japan. They had become all-powerful in the East Indian Islands, the possession of which, with their rich trade, was the earliest, as it was always the main object of all Dutch efforts, and as far back as 1619 they had founded in Java the great city of Batavia. They had explored, too, while they traded and conquered, and made known to the world Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand. \* \* \* The keynote of Dutch colonization was trade. Their dealings with the peoples of the East were the dealings of merchants, not of warriors or conquerors; they guided their policy for good and ill by the interest of their commercial monopoly, and, while staunch supporters of the reformed religion, subordinated religion itself to trade. The monopolies of the Latin peoples were, as we have seen, almost entirely Crown monopolies; the Dutch, on the other hand, committed their trade wholly to chartered companies. In the dealings of these companies commercial exclusiveness was carried to the last extreme. The trade of the Spice Islands especially was most jealously and unscrupulously protected from foreign interference. The system was at once ungenerous, oppressive, and unsound, but it had the merit of concentrating 'the private strength and wealth of the mercantile community'—a species of concentration which was necessary while Holland was fighting her way up among nations. \* \* \* Enterprising as the Dutch were, they remained little more than traders from first to last. They never emigrated in great numbers. The two parts of the world where they settled and colonized, the Cape and North America, passed into English hands. Nor were they a governing race in the true sense; they governed almost solely with the view of making a direct profit for the mother country. \* \* \* Among the causes of the success of the Dutch colonization in the past, writers have noticed their strict attention to business, a dogged maintenance of their commercial monopolies, the rigid supervision kept over their subordinate officers, and the combination in the case of the latter of regular payment and systematic promotion with absolute prohibition of private trading. \* \* \* No people ever had so definite an aim in foreign and colonial policy as the Dutch, and none ever realized their aim more completely. From the first their one object was to secure the trade of the Spice Islands. They tried to avoid collision with other powers. They did not want to conquer;



they did not want to acquire territory. They wanted only to trade. And when in 1824, after the Napoleonic wars, Holland, having become a political cipher in Europe, and having lost Ceylon and the Cape, gained, by treaty with England, recognition of her possessions in the East Indian archipelago, the object with which she became a colonial power was finally attained," viz, the permanent control of her present possessions in the East Indies, Java, and Sumatra.

## LECLERCQ.

M. Jules Leclercq, in a valuable work issued in 1898, *Un Séjour dans l'île de Java*, says: "The traveler returning from Java is likely to be asked by the Dutch by what he was most impressed in their splendid colony, and he is tempted to answer that the most striking feature is to see that they are there at all. This simple people, whose country is but a dot on the map of the world, has ruled for the last three centuries, with admirable tenacity, this vast colonial empire of the Indian archipelago, which contains 35,000,000 inhabitants, comprising islands as great as France, and which are the remnants of the former immense empire which the Dutch possessed in the East Indies, and which formerly extended to the Bengal and even to the Cape of Good Hope. \* \* \* How have the Dutch maintained themselves in the archipelago? How have 30,000 Europeans peaceably governed 35,000,000 Malay Javanese? This is the most wonderful fact in Java, and it is the most interesting to examine. Holland has no autonomous colonies as England has; such as have a responsible government and parliament. The Dutch colonies have no independent existence whatsoever. They are subject to the control of the mother country, and the King's representative exercises there almost absolute power. Before the Dutch constitution of 1848 the King had the right of exclusive administration of the colonial possessions. At present the law requires a budget of the colonies of their most important affairs. The administration of the colonial possessions is exercised in the King's name by the minister of colonies, and a detailed annual report is presented to the States General on the situation in the colonies. The government in the Indies is vested in one man, the governor-general, a functionary of the King, and responsible to him for the proper discharge of his office. He is the commander of the land and sea forces of the Dutch Indies. He exercises supreme control over the different branches of the general administration. He issues ordinances on all matters not regulated by royal decree, declares war, makes peace, and concludes treaties with the native princes, and appoints civil and military employees. One of his most important duties is the protection of the natives. He watches that no cession of land violates their rights, and issues rules and regulations relating to the Government cultures; fixes the kind and extent of the forced labor, and sees to the proper execution of all ordinances pertaining to this matter. He has the power of disciplining all foreigners who disturb the public order. To be sure, by his side, or rather under him, there is an Indian council meeting under his chairmanship, and constituted of a vice-president and four members, but this is merely a consultative body whose opinion he takes, however, without being bound to follow it. \* \* \* At the head of the civil administration are five officials who hold the modest title of directors and are subject to the order and supreme control of the governor, who is, in the empire of the Indies, almost the King himself in the absolute sense of the term. The machinery of the local administration reveals the ingenious skill by which a very small number of functionaries rule the densest population of the world. The island is divided into 22 provinces, at the head of which are European officials who are as powerful in their provinces as the governor-general in the colony at large, \* \* \* and who are aided by assistants, who in turn have their subordinates in the persons of the controllers, who see to the proper observation of the regulations relating to the natives, visiting periodically in the villages of their districts, listening to complaints, overseeing the plantations, and forming the link which connects the native administration to the European administration. \* \* \* The mechanism of government consists partly in concealing the true motors of the machine under the network of pure display by leaving to the native princes the illusion of power and veiling the action of the European rulers. Each 'residency,' or political division, governed by a resident or governor, comprises one or more residencies, and alongside of each resident, or European governor, there are one or more regents; and while the resident is always a European, the regent, on the other hand, is always a native functionary belonging to the highest families of the country and frequently of princely birth. The natives are subject to the regent, their natural chief, and the resident or European governor of the section, although the real holder of power, does nothing except through the medium of the regent."

The method by which production was controlled and developed in Java and made of great profit to the Government differed from that practised in the other colonies of the world. Through the machinery above described, by which absolute control of the natives was obtained through cooperation with the native chiefs, the Dutch Government in the island of Java was able to dictate what articles should be produced from the soil and in what proportion, and thus what has been known as the "culture system" of Java was established by which each occupant of the land, all of which was held to be practically the property of the Government, was required to plant a certain proportion in coffee, sugar, or such other articles as the officials might direct, and to sell it at a fixed price to the Government, which in turn resold it in the markets of the world at a large profit.

## BOYS.

"Under the culture system," says Henry Scott Boys, formerly an officer of the British Government in India, who visited Java in 1899, "the Government of Java may be said to have become farmers on a gigantic scale. Recognizing the fact that the soil of Java was eminently suited to the growth of certain valuable products, such as sugar, tea, coffee, tobacco, cinnamon, pepper, indigo, and cochineal, and that the native, left to himself, would never exert himself to raise these crops, the Government determined, in its capacity as owner of the land, to declare that in the villages selected as suitable at least one-fifth of the area should be sown with the crop prescribed. If the crop was one such as sugar, requiring manufacture on the spot, a director was placed in the village or group of villages, to whom the villagers were bound to deliver all the raw product as cut, receiving a fixed price for the same. The director, who had received large advances from the Government to enable him to set up the necessary machinery, on his part was bound to deliver a certain quantity of the manufactured article to the Government at a fixed price. The result has been enormous profit to the Government, very considerable gain to the director, and, the advocates of the system say, of great pecuniary advantages to the villagers. Under this scheme, initiated in 1832, the revenue was raised in twenty-five years from £2,000,000 to £9,500,000 annually. Imports jumped from £2,000,000 to £5,000,000, and exports from £2,000,000 to £8,500,000, and population rose during the same period from 6,000,000 to 12,000,000."

## MONEY.

The culture system, under the criticism in the closing part of the nineteenth century, has gradually disappeared. Probably the most elaborate discussion of the Dutch political system in Java which has been published is that of J. W. V. Money, a former British official in India, entitled, *Java; or How to Manage a Colony*, issued in 1861, in which he summarizes the results of the culture system

as follows: "The revenue raised from 24,000,000 florins to 115,000,000 florins; instead of the former yearly deficit, a yearly net surplus of upwards of 45,000,000 florins; the unproductive expenditure for the administration of the country raised from £2,000,000 to £3,000,000; the reproductive expenditure on public works and in developing the resources of the country raised from a mere trifle to over £2,000,000 annually; the imports raised from a yearly average of about one and two-thirds millions to over £5,000,000; the exports raised from a yearly average of about £2,000,000 to over £8,000,000; crime and litigation so diminished that the judicial sittings of the local courts were reduced to an average of about thirty days in the year; the population raised from about 6,000,000 in poverty, paying a revenue of about £2,000,000, to 11,000,000 of the richest peasantry in the East, paying a revenue of £9,000,000, or 16d. and 6s. per head."

## IRELAND.

Ireland, in his work, *Tropical Colonization*, says of the Dutch methods in Java: "The general principles of the culture system were these: All land belonged to the Government and was given out for cultivation on the condition that of all produce four-fifteenths should be paid to the Government. A class of Europeans known as contractors were encouraged by the Government, by means of loans, to build factories and storehouses for the gathering and handling of the crops, chiefly sugar, coffee, and spices. Behind this system lay the corvée, or liability of the country to render a certain amount of free service to the Government in each year (for construction of roads, harbor works, etc.). The amount of such service varied between fifty and seventy-five days a year. By utilizing this forced labor the Dutch covered the island with public roads. The effects of the system were most striking, a remarkable increase taking place in the production, revenue, and imports of the island and a corresponding improvement in the material condition of the peasantry. From 1871 onward the rigor of the system was relaxed, and in recent years taxes have been substituted for the corvée and the land has been thrown open to private enterprise. During the past five years the island, which formerly yielded a handsome annual profit to Holland, has had to face a yearly deficit averaging about \$5,000,000. (This is due in part, at least, to the Achinese war.) The condition of the agricultural classes of Java compares very favorably with that of the same classes in India, and this has been attributed by writers to the fact that under the Dutch system there exist no landlords and middlemen to send up the rental of land."

## MORRIS.

Morris, commenting upon the record of the Dutch in Java in his *History of Colonization*, recounts the early experiences under the Dutch East India Company and those of the nineteenth century, in which the island was developed through the revenues produced by the culture system and the later abandonment of that system, but continuation of the interval development of the island, and says: "The situation of the Dutch during these two intervals immediately suggests the question, which is the true doctrine: To secure financial success at the sacrifice of colonial welfare and private interests, or to promote by every feasible means the progress of the colony and its inhabitants even at the expense of the metropolis? There is no doubt of the correct answer, for under the latter policy the indirect benefits readily compensate the losses sustained. The English have always found it the genuine system, and the recent experience of the Dutch, although costly by reason of their procrastination in its adoption, confirms the fact. After they shall have achieved the public works commenced by them and which should have been sooner undertaken, but must now, because of their postponement, be the more quickly accomplished, their dominions will undoubtedly become self-supporting. This condition forms the happy medium of prosperity for the dependency and satisfaction for the nation; it is the normal status. The history of Java in this century forcibly recalls that of Cuba, but affords this striking contrast—the Dutch began their reforms of their own free will and not too late to save their sovereignty. Under their present rule and future prospects Java and other possessions of the East will probably long remain attached to Holland. \* \* \* It is remarkable how Holland has not merely preserved but extended its dominions. Without them it would be an insignificant, feeble member in the family of Europe. With them its power is much more substantial and far-reaching than many of the larger empires. \* \* \* The Dutch, by their exercise of prudence, judgment, and enlightenment during the past few years, have admirably molded their policy to meet conditions prevailing in the countries over which they rule. By their moderation they have been able to maintain their sovereignty, while by their sagacity they have in many respects improved their position. After two centuries of monopoly, as injurious to their real interests as it was contrary to justice, they have abandoned it; at least, the errors of their former methods are manifest. Private capital and personal energy are now allowed full play. Not a single company, but rather the entire nation has a part of its wealth. Even at the sacrifice of profits abuses in the colony have been corrected and reforms introduced. The natives are not any longer being simply taught to till the soil, but are gradually being more and more brought under the protection of genuine civilization. Education is being developed, and even religion is receiving some individual attention. A spirit of philanthropy is supplementing exclusively mercantile aims."

## BAXTER.

Mr. Sylvester Baxter, in the *Yale Review*, discussing the experience of the Dutch in Java, says: "This example of Dutch success in the management of colonies is not put forward with any idea that it is anything to be copied by ourselves. If we are to succeed, it must not be by imitating what some other nation has done, but by judiciously adapting our methods to the circumstances, just as the Dutch have done. Quite different systems will probably be demanded in the East and West Indies, respectively, and again in Hawaii. In Porto Rico and the Philippines we have to deal with peoples where European power has been in control for three or four centuries, while in Hawaii American influences have long been prominent. In the Philippine Islands we have to do chiefly with the Malay population, naturally docile, and in the West Indies the problem is made more difficult by the large negro element, notoriously turbulent, unruly, and ignorant. The Dutch themselves have failed with the West Indian negro where they have succeeded with the East Indian Malay."

## AN OFFICIAL CRITICISM.

The culture system, although very profitable to the Government, and although under it Javan population increased and the interior of the island was developed, was the subject of severe criticism upon the ground that it was an injustice to the native, both in dictating what he should produce and the methods by which he should dispose of his product, methods which were so adjusted as to become extremely profitable to the Government creating and enforcing the system. It was vigorously attacked in 1868 by a former officer of the Dutch Government, who had spent seventeen years in official life in Java. In a powerful novel, which has been referred to as the "Uncle Tom's Cabin of Java," he pointed out certain features of its injustice to the natives. In that discussion he says:

"The native is by nature a husbandman. The cultivation of rice is in Java what the vintage is in the Rhine provinces and in the south of France. But there came foreigners from the West, who made themselves masters of the country. They wished to profit by the fertility of the soil, and ordered the native to devote a part of his time and labor to the cultivation of those things which should produce higher prices in the markets of Europe. To persuade the lower orders to do so, they had only to follow a very simple policy. The Javan obeys his chief; to win the chiefs it was only necessary to give them a part of the gains and success was complete. To be convinced of the success of that policy, we need only consider the immense quantity of Javanese products sold in Holland; and we shall also be convinced of its injustice, for if anybody should ask if the husbandman gets a reward in proportion to that quantity, then I must give a negative answer. The Government compels him to cultivate certain products upon his ground; it punishes him if he sells to any purchaser but itself and fixes the price actually paid. The expenses of transport to Europe through a privileged trading company are high, the moneys paid to the chiefs for their encouragement increases the prime cost, and because the entire trade must create profit, that profit can not be got in any other way than by paying the Javan just enough to keep him from starving."

#### UNITED KINGDOM.

That the United Kingdom has been more successful in the management of noncontiguous territory than any other nation will probably be conceded by all, and this fact may justify a more extended review of the discussions as to the causes of this success.

LUCAS.

Mr. C. P. Lucas, as already explained, has been for many years an officer of the British colonial office and is now an Assistant Under Secretary, and presumably presents in concrete form the view of those directly connected with the colonial work of Great Britain. In his work on the geography of the British colonies he says:

"The great success of the English in planting colonies and retaining them must be mainly attributed to the character of the country and the race. Great Britain stands alone in Europe in being an island power. The insular position has made the English a race of sailors, has given the country a temperate climate, has kept the people from being perpetually entangled, like their French neighbors, in foreign troubles. In the early days of migration England was not left to herself, and many streams from many lands combined to give her a mixed population. The English-speaking breed is one composed of various elements—English, Saxons, Jutes, Danes, Northmen, Flemings, while the Welsh, Irish, Manx, and Northern Scotch are offshoots of the Celtic stock. Difference of race, too, has been accompanied by varieties of religion. These diversities of geography, of breed, and religious thought give some clew to the history of the English as a colonizing nation. The sea bade them colonize, and as colonization takes men into various parts of the earth, it seems to follow that the inhabitants of a country which is a miniature world in itself will be more successful colonizers than those whose land and breed and thought are all of one uniform type. \* \* \* There have been nearly three centuries during which the English have been engaged in colonizing, and a study of the manner in which the possessions have been acquired will show that each century of colonization has a distinct character of its own. \* \* \* The leading characteristics of English colonial enterprise during the seventeenth century were that it took the form of settlement rather than conquest, that it was little interfered with or protected by the State, and found its sphere of action chiefly in the west. With the eighteenth century English colonization entered on a new and widely different phase. This second period, reaching down to 1814, comprises the years during which Great Britain became an imperial power. Its dependencies were then won chiefly at the point of the sword, and the men to whom they were due were statesmen and soldiers, not explorers or merchants. During the present century colonization has taken on the form of expansion of existing settlements or the absorption of coterminous land, an absorption which in Canada and Australia has been a more or less peaceful process, but which in India and South Africa has been accomplished by constant wars."

Commenting further upon colonial development, especially in the last century, Mr. Lucas says, in his introduction to Lewis's *Government of Dependencies*, when that valuable work was republished in 1891:

"The dependencies of any country which has the good or bad fortune to own dependencies fall into two great classes: Dependencies which it rules, and dependencies which it also settles; lands where the climate forbids European settlement or which are sufficiently peopled already by colored races, \* \* \* and new homes for emigrants from an old country where population is wanted, where the soil and climate bid the incomers to be fruitful and multiply—colonies in the true sense of the word. Before 1841 the places where Europeans can live and thrive had been already annexed, and the chief acquisitions made by Great Britain during the past fifty years have been almost entirely dependencies in tropical lands of Asia, Africa, and the Pacific. What were the causes which have been so fruitful in enlarging the number and size of the British dependencies? In the first place, the same spirit of energetic restlessness which made the English a colonizing race was certain sooner or later to find new openings. In the second place, wherever a civilized nation is side by side with uncivilized races—wherever an organized system borders on disorganization—there is sure to be direct or indirect annexation, whether it be by Russians in Central Asia or by English in India, Burma, and the Malay Indies. But there are above these tendencies three special causes which have operated for expansion mainly in the last twenty years. \* \* \* Looking at the late partition of Africa, or at the parallel case of New Guinea, it is obvious that Great Britain has moved on mainly because Germany has moved on. Among nations, as among men, competition is the law of life, and as in Asia and America Great Britain competed with the Netherlands and France, so in Africa and the Pacific lately she has found a new competitor in Germany, and has literally extended herself in consequence. The second of the three special causes of the late enlargement of the British Empire is to be found in the fact that in the Empire, to an extent for which there is no parallel in history, an old country is linked to young countries—to self-governing colonies which wish to move faster than their mother, and which do not feel the ties and restraints imposed upon a leading European nation. The third and last special cause or feature of the new foreign policy is the regeneration of the system of chartered companies. It is at once cause and effect. It is an effect of a fresh outburst of colonial enterprise, and it is a cause of moving further along the path of annexation by giving to that enterprise cohesion, organization, and a definite plan. The age of great chartered companies seemed wholly gone. They had played a great part in history, and having played their part had become gradually absorbed by their respective governments. Yet in these last days, as if to emphasize the fact that a new era of annexation has dawned, the trade and administration of great territories is being once more taken in hand by companies of merchants. In Borneo the British North Borneo Company rules 31,000 square miles, and their governor administers, under the colonial office, the little colony of Labuan. In Africa the Niger Company, the South Africa and the East Africa companies have extensive power over extensive districts. Why has the day of these chartered

companies come again? The answer will be found in actual or threatened competition in lands unoccupied by Europeans. In the general scramble for the remaining waste places in the world the English, true to their instincts and their traditions, have fallen back upon the semiprivate agencies which on the whole worked so well for them in the past, and it now seems as though the old story of the East India Company was, in a modified form and on a smaller scale, to be reenacted in more than one part of the world. By those who believe that Great Britain should keep moving forward in the interests of the world in general as much as in her own, the revival of chartered companies will be taken as a healthy sign. It is one of the best features of the English that they like, if possible, to keep the Government in the background and not to have their work cut and dried beforehand. Let colony shade into protectorate and protectorate into sphere of influence, and, as skirmishers in front of the main body of organized British possessions, let trading companies go on and do their work, to be absorbed hereafter in the fullness of time."

MORRIS.

Morris, in his *History of Colonization*, discussing the causes of England's success, says: "Englishmen to-day, as throughout the greater part of the nineteenth century, represent the best type in the elaboration and application of methods of colonization. Most of the efforts heretofore made of sound enduring colonial empires have proved futile, and in the majority of instances, when misfortune overwhelmed others in their careers, England was the gainer. To this extent the history of her development beyond the seas is the complement of the annals of her rivals; the losses as sustained by other nations were frequently to her profit. On the ruins of others' splendor England has builded. Taught by their errors and cautioned by their reverses, the present mistress of commerce has endeavored to avoid the mistakes and correct the wrongs of her predecessors in this line of labor. The watchword of her policy has been: Construct, organize, never exhaust, but rather strengthen the dependency, let it cost the mother country what it may. How different from the doctrine of Spain, which has elsewhere been characterized as the profit of the parent State at all hazards, whatever be the cost to the colony. \* \* \* It is not, however, merely a narrative of conquest which has been reviewed, since the struggle throughout the colonial fabric for escape from oppression is everywhere evident. The colonists so widely dispersed in far-separated quarters of the globe, seconded by the efforts of sympathetic Englishmen, have by different means and at various times within the nineteenth century attained independence and self-government, exemption from penal settlements, the abolition of slavery, and the overthrow of corporate tyranny. These four great reforms, respectively inaugurated in Canada, Australia, the West Indies and East India, have thence diffused their beneficent influence to other localities, and their mention alone suffices to recall the rapid evolution, political and social, achieved during a hundred years."

SIR CHARLES DILKE.

Sir Charles Dilke, in his *Problems of Greater Britain*, discusses English colonial methods of to-day as follows:

"Among the English-governed countries there are, then, two great groups. To the one belong Canada, Australia, except its northern coast, New Zealand, Cape Colony, and Bechuanaland; to the other India, a large part of the British African coast, the northern territory of Australia, as well as Ceylon, Mauritius, Labuan, and North Borneo, British Guiana, British Honduras, the West India and other islands, and the territories under the control of the Niger Company, and of the East Africa Company. The former group are the temperate colonies, where, even as near to the equator as Queensland, the English race can labor in the open air, and where the native races consisted mainly of peoples like the red Indian or the Australian aboriginal, of small numbers, who lived by the chase and made little or no use of the soil. In the other group, of which India is the great example, the English find themselves ruling nations and races that they can not hope to replace. We may indeed try to change them in the islands or the small peninsulas; to substitute one black or yellow people for another, as the negroes have been substituted for the Caribs in the West India Islands, and as Hindoos are being in turn substituted for negroes as laborers in some of these, or as the Chinese in parts of British Malaya have taken as workers the place of the Malays; but we can not do without the colored man, nor conveniently till the soil. Most of these countries of dark-skinned labor which are under British rule are Crown colonies (except India, of which we have already treated, and which is indeed in a similar position), and most of the Crown colonies consist of countries of this description. There are a few military stations and a few trading posts, some of which lie outside the Tropics where Englishmen could work if the local resources were sufficient to attract them, but in the main the Crown colonies and the habitation colonies form two separate classes. In some parts of India, as, for example, in the tea districts of Assam and the coffee districts of Madras, we encourage English and Scotch planters, but in the old settled districts of Hindoostan the native landlords will continue to exist, and the social problems there presented to us are different from those of our Crown colonies or of the tropical colonies of France, Holland, Spain, Portugal, and the German Empire. The advance made during the Queen's reign by the self-governing colonies of the Empire has been so remarkable in regard alike to the growth of population, the development of resources, and intellectual and social progress that the Crown colonies, on which in former days was concentrated most of the interest that was felt in British enterprises beyond the seas, have been thrown by comparison into the background.

"The colonies and dependencies of which I have now to treat do not at first sight seem to illustrate the expansive power of our race to the same extent as do Australasia, North America, or South Africa. The old tropical colonies, as, for example, those of the West Indies, appear to the eyes of some observers to have exhausted their vitality and entered upon a period of decline. There are, however, new fields open to British energy in tropical Africa which present us with an early view of the colonial problems of the twentieth century, for the development of Africa by railroad enterprise must be the work mainly of the next generation. As regards the older tropical colonies, it would be unfair to apply to them the same standard by which we measure the growth of the self-governing colonies. With the exception of those military or naval stations to which I have referred, the Crown colonies are either situate in low ground within the Tropics or, like Cyprus, Bermuda, and the extra tropical portion of Bahamas, possess a similar climate. They are unsuited to European labor and in some degree to permanent European residence, inasmuch as upon their rich lowlands European children pine or die. Moreover, instead of having wide fields for settlement, our older tropical colonies are either small or densely inhabited by dark-skinned races. In most of them the British planters incurred in the last generation great losses in consequence of the cessation of slave labor and found much difficulty in obtaining an efficient substitute, while the consequent increase in cost of production was followed by so heavy a fall in the price of the chief among the articles which they produced as seemed to have consummated the ruin of the colonies themselves. Observers at home naturally turned away from the contemplation of what they thought was a picture of decay to the consideration of the brighter prospects of the larger colonies, inhabited, except in the cases of South Africa and of Quebec, by a homogeneous population and having about them infinite power of development—life, hope, and promise. At the same time the Crown

colonies are important to us still, and their decay, if decay there was, is at an end. They include in or near Europe the stations of Gibraltar, Malta, and Cyprus, the chief of which will be dealt with under the head of imperial defense; in America, little besides British Guiana, British Honduras, and the West India Islands; in Africa, the West Coast Settlements, Mauritius with its dependencies, and Natal and others which have been described under the head of South Africa; in Australasia, Fiji and British New Guinea, besides that Western Australia, to which responsible government is immediately to be given, and in Asia, Ceylon, the Straits Settlements, Labuan, and Hongkong. If even we exclude from view the British spheres of influence or as the Germans say, of "interest" upon the Niger, in East Africa, in North Borneo, and in northern Bechuanaland, as well as the protectorates, the population in Crown colonies under direct British rule is almost equal to the population of all the rest of the colonies put together, and the volume of external trade of the Crown colonies greatly in excess of that of the other colonies if those of the Australian continent be omitted."

## IRELAND.

Mr. Alleyne Ireland, author of *Tropical Colonization*, a native of England and who states in that volume that he has spent twelve years in the British colonies and dependencies, discussing the success of the British colonial system, says in the introduction to the above-mentioned work:

"In examining the growth of the British colonial conception, we find that it can be divided into three periods: Firstly, the period of the old colonial system, during which the prevailing idea in regard to colonies was that they were a national asset which should be made to yield as much profit as possible to the sovereign State; secondly, the period of *laissez aller*, marked by a strong sentiment in favor of allowing the colonies to become independent, a sentiment which had its origin in the success of the American Revolutionary war; third, the era of Greater Britain, which may be appropriately described in the words used by Mr. Joseph Chamberlain at the Royal Colonial Institute, on March 31, 1897: 'We have now reached the true conception of our Empire. What is that conception? As regards the self-governing colonies, we no longer talk of them as dependencies. The sense of possession has given place to the sentiment of kinship. We think and speak of them as part of ourselves, as part of the British Empire united to us, although they may be dispersed throughout the world, by ties of kindred, religion, history, and language, and joined to us by the seas that formerly seemed to divide us.' Two powerful causes have contributed to the final development of the British colonial conception—abroad, the growth of colonial ambitions among the great continental powers; at home, a two-fold process of education, appealing on the one hand to the reason, on the other to the emotions of the British people."

## ADAM SMITH.

Adam Smith, in his *Wealth of Nations*, commenting upon the difference between English and French methods, in the earlier days of colonization, says that the difference between the sugar plantations of England and those of France consists in the fact that in the English islands most of the funds were originally received from the parent State, while in the French possessions they were the product of the accumulated profits drawn from the soil and due to the labor of the settlers. Hence the British possessions from the beginning made rapid strides (owing to the private capital from England invested in local industries), while the growth of French establishments was much slower.

## RAMBAUD.

Rimbaud gives the following reasons for the inferiority of the French to the English in colonization: (1) The preponderance of the religious factor in all French enterprises; (2) their introduction of the feudal institutions into the New World; (3) their transfer into the colonies of the same system of administration as that at home; (4) want of inducements to the peasants to emigrate. Contrasted with these it may be said in general terms that the British method has not favored interference with local religious customs, except in cases where human life or the morals of the community were affected; that it has not favored or practiced the introduction of feudal institutions in its colonies; that the adoption of the systems of administration utilized by the home Government has only followed in cases where the community was composed chiefly of natives of the mother country or their descendants; and that the disposition to emigrate has been much more strongly marked among the people of the United Kingdom than those of France.

## LORD SALISBURY.

Lord Salisbury, contrasting the colonial policies of Great Britain and France, in a letter to the British ambassador at Paris, in 1892, said:

"The colonial policy of Great Britain and France in West Africa has been widely different. France, from her basis on the Senegal, has pursued steadily the aim of establishing herself on the Upper Niger and its affluents. This object she obtained by a large and constant expenditure and by a succession of military expeditions. \* \* \* Great Britain, on the other hand, has adopted the policy of advance by commercial enterprise."

## EARL GREY.

Earl Grey, who was British secretary of state for the colonies during Lord John Russell's administration, the period in which the present British colonial system was formulated, writing to Lord Russell in 1853, discusses the principles upon which the colonial system has been framed as follows: "This country has no interest whatever in exercising any greater influence than is indispensable either for the purpose of preventing any one colony from adopting measures injurious to another or to the Empire at large, or else for the promotion of the internal good government of the colonies by assisting the inhabitants to govern themselves when sufficiently civilized to do so with advantage and by providing a just and impartial administration of those of which the population is too ignorant and unenlightened to manage its own affairs."

## CALDECOTT.

Caldecott, in his *English Colonization*, commenting on the causes of British success, says: "The several colonies at different periods of their history have passed through various stages of government, and in 1891 there are some thirty or forty different forms operative simultaneously within our Empire alone. We find one reflection rising in our minds, however, when we survey the history

of this complicated period, namely, that we are looking at the natural growth of an organism which, in its development, has taken differing forms in adaptation to differing needs. No cast-iron mechanism is before us, but a living society, exhibiting vital principles both in what it continues to retain and what it drops or adds by way of alteration. The Briton is supposed to be of rigid character, but in government he has proved himself to be the most elastic of all Europeans."

Caldecott, commenting upon British methods as contrasted with those of other countries, says: "Again, as conquerors, no right is claimed by us. We do not hold India by the title of conquerors in the sense that the Spaniards held Mexico. We subject it to no tribute, we impose upon it no restrictions in order that profits may be artificially diverted for our benefit. We are there as rulers; the right upon which we rely as a reasonable justification for being there is the right of doing good by ruling."

BIGELOW.

Poultney Bigelow, in his "Children of the Nations," 1901, commenting upon the cause of English colonial success, says: "Even English historians now freely chronicle the manner in which official England in the days of George III spoke of Americans as cowards incapable of organization or resistance. \* \* \* Great changes have taken place since then, never so signally emphasized as in the year 1900, when the colonies of Australia sent their delegates to the mother country to discuss ways and means of closer political intercourse. To-day, English colonies bare their arms for fight in the cause of old England. \* \* \* When Franklin went to England as an Englishman demanding the rights of Englishmen, asking no strange favor, but appealing to the government of his King for justice according to the ancient charters and many generations of prescription, he and others of the same errand of peace were treated by the court, the aristocracy, members of the Government, and the majority of politicians as contemptible agitators unfit for association on terms of equality with the so-called society of the metropolis. England was drunk with the glory of her past wars; her power had made her blind. \* \* \* It took ten years of good, hard knocks to teach England the lesson which to-day makes her the colonial mistress of the world. Canada was the first to profit by the surrender of Yorktown, but each colony in turn felt the effects of this blow; and now wherever the British flag floats throughout the world it represents either a self-governing Anglo-Saxon community, or at least one in which the natives enjoy as much of self-government as it is safe to accord."

BOURNE.

Mr. Henry E. Bourne, in the *Yale Review*, May, 1899, comparing British colonial methods with those of other governments, says: "There is something fascinating about building colonial empires, but the bad quarter of an hour comes when peoples annexed or purchased cease to be numbers and become men, when they reject the alien civilization thrust upon them and when punitive expeditions and petty warfare crowd into the expense account, leaving the empire builders each year some millions in debt. Empires that grow of themselves are less unprofitable, but they are of the English or Dutch sort and have trade as their motive, not the mere glory of governing. Perhaps it is unfair to hint in this way that the French colonies are to a degree artificial and costly attempts at empire. \* \* \* Nevertheless, the French Empire has been an unnecessarily expensive affair, and none more bitterly criticised its management than Frenchmen."

BAXTER.

Sylvester Baxter, in the *Yale Review*, says: "The experiences of other powers in colonial management have great value to us, and we can not too closely study their teachings. Since the discovery of the New World there have been seven colonial powers in Europe—Spain, Portugal, France, England, Holland, Denmark, and Germany. Denmark has only a few small islands in the West Indies, together with Arctic Iceland and Greenland, and hardly counts as an example. Germany's experience is too recent to be of much consequence to us. France pursued an exploitation policy and has achieved little, while the value of Spain and Portugal as examples is purely negative. This leaves only England and Holland, and these two furnish the great instances of successful colonial politics."

M. DE LANESSAN.

M. de Lanessan, in his "Principes de Colonisation," says: "Our business men and manufacturers represent the same value to the colonies as the British business men and manufacturers. But while the colonial policy of the British Government is inspired by the latter element (English business men and manufacturers), ours has been inspired, directed, and carried out for the last two centuries by a military spirit. It is for this reason, perhaps, that during all the epochs this spirit cropped out in the form of temporary but important crises which coincided with the periods of European peace. During all these periodic colonial crises we succeeded at times in conquering, but never in organizing, all of which cost the loss of the greater part of the territory conquered by our arms. The ironical remarks addressed to us, apropos of the question of Egypt by a London paper, would seem to be fully justified. It said: 'In the old rivalry between a people which possessed the colonial genius and another which does not possess it at all, nothing has changed but the field of battle; it is Africa now in place of the Indies and Canada. France is jealous of our progress in Africa. It understands that we strive for nothing else in this part of the world than the consolidation of an immense empire which is to offer considerable advantages to British commerce.' Historical truth is that the French people possess no less the colonial genius than the English people, but our administration has shown itself during all periods utterly devoid of this genius."

M. LEROY-BEAULIEU.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu in his *De la Colonisation chez les Peuples Modernes*, says: "The nation which holds first rank in colonization and which gives to others the example of vast empires founded beyond the seas is England. And this incontestable superiority applies to more recent times, especially. During the seventeenth century the splendor of Spanish-America eclipsed the modest but solid and sustained beginnings of British America; the unheard-of but superficial and ephemeral prosperity of the Dutch India Company drew away the attention from the patient efforts of the British to gain a foothold in Hindostan. In the eighteenth century the French adventurers in Louisiana and along the Great Lakes or on the shores of the Mississippi or Ohio and in Asia on the shores of the Ganges, seemed for a moment through their audacity, full of expedients, to be on the point of founding their fortune in their own favor and reducing their British rivals to a secondary rôle; at the same time the sudden ascendancy of Santo Domingo, which overshadowed



Jamaica and Barbados, produced a change in the balance of the European powers and seemed to assure to France the supremacy in colonial matters. But time, that great teacher and impartial judge, which in the long run puts each nation in the place according to its qualities or faults, has given to England for everlasting hold the first rank among the colonizing nations.

"It was during the nineteenth century that the high and powerful capacities of the Anglo-Saxon race for the founding, maintaining, and governing of colonies showed themselves in the most pronounced manner. The eighteenth century had left a somber shade on British colonization; it had fallen into discredit and the firmest minds, under the first impression of the great check which the separation of the thirteen American colonies had inflicted on it, directed the severest criticism against it, which, however, posterity did not ratify. For the lost empires, fruitful England (*la féconde Angleterre*) has substituted new empires. It was able to multiply, simultaneously and in a degree the like of which is unknown, the population, culture, and the wealth of its old possessions, and improvise in a few years on continents almost unknown and shunned by other nations social communities, endowed with an unprecedented vitality, capacity, growth, and productive activity.

"It must not be thought that England arrived from the start at such a perfect political and economic system, so well fitted for the development of new settlements; she has passed through her period of groping; reforms are seen to follow each other; numerous errors and mistakes were made, but loyally acknowledged and courageously corrected. That which constitutes in our eyes the greatness of the English people, the eminent faculty which has won for them the high place which they occupy in history, and especially in colonization, is that spirit of sincerity and that taste for gradual progress and successive reforms which cause them to study continuously their institutions and laws, to notice without minimizing or exaggerating their imperfections or faults, not allowing themselves to be blinded by national conceit from seeing the faults or errors committed; to modify continually the political and social machinery and economic methods which experience condemns. This spirit of sincerity, this taste for gradual reform, are the most judicious, practical, and resourceful faculties attainable. They preserve the people from the benumbing influence of routine on the one hand and the bursts of violence on the other. In the case of other nations, reforms come only with a crisis which they either produce, or of which they are the effects; in Great Britain reforms do not constitute an abnormal or accidental state, or what may be called a periodic illness; they are being enacted continuously, at almost every moment, they have taken their place in the political, economic, and social life as a permanent and regular factor."

M. CHAILLEY-BERT.

M. Chailley-Bert, in his valuable work "*La Colonisation de l'Indo-Chine*," Paris, 1892, says:

"When inquiry is made into what are the indispensable elements of the prosperity of the colonies, three chief ones are found; good colonists, good laws, and good officials. By good colonists, we mean family people, or likely to become such, who are healthy and sensible, sufficiently energetic and possessing the power of initiative, faculty of patience, besides having some capital. By good laws we mean such as are modest in their claims, liberal in their spirit, supple in their formulation, which regulate but little, do not pretend to foresee everything, and equally refrain from fettering the free activities of the colonists, and restricting the responsibility of the officials. Lastly, good officials are those who entertain broad views and high intentions, possess a comprehensive intelligence and correct judgment, who are zealous of the interests of the colonists and the colony, interpreting the laws, and, if necessary, giving them such a wide construction as to make them an aid to and not a fetter upon the community.

"I doubt whether this ideal of good colonists, good laws, and good officials combined can be found anywhere; I am sure that it can not be found in any of the French colonies. Our colonists, being to a large extent unmarried, are in many regards below the average of the home country population. Our legislation being altogether too extensive and changeable, is, at the same time, either superannuated or excessively rigid. Our officials, whatever the attempts of the central administration, are too numerous, chosen by chance, often having neither competence nor responsibility. It is thus that all the elements which we stated to be indispensable for prosperity are wanting, although France has an abundance of them at home and even had them in olden times in its colonies.

"Too little is known of the colonial policy of the ancient régime; its European policy having hurt its case. This colonial policy had one capital vice and that was the lack of spirit of consistency. But it must be said that in its beginnings, and for two centuries after, it showed such wisdom in the conception of its plans and such ingeniousness in the execution of them as will never be surpassed.

"Owing to the colonial methods of the ancient régime France held so many splendid possessions that in the eighteenth century there was still some doubt whether she or Great Britain would prove to be the great colonizing nation. Unfortunately nothing is left to us of this wonderful domain, these invaluable colonists, and the wisdom which, in spite of every thing, perpetuated itself in the royal councils, of all these possessions which had been so dearly bought and so slowly conquered. This domain has crumbled and the traditions have vanished with the fall of royalty, everything was overturned in the great crash at the end of the century, and our past splendor is only proven by the glory of our rivals in possession of the spoils.

"At present, notwithstanding many disasters, we have been able by twenty years of effort to reconstitute our colonial empire. But when we are desirous of making it economically valuable we search in vain for the methods to follow and the men to apply them. The broken chain of traditions can not be linked again. The example of our forerunners, interrupted in their evolution, can not guide us any longer amidst the present difficulties, and in order to acquire a new education we must perforce turn to our foreign rivals.

"There are many people to whom the confession of our inferiority will appear sacrilegious, and our contention that to rid ourselves of our ignorance we must undertake to study, ridiculous. But we would be wrong to listen to them. As Pascal said, 'I blame equally those who choose to praise man as those who choose to find fault with him as well as those who choose to distract him, and I can approve of only those who search while sighing.'

"But once decided to study, let us know how to direct our studies, and let us not exaggerate the advantages to be derived from such a study. We are not going to find abroad the laws, regulations, and general line of conduct which we are to imitate at once without any change. The colonial policy of no nation is free from mistakes, and even the gravest ones. All mother countries have shown themselves shortsighted, ignorant, unjust; all governments careless, indifferent, clumsy. England herself has, during the long years of her history, committed monstrous errors. She possesses, however, two good features which we might do well to acquire: First, a three-hundred-year-old experience, uninterrupted and contemporaneous, from which, after some groping, there might be deducted certain rules of conduct which would nowadays be little subject to controversy; second, a proper distrust of improvisation and a well-confirmed sentiment that in the management of colonial affairs nothing can supersede experience or even study. This, perhaps, is about all the first colonial power of the world can teach us. However little this be, let us try to understand the teaching well at least, for this is by no means so easy a task. \* \* \*

"It is an axiom, or at least admitted to be an axiom, that the people of the Orient are eager after justice. Whoever brings to them this supreme good is sure of being made welcome. This consideration, it would seem, constituted the trump card of the British game. They have a sort of worship for justice. In their eyes the possibility of obtaining justice is one of the first guaranties; on the other hand, rendering justice is regarded the most sacred of duties and the highest of functions. Wherever they go they open a court-house as soon as they have arrived, and install a judge. After this they attend strictly to their business. It was thus that they proceeded in Burma. The mode of selecting their officials in India enables them to make of them, almost at will, executive or financial officials or judges. They have thus, even in the most rudimentary state of administration, men apt to render justice, who are careful in doing so. As a matter of fact, justice has been meted out on most occasions with the greatest impartiality. The judicial decisions, as a rule, have been in conformity with the spirit of the law and not with the whims of public opinion or the necessities of government."

PROFESSOR SEELEY.

Prof. J. R. Seeley, of the University of Cambridge, in his series of lectures on "The Expansion of England," says:

"I will conclude this lecture with some remarks on the large causes which, in the struggle of five states, left the final victory in the hands of England. Among these five we have seen that Spain and Portugal had the start by a whole century, and that Holland was in the field before England. Afterwards for about a century France and England contended for the New World on tolerably equal terms. Yet, now of all these States, England alone remains in possession of a great and commanding colonial power. Why is this?

"We may observe that Holland and Portugal labored under the disadvantage of too small a basis. The decline of Holland had obvious causes, which have been often pointed out. For her sufferings in a war of eighty years with Spain she found the compensations I have just described. But when this was followed, first by naval wars with England, and then by a struggle with France which lasted half a century, and she had now England for a rival on the seas, she succumbed. At the beginning of the eighteenth century she shows symptoms of decay, and at the treaty of Utrecht she lays down her arms, victorious indeed, but fatally disabled.

"The Portuguese met with a different misfortune. From the outset they had recognized the insufficiency of their resources, regretting that they had not been content with a less ambitious course of acquisition on the northern coast of Africa. In 1580 they suffered a blow such as has not fallen on any other of the still-existing European States. Portugal with all her world-wide dependencies and commercial stations fell under the yoke of Spain, and underwent a sixty years' captivity. In this period her colonial empire, which by becoming Spanish was laid open to the attacks of the Dutch, suffered greatly; Portuguese writers accuse Spain of having witnessed their losses with pleasure, and of having made a scapegoat of Portugal; certain it is that the discontent which led to the insurrection of 1640, and founded a new Portugal under the House of Braganza, was mainly caused by these colonial losses. Yet the insurrection itself cost her something more in foreign possessions; she paid the island of Bombay for the help of England. Nor could the second Portugal ever rival the first, that nurse of Prince Henry, Bartholomew Diaz, Vasco da Gama, Magelhaens and Camoens, which has quite a peculiar glory in the history of Europe.

"Be it remarked in passing that this passage also of the history of the seventeenth century shows us the New World reacting on the Old. As the rise of Holland, the great occurrence of its first years, so the revolution of Portugal, which occupies the middle of it, is caused by the influence of the colonies.

"As to the ill-success of Spain and France, it would no doubt be idle to suppose that any one cause will fully explain it. But perhaps one large cause may be named which in both cases contributed most to produce the result.

"Spain lost her colonial empire only, as it were, the other day. Having founded it a century earlier, she retained it nearly half a century later than England retained her first empire. Compared to England, she has been inferior only in not having continued to found new colonies. And this was the effect of that strange decay of vitality which overtook Spain in the latter half of the sixteenth century. The decline of population and the ruin of finance dried up in her every power, that of colonization included.

"No similar decline is observable in France. France lost her colonies in a series of unsuccessful wars, and perhaps you may think that it is not necessary to inquire further, and that the fortune of war explains everything. But I think I discern that both States were guilty of the same error of policy, which in the end mainly contributed to their failure. It may be said of both that they 'had too many irons in the fire.'

"There was this fundamental difference between Spain and France on the one side and England on the other, that Spain and France were deeply involved in the struggles of Europe, from which England has always been able to hold herself aloof. In fact, as an island, England is distinctly nearer for practical purposes to the New World, and almost belongs to it, or at least has the choice of belonging at her pleasure to the New World or to the Old. Spain might perhaps have had the same choice, but for her conquests in Italy and for the fatal marriage which, as it were, wedded her to Germany. In that same sixteenth century in which she was colonizing the New World, Spain was merged at home in the complex Spanish Empire, which was doomed beforehand to decline, because it could never raise a revenue proportioned to its responsibilities. It was almost bankrupt when Charles V abdicated, though it could then draw upon the splendid prosperity of the Netherlands; when, soon after, it alienated this province, lost the poorer half of it and ruined the richer, when it engaged in chronic war with France, when after eighty years of war with the Dutch it entered upon a quarter of a century of war with Portugal, it could not but sink, as it did, into bankruptcy and political decrepitude. These overwhelming burdens, coupled with a want of industrial aptitude in the Spanish people, whose temperament had been formed in a permanent war of religion, produced the result that the nation to which a new world had been given could never rightly use or profit by the gift.

"As to France, it is still more manifest that she lost the New World because she was always divided between a policy of colonial extension and a policy of European conquest. If we compare together those seven great wars between 1688 and 1815, we shall be struck with the fact that most of them are double wars; that they have one aspect as between England and France and another as between France and Germany. It is the double policy of France that causes this, and it is France that suffers by it. England has for the most part a single object and wages a single war, but France wages two wars at once for two distinct objects. When Chatham said he would conquer America in Germany he indicated that he saw the mistake which France committed by dividing her forces and that he saw how, by subsidizing Frederick, to make France exhaust herself in Germany, while her possessions in America passed defenseless into our hands. Napoleon, in like manner, is distracted between the New World and the Old. He would humble England; he would repair the colonial and Indian losses of his country, but he finds himself conquering Germany and at last invading Russia. His comfort is that through Germany he can strike at English trade and through Russia perhaps make his way to India.



"England has not been thus distracted between two objects. Connected but slightly with the European system since she evacuated France in the fifteenth century, she has not since then lived in chronic war with her neighbors. She has not hankered after the imperial Crown or guaranteed the treaty of Westphalia. When Napoleon, by his continental system, shut her out from Europe, she showed that she could do without Europe. Hence her hands have always been free, while trade of itself inevitably drew her thoughts in the direction of the New World. In the long run this advantage has been decisive. She has not had to maintain a European ascendancy, as Spain and France have had; on the other hand, she has not had to withstand such an ascendancy by mortal conflict within her own territory, as Holland and Portugal and Spain also have been forced to do. Hence nothing has interrupted her or interfered with her to draw her off from the quiet progress of her colonial settlements. In a word, out of the five States which competed for the New World success has fallen to that one not which showed at the outset the strongest vocation for colonization, not which surpassed the others in daring or invention or energy, but to that one which was least hampered by the Old World."

GEORGE GOTTFRIED GERVINUS.

The following discussion of the causes of colonial success and failure is from the celebrated essay of George Gottfried Gervinus, written as an introduction to his projected history of the nineteenth century in 1853:

"The prosperity of the colonies of the New World at the beginning of the eighteenth century caused a change in the condition of those States from which they had proceeded. Shipping was carried on far more extensively and underwent great improvements. Maritime commerce seemed to promise to become more lucrative than that by land. The connection of the two hemispheres multiplied human wants as well as the means of satisfying them; it increased the materials for industry and spread its happy results. Vast commercial relations were established to equalize demand and supply, superfluity and want. Industry and trade became sources of wealth to the middle class, and therefore a stimulus to individual exertion which had never before existed. They also became the sources of the nation's wealth, and therefore the first object to be considered in politics and government. This was all the more the case since by the altered condition of the world, the growth of the States, and the complicated relations of all the affairs of life the resources which formerly had provided for the exigencies of the government, such as Crown lands and land taxes, sufficed as little now for the expenses of the State as the feudal military service for its defense. In this new aspect of affairs it became a question which nation would apply its skill and industry to the greatest advantage. France discovered this later than her neighbors, and roused herself, finally, under Richelieu and Louis XIV. Then she endeavored to make amends for her delay by improvements in her navy, by new commercial industry, and by her attempts at colonization. Two radically different examples served to entice and to warn.

"The policy of the Spanish kings had always turned to an aggrandizement of power and dominion, and for this purpose they required the most unlimited authority and the disposal of all the resources of the State. This system of government, both at home and abroad, repressed the ancient love of freedom in the people. Those means from which other nations in the altered condition of the world derived their abiding strength checked all intellectual and commercial activity. The Spanish settlements were made in the spirit of this despotic policy. They were conducted and regulated by the Government. To add to her splendor Spain took possession of enormous tracts of land, which the emigration of a thousand years could scarcely people. Grants of land were made only to native Spaniards, and the mother country exhausted her population, which was already weakened by the expulsion of the Moors and Jews. The settlers looked for gold, for rapid gain, for indulgence, not for labor. Incitement to all active energy was stifled. Spanish commerce declined, as agriculture had long ago declined under the thralldom and privilege of class. With the failure of home profits trade ceased or passed into the hands of strangers. With the poverty of private individuals came the weakness of the State, which was required to grant the convoy of great fleets to private galleons laden with gold, when it had not a ship for the defense of its coasts. The situation of the colonies, the luxuriant world of the Tropics, which needed little human aid for its productions, favored the indolent inclinations of the southern settler. Religious bigotry impeded the growth of home rule and active independence of mind. Even where it assumed an appearance of humanity it promoted only the material advantage of the foreigner without avoiding the decline of morals at home. Thus because the inhuman monopoly of the importation of black slaves into the Spanish colonies was a scandal to the Catholic Church, the trade was given over into the hands of foreigners, and finally by the *asiento* of 1711, resigned wholly to the English, who reaped from it an immense profit both for their own commerce and for that of their colonies.

"With the Teutonic and democratic colonies all this was reversed. Spain discovered the New World, but the Teutonic race tilled its soil. Under them everything conduced rather to the energy and culture of each member of the State than to the acquisition of territorial power. The State as such did little for the colonization of America. The colonists took possession of only a few tracts of land for their settlements. They were not like the lower gentry which emigrated from Spain, but were the middle class from the country and towns, a class which was unknown in the Romanic States. Immigrants from all the world were at liberty to settle down beside the Englishman. The greatest profit fell to the most industrious. Enjoyment was sought in labor. The climate and soil, which resembled that of the home they had abandoned, sharpened rather than blunted their exertions. The habits of the north, the vigorous spirit of Protestantism, the assiduity of the Teutonic races, everything contributed to favor great commercial activity at home and in the colonies. From it arose a degree of prosperity and political importance in the middle class of which history affords no previous example."

## COLONIAL ADMINISTRATION.

### SIX GREAT QUESTIONS WHICH SUGGEST THEMSELVES REGARDING THE METHODS OF GOVERNING AND DEVELOPING COLONIES AND THEIR PEOPLE.

The chief questions which naturally present themselves in considering the best methods of governing a noncontiguous people may perhaps be stated as follows:

(1) What share of the government of the successfully managed colony originates at the seat of the home Government and what share in the colony, and by whom and in what manner are the laws and regulations created?

(2) What share of the administration within the colony is conducted by representatives of the home Government, and what share is intrusted to the natives in conjunction with the representatives of the home Government?

(3) What steps are taken and methods applied to improve the material, mental, and moral condition of the people of the colony?

(4) How are habits of industry and thrift inculcated among the natives and the necessary labor supply obtained for the development of industries which shall render the colony self-supporting and its people prosperous?

(5) How are the necessary funds for the conduct of the colonial government raised, and is any part of such funds supplied by the home Government?

(6) The commercial relation between the colony and the mother country; its ability to supply the articles required in the home country and to absorb those produced for export by the mother country, and the extent to which the tariff and other regulations between the colony and the mother country are adjusted to encourage this mutual interchange.

The most practical answer to these practical questions must be obtained by a study of the methods at present applied in the world's colonies by the experienced nations, and by combining with these facts the expressed views of men who have spent many years in this work or in studies of the world's work along these lines. By this plan it is hoped that this study may prove a convenience to those desiring to reach conclusions for themselves. In attempting to discuss each subject separately it has been found necessary to repeat parts of certain statements as bearing upon more than one phase of the general subject, but this has been done only where necessary to a clear presentation of the subject under discussion.

In discussing the six great questions which suggest themselves with reference to the management of colonies, and which have been already outlined, it seems again proper to cite the experiences and conclusions of the great nations which have been for centuries studying these questions, and of the students who have collated facts of history and drawn conclusions therefrom.

(For summarization of conclusions on the above subjects, see pp. 1407-1408.)

## QUESTION I.

### WHAT SHARE OF THE GOVERNMENT OF THE SUCCESSFULLY MANAGED COLONY ORIGINATES AT THE SEAT OF THE HOME GOVERNMENT AND WHAT SHARE IN THE COLONY, AND BY WHOM AND IN WHAT MANNER ARE THE LAWS AND REGULATIONS CREATED?

In attempting to answer this question by showing what methods the colonizing nations of the world are now applying as a result of their long experience, it may first be said that little is attempted in the way of detailed legislation by the legislative body of the governing country. The British Parliament, the French Assembly, and the Netherlands Parliament or States-General, the lawmaking bodies of the three countries having extended colonial experience, do not attempt to legislate frequently and continuously regarding details of affairs in the colonies. The impossibility of members of the legislative body having sufficient knowledge of local conditions in the colonies to intelligently and properly prepare and enact laws suited to those conditions, coupled with the physical impossibility of giving to the special needs of each colony sufficient time for the proper understanding and framing of local laws and regulations, has caused these legislative bodies to leave to responsible officers of the Government, who are charged with that duty, all details of colonial affairs, retaining to themselves only the shaping of the general policy with reference to the form of government and the relations, fiscal and otherwise, of the colony with the home Government.

#### SPECIAL CABINET OFFICERS FOR COLONIES.

In the United Kingdom, France, and Netherlands, the general management of colonial affairs is intrusted to a cabinet officer, whose entire attention, together with that of his department, is given to the colonies; while in Germany and Belgium, which have more recently entered the colonial field, the supervision and direction of the affairs of the colonies are intrusted to and made a part of the duty of a specified cabinet officer or minister. These officials, termed secretaries, are assisted by a staff of assistant secretaries, legal secretaries, and clerks, and they are given large discretionary powers in consulting with, supervising and directing the officials located in the colonies.

The necessary legislation for the detailed government of colonies usually originates in the colony, first in the form of recommendations by trusted officials, which, after submission to experienced persons in the colonies whose judgment is relied upon, are forwarded to the colonial office for consideration, discussion, and approval; and in cases where action by the legislative body in the colony is necessary such action usually follows the submission to the home office or colonial department. In most cases, all these things are done without referring the matter to Parliament, which expects the colonial department to handle these details, holding it responsible for that work, just as the secretaries of other departments are held responsible for the details of theirs.

#### THE NETHERLANDS SYSTEM.

The Netherlands colonies, prior to 1848, were governed under the immediate direction of the King; but the constitution of that year divided the responsibility between the King and Chambers, and required annual reports to the States-General, or legislative body, on the state of the colonies. Since that time the general management of the colonies has been in charge of a member of the council of ministers. This official is designated as the minister of the colonies, the present occupant of that position, Hon. J. T. Cremer, having had long personal experience as a high official in the colonies and being assisted by a staff, many of whom have also had experience in the colonies.

#### THE FRENCH SYSTEM.

The French colonies were, prior to 1894, in charge of the department of marine, and later under the minister of commerce and industry; but in 1894 a minister of colonies was created, and since that time the colonial service of the home Government has been in charge of this official, the present minister of colonies, M. Albert Decrais, being assisted by a cabinet, of which his secretary is the chief, and which is composed of the chiefs of bureau of the colonial department. The work of the department is divided among a large staff of subordinate officers and employees, the secretary-general being chief of the cabinet and in charge of correspondence with the colonies and foreign countries and other departments. The African colonies are in charge of a special branch of the department, Madagascar in a separate bureau, while the colonies in America, Asia, and the Orient are in charge of one general division, each subdivision being assigned to a separate bureau. In addition to this, there is an inspector-general of health in the colonies, the inspector-general of public works, the committee of public works, a commission on expenditures and receipts, a committee on the verification of accounts in Indo-China, a commission in charge of colonial banks, a commission in charge of demands for territorial concessions, and another for the verification of accounts. A recently organized branch of the colonial service, designated the "office colonial," is especially charged with the gathering of information regarding the agricultural, commercial, and industrial development of the colonies, and its distribution both to the people of France and to the colonies. Information regarding transportation, freights, insurance, duties, statistics of production, imports, exports, demand for the various articles in the colonies, production in the colonies of various articles for export, introduction of immigration, concessions, and all matters likely to be of value to the people of France or to the people of the colonies are gathered and distributed by this bureau, and to it are forwarded all inquiries relating to matters of this character which reach the French Government. A large

proportion of the decrees and regulations which become laws in the colonies are submitted to, examined, and approved or rejected by the department of colonies, though the fact that the colonies themselves are represented by members in the French legislative body results in more discussion of colonial affairs in that body, in proportion to the interests involved, than in those of the other countries in question.

#### THE ENGLISH SYSTEM.

All of England's colonies, aside from the great self-governing colonies and India, are in charge of the colonial department, the affairs of India being of such extent and importance and dealing with a population so large and varied in conditions that they are intrusted to a Secretary of State for India, whose department is entirely separate from that of colonies. The first separate organization in England for a central administration of colonial affairs was a committee created in 1660. From 1768 colonial affairs have been dealt with by a member of the cabinet. For a time the colonies were in charge of the secretary of state for war, but since 1854 they have been in charge of a cabinet officer or secretary of state, whose duties were exclusively those relating to colonies, the exact title being "Secretary of State for the Colonies." The present occupant of that position, the Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, M. P., is assisted by two under secretaries, four assistant under secretaries, a legal assistant, a private secretary and four assistant private secretaries, and a corps of clerks, some of whom have had experience in the colonies and many having had long experience in the colonial office. In cases where practicable these clerks and assistants are interchanged with the officials in the colonies, and thus practical observation and experience brought to the assistance of the home office and the service of the colonies given the advantage of the training obtained in the home office.

### DETAILS OF COLONIAL ADMINISTRATION BY THE HOME GOVERNMENTS.

#### THE BRITISH SYSTEM.

The scope of the business transacted by the colonial office is shown by the following statement of the distribution of business in the colonial office, as published in the British Colonial Office List for 1901:

"In charge of the permanent under secretary are political, constitutional, and military questions, general supervision of papers on all subjects before submission to the secretary of state. Assistant Under Secretary Graham has charge of business of general departmental and office arrangements, banking, currency, postal, and telegraph business, business connected with South Africa and St. Helena. Assistant Under Secretary Lucas has charge of emigration and immigration, prisons, hospitals, and asylums, business connected with the West Indian colonies and Eastern colonies. Assistant Under Secretary Cox has charge of general legal business, the settlement of legal instruments, colonial laws, business connected with North America, Australia, Fiji, and the West Pacific, Mauritius, Seychelles, Gibraltar, Malta, Cyprus, Bermuda, and the Falkland Islands. Assistant Under Secretary Antrobus has charge of business connected with the West African colonies and protectorates. To Legal Assistant Risley is assigned matters pertaining to colonial laws and general legal business. The office is divided into departments, one of which is in charge of all North American and Australian colonies; another the West Indian; another the Eastern; another South African; another the West African colonies and protectorates; and another the general and miscellaneous correspondence, including questions affecting the establishment of the colonial office, the Crown agents, office, postal, copyright, telegraph, and commercial treaties, conveyances, university examinations, replies to circulars, governors' pensions and postage allowances, naval cadetships, and general correspondence respecting colonial defense."

The more important colonies, including Canada, Cape Colony, Natal, and the Australian colonies, are represented in England by agents-general, who represent before the colonial office, and where necessary before Parliamentary committees, the interests of their colonies, and act as representatives of the colony in the transaction of its business with the home office. For the smaller colonies, Crown agents are appointed, who act as commercial and financial agents in England for such of the colonial governments as do not possess agents-general. They are remunerated by fixed salaries and are appointed by the secretary of state for the colonies, who exercises a general supervision and control over their compliance with the directions of the colonial governments. Prior to 1833 each colony appointed its own agent in London, but in that year all agencies were consolidated into one office, with the exception of six agents who continued for a time to represent some of the West Indian governments. The colonies which have received responsible governments—Canada, Cape Colony, Natal, and those of British Australia—can not avail themselves of the services of the Crown agents, but have, as above indicated, agencies of their own, which are located near the office of the colonial department.

An emigrants' information office is maintained in London in charge of a committee, of which the secretary of state for the colonies is the president. Its duties are chiefly to supply information with reference to the colonies and the opportunities for emigration, and to issue warnings in cases where it is desired to discourage emigration to certain places. This office issues quarterly circulars on Canada and the Australasian and South African colonies, which are sent free of charge to persons desiring them, a circular on the emigration of women, and handbooks on Canada, Cape Colony, Natal, and the Australian colonies. The work of the office is largely devoted to answering the inquiries of persons desiring to emigrate, the number of letters dispatched for this purpose averaging about 1,000 per week.

The Royal Botanic Gardens, located near London, are maintained for the study of the products of the colonies and the training of individuals for the maintenance of botanic stations in the colonies, especially those located in the Tropics. The latter are small gardens intended to develop the agricultural resources of the various colonies, especially those in tropical countries, and each is in charge of a curator trained at the Kew Gardens, London. The executive council of the Imperial Institute has recently issued a memorandum directing attention to the character of the work now carried on, especially by the scientific and technical department of the Botanic Gardens, established to obtain information by special inquiries and experimental research regarding the natural or manufactured products of the colonies and local products of manufactures which it is desired to export. This includes the investigation of the chemical constituents and properties of new dyestuffs, tanning materials, seeds, food stuffs, oils, gums, and resins, fibrous timber, medicinal plants, and products, animal products, minerals and ores, soils, cements, and various other products, with a view to their commercial utilization. The commercial intelligence office of the board of trade also obtains and distributes information respecting commerce with the colonies.

The importance of the maintenance of a colonial department was discussed by Sir George Cornwall Lewis, whose essay "On the Government of Dependencies," issued in 1841, is still looked upon in England as a standard on matters of this character. In it he said: "Before we conclude this outline of the political relations of the English dependencies it is necessary to remark that their government is materially influenced by the existence of separate departments in the dominant country charged with the exclusive care of their political affairs. The early English colonies were in practice nearly independent of the mother country, except as to their external

commercial relations, and there was scarcely any interference on the part of England with the ordinary management of their internal affairs. Accordingly, there was at that time no separate department of the English Government charged exclusively with the superintendence of the government of the dependencies, and the business connected with them, being chiefly commercial, was assigned first to a board, and after, for a short interval, to a permanent committee of the privy council, which had the management of the affairs of trade and the plantations. \* \* \* If it be assumed that colonial and other dependencies are to remain in a state of dependence, it can not be doubted that they on the whole derive advantage from the existence of a public department in the dominant country specially charged with the superintendence of their political concerns. The existence of such a public department tends to diminish the main obstacles to the good government of a colony, viz, the ignorance and indifference of the dominant country respecting its affairs, and to supply the qualities requisite for its good government, viz, knowledge of its affairs and care for them. If the existence of such a department tends to involve the affairs of the dependency in the party contests of the dominant country, it is to be remembered that this very evil has its good side, inasmuch as the public attention is thereby directed to the dependency and the interest of some portion of the dominant people is awakened to the promotion of its welfare."

#### APPOINTMENTS OF COLONIAL OFFICERS.

Another manner in which the government of colonies originates at the seat of the home Government is through the appointment by the home Government of governors, and in many cases a part or all of the lawmaking bodies. This is true to a greater or less extent of every colony in the world, though, of course, less strongly marked in those British colonies which have what is designated as "representative institutions and responsible governments." By this term is meant the colonies of Canada, Australasia, and South Africa. The Australasian colonies, under the new confederation, elect both branches of their lawmaking bodies, senators and representatives; but the governor-general is appointed by the home Government and has a veto power over all legislation, and also has authority to appoint ministers of state or heads of departments. In Cape of Good Hope the members of both branches of the legislative body are elected, but a governor is appointed by the home Government. In Natal all members of the legislative assembly are elected, but those of the legislative council are appointed or "summoned" by the governor, who is appointed by the home Government. In Canada the lower branch of the legislative body is elected and members of the upper branch are appointed for life by the governor, who is appointed by the home Government. Thus even in the three great groups which have what is designated as "representative institutions and responsible government," viz, Australasia, South Africa, and Canada, the power of the home Government to influence legislation through a governor appointed by that Government and through, in some degree, his appointees, is at least a factor worthy of consideration in determining the question as to what share of the government of the colony originates at the seat of the home Government.

#### CROWN COLONY GOVERNMENT.

In the other colonies of Great Britain the power to originate or control legislation and details of administration in the colonies remains in the hands of the home Government to a much greater extent through the relatively greater appointing power retained.

In India legislation and administration are conducted by the governor-general and his council and the legislative council. The governor is appointed by the home Government, as are also the members of his council. For legislative purposes the governor-general's council is expanded into a legislative council by the addition of sixteen members who are named by the governor-general, or viceroy, as he is termed. This council has power, subject to certain restrictions, to make laws for all persons within British India and for all native Indian subjects in any part of the world. Thus the entire lawmaking body of India is, in fact, named by the home (British) Government.

The remaining British colonies, other than those already named, are divided into three classes: (1) Those which have a legislative council, partly appointed and partly elected; (2) those which have a legislative council wholly appointed; (3) those which have no legislative council, but in which "legislative power" is delegated to the officer administering the government. In the first-named class, in which the legislative council is partly appointed and partly elected, there are nine colonies—Bahamas, Barbados, Bermuda, British Guiana, Cyprus, Jamaica, Leeward Islands, Malta, and Mauritius, with a total population of about 2,000,000. In the second class mentioned, in which the legislative council is wholly appointed by the Crown, there are the colonies of British Honduras, British New Guinea, Ceylon, Falkland Islands, Fiji, Gambia, Gold Coast, Grenada, Hongkong, Lagos, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Straits Settlements, Trinidad and Tobago, and Turks Island, with a population of about 7,000,000. The third-mentioned class, those which have no legislative council and in which legislative power is delegated by the home Government to the officer administering the government, includes Basutoland, Gibraltar, Labuan, St. Helena, Northern and Southern Nigeria.

The total population of Australasia, Canada, Cape Colony, and Natal is but about 15,000,000, while the total population of the British colonies, including India, is about 350,000,000. Thus it will be seen that of the 350,000,000 inhabitants of the British colonies, 335,000,000 are governed by law-making and administering bodies wholly appointed by the home Government and the laws administered in all cases by governors and lieutenant-governors named by the home Government. By way of illustration of the power of the home Government in the colonies having legislative bodies, it may be remarked that in several instances legislative bodies in the British colonies have actually legislated themselves out of existence and requested the home Government to create a new governing body in their stead. An example of this is cited in the Colonial Office List of 1901, which says of Jamaica: "The original constitution, which, after existing for nearly two hundred years, was surrendered in 1866, was a representative one, consisting of a governor, a legislative council, and an assembly of forty-seven elected members. After the suppression of the rebellion in 1865, Governor Eyre, at the meeting of the legislature, urged the unsuitability of the then existing form of government to meet the circumstances of the community and the necessity of making some sweeping change by which a strong government might be created. The legislature willingly responded, abrogated all the existing machinery of legislation, and left it to Her Majesty's Government to substitute another form of government which might be better suited to the altered circumstances of the colony. A legislative council was then by orders in council established, consisting of such numbers of official and unofficial members as Her Majesty might see fit. The numbers of each were six until 1878, when they were enlarged to eight, and a ninth was added in 1881. By Order in Council in 1895 the constitution was fixed in the following manner: A council to consist of the governor and five ex officio members and such other persons, not exceeding ten in number, as Her Majesty may from time to time appoint or the Government may provisionally appoint, and fourteen to be elected." In this case it will be seen that an elective body deliberately legislated itself out of existence at the suggestion of a representative of the home Government, the governor, and was superseded by a body in which a majority of the members were appointed by the home Government.

## VIEWS OF EARL GREY.

Earl Grey, who was secretary of state for the British colonial department during Lord John Russell's administration, in the introduction to his series of letters to Lord Russell in defense of the colonial system adopted during that administration and since retained, discusses the colonial office and its functions as follows: "I would observe, with reference to the vague declamation on the absurdity of the attempt to govern the colonies from Downing street, of which we have heard so much, that it would undoubtedly be in the highest degree absurd to attempt to govern from Downing street if this is to be understood in the sense of directing from thence all the measures of the local authorities; but I am not aware that such an attempt has at any period of our history been thought of. It is obvious that if the colonies are not to become independent States, some kind of authority must be exercised by the Government at home. It will conduce to a clearer understanding of the subject to consider by what means any control over its dependencies is now practically maintained by the mother country and to what extent that control ought to be carried on. The authority of the home Government over the colonies is exercised mainly in two ways: First, by the appointment of governors, and, second, by sanctioning or disallowing the measures of the local governments of which these officers are at the head. It is also exercised sometimes, but much more rarely, by prescribing measures for their adoption. With regard to the selection of governors, though I am aware that the contrary opinion has sometimes been expressed, it appears to me clear that if we are to have colonies at all the appointment of their governors must necessarily be retained by the Crown, since I do not perceive by what means any real authority or control could be exercised over the executive government of the colonies by the advisers of the Crown. But though the governors of the colonies ought, in my opinion, always to be named by the Crown, the nature and extent of the powers intrusted to them must differ widely in different cases. In the settlements on the west coast of Africa the governors substantially exercise both executive and legislative authority, limited only by an appeal to the home Government. In Canada the legislative assembly has not only the chief power of legislation, but also virtually a large share of executive authority. Between these two extremes there are many intermediate degrees of more or less power being exercised by the governors of different colonies. \* \* \* In proportion as governors become more independent of any local control it becomes necessary that some should be exercised over them from home, and in those colonies where they are unchecked by any kind of representative institutions it is the duty of the secretary of state to maintain a vigilant superintendence over their proceedings. Although he ought, as I perceive, to abstain from any meddling interference in the details of their administration and to support their authority as long as they appear to deserve his confidence, and rather to advise their recall when they cease to do so than to fetter their discretion by detailed instructions, he is yet bound to attend to complaints which may be made against their measures and prescribe for their guidance the general line of policy to be pursued. These rules as to the degree of interference to be exercised by the secretary of state are equally applicable to the legislative and executive measures of the local authorities in the colonies. But while I am of opinion that the authority of the Crown, of which the secretary of state is the depositary, should be used in all cases with great caution, I can not concur with those who would prohibit all interference on the part of the home Government in the internal affairs of the colonies. It seems to have been overlooked by those who insist that such interference must always be improper that this would in some cases imply leaving a dominant population, perhaps even a dominant minority, to govern the rest of the community without check or control.

"To permit the government of a distant colony to be carried on notwithstanding the operation of corruption which might be known to exist, would not be consistent with any but very low views of the duties belonging to the responsible advisers of the Sovereign. \* \* \* But even where the interference of the home Government is not necessary for the protection of a part of the population too ignorant and weak to protect itself, there is another consideration which may require the exercise of some control over the proceedings of the local governments with regard to the internal affairs of the colonies. Every act of these governments is done in the name and by the authority of the Sovereign; hence the honor of the Crown must be compromised by any injustice or violation of good faith which it has the power to prevent being committed by the local authorities. \* \* \* Any interference on the part of the minister with measures of purely internal administration in the colonies is to be deprecated, except in very special circumstances; but I am convinced that it may sometimes be called for, and it is therefore expedient to trust averting the evils and dangers which must arise rather to the discretion with which the powers now vested in the Crown are exercised than to a limitation of those powers by new legal restrictions. \* \* \* I consider it to be the obvious duty and interest of this country to extend representative institutions to every one of its dependencies where this can be done with safety; but I believe that in some cases representative governments could not be safely created and that some form of representative institutions is by no means applicable to colonies in different stages of social progress. The principal bar to the establishment of representative governments in colonies is their being inhabited by a population of which a large proportion is not of European race and has not made such progress in civilization as to be capable of exercising with advantage the privilege of self-government. \* \* \* Hence it appears to me that a surrender of the large portion of the powers now exercised by the servants of the Crown would not be calculated to insure the administration of the government on principles of justice and an enlightened regard for the welfare of all classes in those communities. This end may, I believe, be far better attained by maintaining for the present in those colonies the existing system of government. It would be a great mistake to suppose that because the inhabitants are not entitled to elect any of the members of the legislature it provides no securities against abuses. In the first place, the press is perfectly free and the newspapers comment upon all the measures of the government not only with entire liberty, but with the most unbounded license, and the force both of public opinion and also, to a considerable degree, opinion in this country is thus brought to bear upon all measures of the administration. Every inhabitant of the colonies is also entitled to freely address to the secretary of state any complaints or remarks he may think proper on the measures of the local authorities, subject only to the rule that such letters shall be transmitted through the hands of the governor, who is bound to forward them in order that he may at the same time send such explanations on the subject as appear to him to be called for. This privilege was largely exercised and is the means of supplying much information. \* \* \* The publicity given to the estimates of the accounts in colonial expenditure and the rule that the drafts of all proposed ordinances shall be published before being passed have enabled the colonists to bring under the consideration of the governors and legislative councils, and ultimately of the secretary of state, any objections they have entertained to proposed ordinances or financial arrangements. Every encouragement has been given them to make known their opinions freely both to the local and home governments, and the most careful consideration has been given to their views, especially when these have been stated by the chambers of commerce or municipal bodies, the advice and assistance of which in the administration of colonial affairs are in my judgment of the highest value."



## LAWMAKING FOR THE COLONIES.

Having provided for the creation of a colonial department to give personal supervision to the affairs of the colonies, the appointment of governors to administer laws, and the appointment of part or all of the legislative bodies, the French Government intrusts the remainder of the work to the colonies. The French Government, after a series of experiments, decided to determine through national legislation all matters pertaining to the tariffs of its colonies, but in most other matters the details are left to the local or colonial government. Before the Revolution the French colonies were entirely subordinate to the mother country, and the details of their affairs regulated chiefly by it. In 1825 the experiment of giving a large measure of self-government to the colonies was made, but this power was greatly reduced in 1841; but another change took place in 1854, which gave a greater autonomy to the colonies in matters of lawmaking and administration, and in 1892 the French Government again assumed charge of the tariff laws of the colonies. Tariff regulations are in most cases based upon the French tariff, with concessions and changes suited to local interests. In some cases high rates of duties, or absolute prohibition, are applied to protect or encourage colonial industries, and in the less advanced colonies special tariffs are made through the action of the French Government, modified from time to time upon the recommendations of the government or legislative body of the colony. In more than half of the French colonies the tariff of France now applies in the colony, and there is freedom of interchange between the colony and the mother country. A distinguished officer of the French department of colonies, writing on this subject recently, said that the French Government now considers practically all of its colonies, except those of West Africa, as mere extensions of the mother country, and applies the tariff of France in them (with some slight modifications), giving complete freedom of exchange between the colonies and the home country except in a few articles, notably sugar coming into France from the colonies, on which a duty is placed as a protection to the sugar industry of France.

Prof. Edwin R. A. Seligman, in *Essays on Colonial Finance*, published by the American Economic Association in August, 1900, says of the French colonies: "Although the home Government is invested with the duty of fixing the tariff for all the colonies, the colonial councils have the right of pointing out to the home office the modifications which are desirable for each special colony. A few such changes have been made, chiefly in the direction of lower duties or complete exemption, but the deviations from the general French tariff are insignificant. There are only two colonies without tariff duties, namely, Obock and the towns of French India. In addition to the general tariff duties, tonnage, navigation, and harbor dues are to be found in almost every colony."

"The purely local and municipal expenses of the colonies," continues Professor Seligman, "are defrayed to a large extent by the *octroi de mer*. This is a tax upon all kinds of commodities, especially articles of food coming in by water. It takes the place of the local *octroi* in the mother country, but can not be fixed independently by the colonies. They have the right of formulating the tentative scheme, but their decision must obtain the approval of the council in state in Paris not only as to the tax itself, but also in respect to the methods of administration."

The revenues of the French colonies are chiefly derived from tariff, local taxation, income from colonial property, and subventions from the home Government. The method of creating the tariff laws has been already explained. Local taxation in the colonies is modeled largely upon the French system, but controlled by local legislation. The lawmaking bodies which frame the laws for raising revenue and other local regulations are elected in a few of the old colonies and in others are in part appointed from the home Government and in part elective. A land tax exists in most of the colonies, but in some applies only to land upon which houses are built. In the French Antilles sugar lands are exempt from taxation, but a special export duty is placed on sugar, and a similar rule is followed in regard to salt lands in Cochin China, India, and Caledonia. Poll taxes, business taxes, and taxes upon spirituous liquors and tobacco are common to most of the French colonies, and in cases where the local taxation proves insufficient appeal is made to the home Government, and this is recognized by subventions or annual appropriations, which bring the colonial appropriation of the French budget up to about 100,000,000 francs annually. In the matter of laws and regulations for maintaining order, municipal regulations, etc., the details of lawmaking are intrusted to the local legislative bodies, of which the officers appointed by the home Government always form an important part. The more important of these are submitted to the home Government for approval.

In the Dutch colonies the general regulations have been many years in force and are an adaptation in part of the local customs which existed among the natives, and in part laws framed by the governor and his assistants, who have absolute power in the creation of laws and regulations, the more important of which are submitted to the home office and Government for approval.

In the newer colonies of the German and Belgian Governments regulations are framed largely by the governors and their local aids, assisted in some cases by the military, and are subject to the approval of the home Government.

In the British colonies the details of lawmaking and enforcement are left more largely to the local authorities. In the colonies having "representative institutions and responsible government," that is, Australasia, Cape Colony, Natal, and Canada, all laws are enacted by legislative bodies similar in general character to the Congress of the United States, each having an upper and lower body, though in Natal the members of the upper body are named by the governor, while in Canada the members of the upper house, or senate, are appointed by the governor for life. All laws so passed are subject to the approval or rejection of the governor-general, who is appointed by the home Government. The more important are submitted to the home Government for approval.

In India, according to the *Statesman's Year-Book*, "the legislative body consists of the governor-general's council, expanded into a legislative council by the addition of sixteen additional members, who are nominated by the viceroy." The council of the governor-general which is thus "expanded into a legislative council by the addition of sixteen members" consists of five ordinary members appointed by the Crown and the commander in chief of the Government forces in India. The lieutenant-governor is also a member of the legislative council. This council has power, subject to certain restrictions, to make laws for all persons within India, for all British subjects within the native States, and for all native (Indian) subjects of the King in any part of the world. The proceedings in the legislative council are public. The governors of Madras and Bombay are appointed by the Crown, and each of them has an executive council, consisting of two members of the Indian civil service, appointed by the Crown. The lieutenant-governors are appointed by the governor-general, with the approval of the Crown. The governors of Madras and Bombay and the four lieutenant-governors each have legislative councils of their own. Although all the provinces are under the control of the Government of India, they enjoy much administrative independence, varying with their importance. Each province is usually broken up into divisions under commissioners, and then subdivided into districts, which form the units of administration. At the head of each district is an executive officer (collector magistrate or deputy commissioner) who has entire control of the district, and is responsible to the governor of the province. Subordinate to the magistrate there are a joint magistrate and assistant magistrate, and one or more deputy collectors and other officials. In some

cases the magistrate collector is also a judge. There are about 247 such districts in British India. In addition to these, the governor exercises control over the native States in various degrees, but they are all governed by native princes, ministers, or councils, with the help and under the advice of a British resident or agent in political charge either of a single State or group of States. The chiefs have no right to make war or peace, or send ambassadors to each other or to external States, and the supreme (British) Government can exercise the right of dethronement in case of misgovernment. By the local self-government acts of 1882 and 1884 the elective principle has been extended in a large or small measure all over India. In the larger towns, and many of the smaller ones, the majority of members of committees are elected by the taxpayers, and everywhere the majority of town committees consists of natives, and in many committees all the members are natives. There are 754 municipal towns in which the municipal bodies have the care of roads, water supply, drains, markets, sanitation, the imposition of taxes, and the making of improvements and general expenditures, but the sanction of the provincial government is necessary before new taxes can be levied. The general laws are subject to approval by the home Government, but are seldom subjected to adverse action, the views of the home Government on the more important measures being determined by correspondence before action is taken.

#### THE LAWMAKING BODIES IN THE BRITISH CROWN COLONIES.

The share of the lawmaking and the methods by which legislation is accomplished in the colonies other than those already referred to (namely, those having "representative institutions and responsible governments" and British India) may be best described by the following statements from the British Colonial Office List of 1901, the colonies being arranged in the groups already indicated, viz: (1) Those having a legislative council partly elected; (2) those having a legislative council nominated entirely by the Crown; and (3) those having no legislative council, the legislative power being delegated to the officer administering the government. The descriptions of the methods of local legislation are inserted in this chapter with the purpose of showing the share which the home Government has in the lawmaking of the colonies through governors appointed by the home office and legislative bodies named in part or full by the home Government.

Under the first-mentioned class, colonies having a legislative council partly elected, are the following:

*Bahamas.*—The executive government is conducted by the governor, who is appointed by the Crown, aided by an executive council of nine members. The legislative authority resides in the governor, the legislative council of nine members nominated by the Crown, and a representative assembly of twenty-nine members elected for fourteen districts by persons owning land to the value of £5 or occupying houses of the rental of £2 8s. in New Providence or half that amount in outlying islands. The qualifications of electors are a village residence of twelve months. The executive council is composed partly of official and partly of unofficial members, who have a seat in one of the branches of the legislature.

*Barbados.*—The colony possesses free representative institutions, but not a responsible government. The Crown has only a veto on legislation, but the home Government retains the appointment and control of public officers. The local government consists of a governor and legislative council, composed of nine members appointed by the Crown, and a house of assembly having twenty-four members, elected annually on the basis of a moderate franchise.

*Bermuda.*—The laws of the colony are enacted by a local legislature consisting of the governor, a legislative council, and a house of assembly. The legislative council consists of nine appointed members, three of whom are official and six unofficial. The house of assembly consists of thirty-six members, four of whom are elected by each of the nine parishes.

*British Guiana.*—The laws and general methods of legislation are based upon those introduced by the Dutch during their control. The law making and enforcing power consists of a governor, a court of policy, and the combined court. The governor is appointed by the home Government, as in all British colonies. The court of policy consists of the governor, seven official and eight elected members. Its duties are purely legislative, the administrative functions being performed by an executive council. It passes all laws and ordinances except the annual tax ordinance, which is passed by the combined court, which also has the power of auditing public accounts and discussing the annual estimates prepared by the Government in executive council.

*Cyprus.*—The duties of colonial governor are performed by an officer styled "high commissioner," and the laws are enacted by a legislative body consisting of the high commissioner, six appointed and twelve elective members, three of whom are chosen by the Mohammedan and nine by the non-Mohammedan inhabitants of the island.

*Jamaica.*—The lawmaking body is a council consisting of the governor and five ex officio members, and such other persons, not exceeding ten in number, as the Crown may from time to time appoint, or as the governor may provisionally appoint, and fourteen persons to be elected by the people of the island. There are elected periodically boards in Kingston and certain parishes with jurisdiction over roads, markets, sanitation, poor relief, waterworks, and pounds. The parish is the unit of local government, and each parish has its own parochial institutions, poorhouses, etc., managed by the parochial board of the parish, the members of which are elective. There is a high court of justice and petty sessions of magistrates throughout the island.

*Leeward Islands.*—Legislation is enacted by a legislative council consisting of eight official and eight elective members. The elected members are chosen by the elective members of the local councils of the more important islands of the group, and must be, and continue to be, members of their respective local councils. The official members of the legislative council are the governor, colonial secretary, attorney-general, auditor-general, and administrators of the more important islands of the group.

*Malta.*—The government is administered by a governor, advised and assisted by an executive council of ten members. Legislation is carried on by means of a partly elected council of government, which consists of six official and thirteen elected members, three of whom are returned by special electors and chosen from the classes of nobles, university graduates, and members of the chambers of commerce, respectively.

*Mauritius.*—The government consists of a governor and an executive council of five official and two elected members, and a legislative council of twenty-seven members, eight being ex officio, nine nominated by the governor, and ten elected on a modern franchise.

The second class, colonies having a legislative council nominated by the Crown, which reserves the power of legislating by orders in council, includes the following:

*British Honduras.*—The executive council consists of the governor and five members, three of whom are ex officio and the other two appointed members. The legislative council consists of three official and five unofficial members, all appointed. The English common law extends to the colony as far as local circumstances permit, subject to modifications by colonial ordinances.



*British New Guinea.*—Legislation is effected by means of a local legislature named by the Crown, which consists, with one exception, of the officers of the government. The drafts of laws are submitted to the governor of Queensland before they are passed, and any law may be disallowed by the Crown. All government measures are subject to the final direction of the secretary of state for the colonies.

*Ceylon.*—The government is administered by a governor, aided by an executive council of five members, namely, the lieutenant-governor and colonial secretary, the officer commanding the troops, the attorney-general, the auditor-general, and the treasurer. The legislative council consists of seventeen members, including the members of the executive council, four other officeholders, and eight nominated unofficial members. The island is divided into nine provinces, presided over by government agents, who, with their assistants and subordinate headmen, are the channels of communication between the Government and the people.

*Falkland Islands.*—The government is administered by a governor aided by an executive and a legislative council. The legislative council is composed of the governor, the chief justice, the colonial secretary, the treasurer, the colonial surgeon, and two unofficial members appointed by the home Government.

*Fiji Islands.*—The executive council consists of the governor and four official members. The legislative council consists of the governor, six official and six unofficial nominated members. A share of self-government has been given to the natives, their system of village and district councils recognized and improved and supplemented by an annual meeting of the chiefs and representatives from each province presided over by the governor. The regulations recommended by these bodies are submitted to the legislative council, and, if approved, become law. The colony is divided into seventeen provinces, each under the control of a European commissioner, while each province is subdivided into districts with a native officer in charge. The provincial council, consisting of the natives in charge of the districts, distributes taxes among the different districts, and these are subdivided among the different villages by the district councils.

*Gambia.*—The executive council consists of an officer appointed by the Crown, designated as administrator, a treasurer, chief magistrate, and collector of revenues. The legislative council consists of the administrator, treasurer, chief magistrate, collector of customs, and two unofficial members. The traveling commissioners travel throughout the protectorate during the eight months of dry weather to enforce order and keep the commissioner and government advised regarding conditions among the natives.

*Gold Coast.*—The government is conducted by an executive council and a legislative council. The former consists of the governor, colonial secretary, attorney-general, treasurer, and inspector-general of constabulary. The legislative council is composed of the members of the executive council with the addition of the chief justice and three unofficial appointive members.

*Hongkong.*—The government is administered by a governor, aided by an executive council composed of six official and two unofficial members. The legislative council is presided over by the governor and composed of seven official and six unofficial members, three of whom are nominated by the Crown on the recommendation of the governor (two being usually Chinese), one is nominated by the justices of the peace, and one by the chamber of commerce.

*Lagos.*—The government is conducted by a governor, assisted by an executive and a legislative council. The latter includes four nominated unofficial members. The law consists entirely of local ordinances, orders in council, and such English acts as are of general application.

*Seychelles.*—The governing and lawmaking bodies are: The executive council, consisting of an officer appointed by the home Government, entitled administrator, the Crown prosecutor, the treasurer, the collector, and the deputy collector; the legislative council, including the administrator, the legal adviser, treasurer, collector, and the auditor.

*Sierra Leone.*—The government is conducted by a governor and an executive and a legislative council. The executive council consists of the governor, the officer commanding the troops, colonial secretary, colonial treasurer, and collector of customs. The legislative council consists of the governor, the chief justice, the officer commanding the troops, the colonial secretary, the attorney-general, and colonial treasurer, in addition to three nominated unofficial members.

*Straits Settlements.*—The government of the Straits Settlements proper consists of the governor, aided by an executive and a legislative council, the latter body consisting of nine official and seven unofficial members, of whom two are nominated by the chambers of commerce of Singapore and Penang. The law in force is contained in local ordinances and such English and Indian acts and orders in council as have been made applicable to the colony. The Indian penal code has been adopted with slight modifications and there is a civil procedure code based on the English judicature act. The supreme court holds assizes at Singapore and Penang every two months, and quarterly at Malacca, and also holds civil sittings monthly at Singapore and Penang, and once a quarter at Malacca. The government of the Straits Settlements has in recent years been extended to several states on the Malayan Peninsula which are now termed the Federated States of the Malayan Peninsula. The necessity for a permanent form of government came to be recognized both by the officials of those states and by those of adjacent territory, by reason of the constant unsettled conditions, and through agreement with their chiefs the British Government extended its protection over them, appointing British resident officials to reside at their capitals, consult with their chief officers, and aid in framing and carrying out laws and regulations. The supreme authority in each state is vested in a state council, consisting of the highest native chiefs, presided over by the Sultan, or ruler of the state, who is assisted by the British resident. These British residents are appointed by the home Government and are subordinate to a resident-general and to the high commissioner for the Federated Malay States, who is also the governor of the Straits Settlements. The administration of each state is carried on, as far as possible, on the model of the Crown colonies.

The third class, colonies in which no legislative council exists, the legislative power being delegated to the officer administering the government, includes:

*Basutoland.*—The territory is governed by a resident commissioner under the direction of the high commissioner for South Africa, the latter possessing legislative authority for Basutoland, which is exercised by proclamations. For fiscal and other purposes the country is divided into seven districts, each of which is presided over by an assistant commissioner. Each of these districts is subdivided into wards, presided over by hereditary chiefs.

*Gibraltar.*—There is no executive or any legislative body. The governor, who is also the governor commanding the garrison, exercises all the functions of government and legislation.

*St. Helena.*—The government is administered by a governor, aided by an executive council. The other members of the council are the lieutenant-colonel commanding the British troops and two appointed members. The governor alone makes ordinances, there being no legislative council.

*Niger Territories.*—The Niger Territories were secured to Great Britain by nearly five hundred treaties made by the Royal Niger Company with native chiefs and recognized by the Anglo-German agreement of 1885 and the Anglo-French agreement of 1890. The

company retained control of the territory until the year 1900, when it was transferred to the British Government and divided into Northern Nigeria and Southern Nigeria. The government of the Royal Niger Company had been conducted chiefly from England by the governor and council who initiated all legislation and from whom emanated all orders regarding the employment of the troops on punitive expeditions. The same body revised the sentences of the supreme court, which was established at the capital of the Niger territory, and which consisted of two judges who alternately served in Africa. Three senior officers had the general administration of the divisions of the country, and subdivisions of districts were under control of district officers who held small cause courts. In the administration adopted since the transfer of the territory to the British Government in 1900 a high commissioner has been appointed as the chief officer representing the Government, and two residents provided for two provinces of Northern Nigeria, with seven assistant residents. A supreme court serves as a court of appeal for both southern and northern Nigeria, the residents, who are intrusted with large powers, holding provincial courts. The attorney-general acts as legal adviser to the government. There is no legislative or executive council, and the high commissioner has the power to make laws under the name of proclamations. A high commissioner is also appointed for Southern Nigeria, and the general method of government is similar to that described for Northern Nigeria.

*Rhodesia.*—Rhodesia, in South Africa, is governed by the British South Africa Company, subject, however, to the general supervision of the high commissioner for South Africa, who is appointed by the Crown. The Rhodesia country was granted to the British South Africa Company in 1889, with large powers of administration, to extend railway and telegraph systems, encourage immigration, promote trade and commerce, and work mineral and other concessions, the grant to continue twenty-five years. A constitution has been adopted which creates a legislative council composed of the senior administrator, the resident commissioner, the administrator of Matabeleland, and five nominated and four elected members. The senior administrator is advised by an executive council consisting of seven members. The laws of Cape Colony are in force in Rhodesia as far as circumstances will permit, but these are subject to specific provisions, which give certain powers to resident commissioners and magistrates, and under certain circumstances to native chiefs. The judicial establishment consists of a high court, with two judges, the attorney-general, the solicitor-general, local magistrates, and assistant magistrates at various towns and settlements throughout the territory. The high commissioner has general control over legislation, important appointments, and native affairs, and the authority to appoint an imperial resident commissioner and an imperial commandant of the armed forces.

#### LAWS FRAMED IN THE COLONIES SELDOM REJECTED BY THE HOME GOVERNMENT.

It is proper to add that the laws framed by the local legislative bodies of the various colonies above described are seldom disapproved or rejected by the home Government. Important measures are usually submitted to the colonial office through correspondence before final action is taken upon them, and in the most important cases before they are considered in detail by the local legislature. By this process the joint opinion of the governor, the executive council, and the legislative council is combined in the law finally enacted; and since the colonial office and home Government have confidence in these officials in the colonies, most of whom are named by the home office and Government, their judgment in regard to the laws framed and enacted is generally accepted. The fact that the administration of the laws is in many cases carried on through cooperation with the native headmen and officials of the colonies, which are divided into districts for that purpose, gives to the executive officers and lawmakers of such colony the benefit of the views of the native headmen, as well as an enlarged view for the officials themselves, who operate through them, and to this extent local autonomy in the making and administration of laws.

#### A MODERN FRENCH VIEW OF ENGLISH METHODS.

On the question of the lawmaking power granted to the British colonies, M. Maurice Ordinaire, a writer in the French colonial periodical, "*Questions Diplomatiques et Coloniales*," of June 15, 1900, says:

"The principal feature of the British colonial régime is the autonomy of the colonies. This autonomy, pushed to the utmost limits in the case of the self-governing colonies, exists, however, in a large degree, notwithstanding appearances to the contrary, in the Crown colonies as well. In theory, the latter are regarded as possessions of the mother country and directly governed by it. In practice the régime is more liberal, the colonies enjoying quite a large amount of autonomy, thanks to the discreet use the Government makes of its large prerogatives, reserved to the Crown, as well as the initiative which it leaves to the functionaries, who are carefully selected and vested with considerable powers. By acting in such a manner the central Government not only follows the precepts of common sense—which condemns the administration of colonies from a distance by means of more or less well-informed bureaux (as a matter of fact, the British colonial administration commits most of its blunders whenever it interferes directly with the affairs of colonies)—but it also follows in this national tradition.

"The Englishman, indeed, unless he be blinded by the mania of conquest, which makes him lose all sense of justice, respects the freedom of collective bodies and communities, as well as the freedom of the individual, to a degree unknown on the Continent. He does not show the solicitude, full of generous intentions but as a matter of fact tyrannical, which causes other nations to tighten beyond any reasonable measure the bonds which attach them to the colonies, to impose on them laws which are unfit for them and merely impede each of their movements—and this for the reason that the laws are those of the mother country and as such regarded the very best in the world.

"The Briton admits that individuals of another race, living under other climes, may have different wants and ideas from those held by himself. He does not pretend to 'assimilate' brethren of all colors, whose brains, for the present at least, are not quite as well developed as his own. Neither does he think that he has fulfilled his whole duty toward them and assured their happiness forever when he grants them political rights which they do not know how to make use of. He thinks, quite the contrary, that for primitive societies such as colonies are there are more urgent liberties than a mere formal and ostentatious franchise (*franchise d'apparat*), and that the primary benefit (*le premier des biens*) to be conferred upon them is a régime which develops their initiative, teaches them responsibility, and favors their economic ascendancy.

"To be sure it is not alone the interests of the colonies which is his motive of action. If he desires to make of them as soon as possible strong and prosperous colonies, fitted with a complete governmental system and provided with all the means necessary for independent existence, his chief motive is to relieve the mother country as speedily as possible from its responsibilities and financial burdens.

"His dream, it seems, is an England placed amidst an immense confederation of colonies, the latter grouped in such a manner as to be independent financially and administratively, as well as in other ways, so that the mother country, instead of care, worry, expense, and danger, should enjoy only the magnificent advantages of prestige, security, and a good commercial clientèle."

## THE FRENCH SYSTEM OF LAW MAKING AND ADMINISTRATION.

In the French colonies the law-making bodies are in a few cases elected by the people of the colony, and in others—especially the less advanced communities—partially or entirely appointed; but the power of the elected bodies, even in the more advanced colonies is, however, restricted by the fact that the tariff and fiscal laws of the colonies are made by the legislative body of the governing country; while the presence in that law-making body of delegates from the colonies results in a much larger proportion of the local legislation being performed by it in the mother country than in the case of the British colonies, where practically all legislation, including tariff making, is performed by the local law-making body, whether elective or appointive.

The French colonies which have legislative councils (*conseils général*), wholly or partially elected, are Martinique, Guadeloupe, Reunion, St. Pierre, Miquelon, French Guiana, Senegal, New Caledonia, Tahiti, Mayotte, Comoro, with a total population of about 4,000,000 out of a total population of 56,000,000 in the French colonies. The second group, which possesses a more rudimentary administrative organization, includes French Congo, French Guinea, Ivory Coast, Dahomey, Somali Coast, and Madagascar, with a total population of about 15,000,000. Algeria is considered as a part of France and sends its representatives to the French Parliament in the same manner as the provinces of France.

In the Dutch colonies the power of control through appointment is even more absolute, and this is also the case in the German colonies and in the Kongo Free State, which is under the control of the Belgian Government. In all of these the government in the colony is created in part by a series of regulations framed at the seat of the home Government and in part by regulations framed in the colonies by appointees of the home Government.

## VIEWS OF M. LEROY-BEAULIEU.

On this general subject of the location of legislative power for the colonies, M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, in his excellent work, *De la Colonisation chez les Peuples Modernes*, originally published in 1874, and reissued in 1882, 1885, and 1891, says:

"During the period of their infancy, colonies may be ruled directly by the mother country, and it is not then expedient to have recourse to colonial assemblies; as Merivale justly remarks, during this first period of colonization the colony stands in need of simple and practical institutions; it is not yet ripe for representative government. If, then, the government has the right during this stage to direct, without control, the colonial affairs, it should, however, try to substitute for the representative guaranties, which are lacking in the colony, all sorts of subsidiary guaranties which can be accorded to them. Therefore the claim can not stand which the executive power made and realized in certain countries, of ruling colonies by decrees and orders without the interference of the national legislature, or even of granting to a nonelective chamber, as, for instance, the Senate of the Second Empire, the power to modify the administrative régime of the colonies. This system is unreasonable from a good many points of view. Its object is to take away from the natural representatives of the nation the power of scrutinizing matters which seriously affect the present and future interests of the nation. It is an encroachment of the executive power upon the essential attributes of popular representation; moreover, it causes artificial silence about colonial questions, often leads to the shelving of important matters without giving them publicity, or to decisions with the least possible discussion and information, and, therefore, quite justly excites the defiance and discontent of the colonies. The colonial régime should never, therefore, be decided upon by administrative decrees, orders, or *senatus consulta*, but only by law.

On the other hand, every nation which intends to do serious work in colonization must have a special ministry for the colonies; to subordinate colonial affairs to the ministry of the navy or war means first of all to put them in the second place, and, secondly, to turn them over to functionaries who, possessing ordinarily only military habits and ideas, lack the special knowledge and insight and the necessary qualities for the satisfactory transaction of matters essentially civil. England and Holland have had a ministry of colonies for a long while; Spain, a few years ago, adopted the useful plan of creating, or rather resuscitating, one; France, in 1858, made an effort in the same direction, but this experience lasted but two and a half years, giving, however, excellent results during that time. Personal and fiscal considerations put an end to this scheme. The possible objection that the colonies have not sufficient importance for France to warrant the establishment of a special ministry is not valid, for slight observation will show that there are ministries with us whose functions are much less extended and whose business has much less common interest. To create a special ministry for Algeria and our other colonies is, furthermore, the means of putting a little life into our colonial establishments, to direct to them the public attention, to attract toward them immigration, and thus to hasten the progress and development of our dependencies. If, for reasons which I can not divine, there is hesitancy about the creation of a special ministry, the colonies should be subordinated at least to a civil ministry rather than a military one; thus, for instance, they should be attached to the ministry of commerce rather than to the ministry of the navy;<sup>1</sup> the subordination of colonial questions to the navy or the war departments has, as a matter of fact, been one of the chief causes of the stagnation of our colonial establishments.<sup>2</sup>

"It is not enough to turn over the colonial matters to a civil ministry which has the special competency for a full understanding and the proper administration of affairs; the administration of colonies should be given a unity of plan and thought, such as changes of cabinets would be unable to affect. Porter, in his work (Vol. III, p. 120), remarks that a great number of colonial secretaries, succeeding each other after the victories or defeats of parties, is an obstacle to colonization, and insists that the statesmen who have seen service in the colonies, irrespective of their views on general public matters, should form a permanent council, of which the cabinet minister should have but the presidency. This would be an imitation of the celebrated India council of the Spanish monarchy. Portugal has created an analogous institution under the name of the "council beyond the seas," which guarantees the perpetuity of colonial traditions and studies. In England, Porter's plan has found the beginning of realization in the founding of the "colonial land and emigration commission," the work of Lord John Russell.

"The choice of colonial functionaries and the system of advancement and promotion of the service are also of the utmost importance. Every nation which wishes to colonize effectively and not ostentatiously alone must have a special personnel of colonial functionaries; the work of these officials being of a singularly delicate nature, requires a special education at an early stage. It is highly imprudent to intrust the colonial administration to functionaries taken from the administrative staff of the mother country, for as a matter of fact there are essential, sometimes enormous, differences between the proper mode of ruling an old country like France and

<sup>1</sup>In 1881, during the short existence of the Gambetta ministry, the colonies were attached to the ministry of commerce.

<sup>2</sup>Since this was written a ministry of colonies has been established by the French Government.

a new country like Algeria. It is no less imprudent to call to the government of the older colonies military functionaries, such as military and naval officers, though by chance one might be met who is endowed with excellent qualities for colonization, but this is an exceptional case, and ordinarily the ideas gained during a military career are out of all sympathy with the spontaneous and free ideas of the colonists. But the most obnoxious factor is the continuous changes in the colonial personnel. In the French system the governor is generally a man of very little stability, who sees but short service and leaves the colony the moment he begins to know and understand it a little. Careful calculation show that our dependencies change governors every three years and sometimes even more often."

#### TWO DISTINCT METHODS OF GOVERNMENT FOR THE FRENCH COLONIES.

The forms of government in the French tropical colonies are of two distinct classes: (1) Those in which certain laws and regulations are enacted by a local body, in a few cases wholly elected, in others partly elected, and in others appointed, the laws being administered by officials appointed by the home Government. In this class the system is somewhat similar to the Crown colony system of England already described, though a much larger share of the general laws and regulations originates with the home Government. This is especially true with reference to tariff regulations, which in all British colonies are established by the local government, while in all French colonies they are framed by the home Government either through legislative action or by decree. Ireland, in his *Tropical Colonization*, discussing methods of government in the French colonies, divides them into two classes, those in which the government is carried out to some extent by the passage of laws, and those in which all matters are settled by the simple decree of the governor. "To the first class," says Mr. Ireland, "belong Martinique, Guadeloupe, and Réunion; to the second, most of the other French tropical colonies. In the first class the principal subjects to which the passage of laws is applicable are the exercise of political rights, the regulation of contracts; matters relating to wills, legacies, and succession; the institution of juries; criminal procedure; recruiting for naval and military forces; the methods of electing mayors and municipal deputies and councilors, and the organization of the local councils generally. In regard to all other matters of importance all the French tropical colonies are on the same basis of legislation, that is, government by decrees issued by the governor or the minister of colonies. The governor of a French colony has very wide powers. He is commander of the local land forces and of such vessels of war as may touch at his station, as well as of the local militia. He can of his own authority declare his colony in a state of siege, and has at all times the power to open courts-martial for the trial of military offenders. In his administrative capacity he has absolute authority to regulate nearly all the internal affairs of his colony, and he is above the local law, for he can not be brought before the local courts for any cause whatever. The governor is to some extent guided by the advice of two bodies—the privy council, which is a nominated body consisting of official and unofficial members; and the general council, which is made up of councilors elected by the votes of all male persons over 25 years of age who have resided for more than one year in the colony. Generally speaking, these bodies merely advise, but in a few matters the governor is bound to follow the advice thus given him. In addition to the privy council and general council, some of the colonies have local councils and conseils d'arrondissements. The principal officers under the governor are the director of the interior, the military commandant, the chief of the health department, the permanent inspector of finance, the attorney-general, and the judges of the supreme courts. Martinique, Guadeloupe, and some of the other colonies send representatives to the French Assembly, usually one senator and two deputies, but it is difficult to see that the colonies derive any advantage from this arrangement." In support of this view that the presence in the French Assembly of members from the colonies does not prove advantageous, Mr. Ireland quotes M. Paul Leroy Beaulieu, as follows:

"We have introduced French liberty into our colonies, and we give them civil governors; we admit their representatives into our parliament. All these reforms are excellent in themselves, but it is to be feared that they will in practice result in abuses; that unless the mother country is very watchful these very powers which she has granted to her colonies will become powers of oppression. \* \* \* The deputies whom Martinique and Guadeloupe send to our parliament serve only to represent the malign prejudices and ignorance of the blacks. The weak executive power in France allows itself to be intimidated by these deputies, and sends out to the colonies cowardly and incapable governors whose indecision of character feeds the more or less barbarous hopes of the negro majority. The hatred of the negro for the white man is complicated in these islands by the hatred of the poor for the rich. Great caution is necessary, for as things are going, the history of Santo Domingo may easily be repeated."

#### THE NETHERLANDS COLONIAL SYSTEM.

In the Netherlands colonies, where a handful of Dutch officials govern 35,000,000 of people, the governor-general, who is appointed by the home government, has very large discretionary powers, and is responsible for his actions directly to the Sovereign of the Netherlands. The framing of laws and regulations in Java is by a council composed of the governor-general and a nominated advisory board of five members, whose advice, however, the governor-general is not bound to follow if his views of policy do not coincide with theirs. These officials are in constant communication with the head of the department of colonies at The Hague, and the important laws and regulations are submitted to that department for consultation, advice, and final approval. The European officials, both in the home office and in the island, are carefully chosen and required to pass severe examinations in the history, geography, law, ethnology, and customs of the natives, and those who serve in the island must learn Malay and Javanese in order to be able to communicate with the natives with whom they come in contact. No effort is made to instruct the natives in the Dutch language. "All appointments," says Ireland, "to the higher administrative posts in Java follow a rigid examination in the history, geography, and ethnology of the Dutch East Indies, the political and social institutions of the natives, and in the Malay and Javanese languages. The officials who are to be charged with the administration of justice must hold the degree of doctor of laws from one of the Dutch universities, and in addition pass examinations in Musselman law and local common law." The same writer, describing the form of government of the Netherlands colonies, says: "The colonial system of Holland, or more correctly the system adopted by Holland in the government of Java, is undoubtedly, if measured by its general results, the most efficient type which exists. In its general outline it resembles the English Crown colonial system, but in most of its details it is superior to that system. The head of administration in Java is the governor-general, whose powers are almost as extensive as those of an absolute monarch. The extreme legislative and executive power rests in his person; he can declare war and conclude peace and negotiate treaties with the native princes of the Dutch East India posts. All offices are within his gift, and he can expel from his dominions any person who, in his opinion, is an enemy of public order. He is president of the Indian council, which consists of a vice-president and four nominated members. This body is an advisory one, except in regard to a few matters speci-

fied in the laws relating to the colony, but the governor-general has the power of acting contrary to the advice of the council even on these specified subjects if he declares that the public interest demands it. The governor-general of Java is in fact a viceroy. He is responsible to the Sovereign only for his actions, and the Sovereign can only proceed against him by impeachment before the Second Chamber of the States-General. The central government in Java is conducted, under the orders of the governor-general, by five officials called directors. They control, respectively, the departments of the interior, of finance, of education and trade, justice, and of public works. For administrative purposes the island is divided into twenty-two residencies, each under the control of a Dutch resident. Each residency is divided into several regencies, administered by regents who are usually natives of high birth."

#### THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

The method by which the British Government administers law and preserves order among 300,000,000 people of an entirely different nationality, climate, and condition, 6,000 miles from the home Government, maintaining a permanent and orderly government, promoting production, commerce and manufactures, and developing roads, railways, irrigation systems, municipal organizations, and educational facilities, is worthy a special and detailed study. Of the advance which has occurred under British administration, Morris, in his *History of Colonization*, 1900, says:

"The progress of India has been especially remarkable from a material point of view. Reforms in domestic conditions have aided agriculture and industry so that in spite of famine and pestilence the advance in both these pursuits has been enormous. The greater portion of these domains has long been free from war, the avowed struggle for conquest long ago ceased. \* \* \* In public improvement, roads, telegraph and telephone service, as well as harbor facilities and interior waterways, India lately has been making phenomenal strides. The main obstacles to steady and unrestricted prosperity are the scourges of plague and famine. The task of the future is the introduction of proper sanitation, to accomplish which the deeply rooted prejudices of the native races must be overcome; but when that happy period shall arrive, the highest blessing conferred by European occupation will have been achieved. The problem of freedom from periodical starvation is of equally difficult solution, but the palliatives already well known are being provided in the extension of works of irrigation and the construction of railways."

The population of India, according to the census of 1901, is 294,266,701, including the so-called native States, practically all of which are now under the general supervision and control of the British Government. The total number of educational institutions in India is 149,948, including 169 colleges, the total attendance being 4,358,000. Of the boys of school age, 22 per cent now attend school. The laws are administered by 72 judges of high or chief courts, 1,818 judges of districts courts, and 7,565 judges of subordinate courts. The total revenue raised is over 1,000,000,000 rupees, or upward of \$300,000,000, and, to quote a distinguished officer of the Government in India, "the whole cost of Indian administration and of public works and improvements is borne exclusively by the Indian taxpayer. Every rupee spent in British India, including the cost of the British army in India and His Majesty's vessels in Indian waters, and every shilling spent in England on account of India, including military and civil charges there, and the cost of the Indian office is raised from the revenues of India." The railways, according to an official report of April 30, 1901, aggregated 25,125 miles, of which 1,237 miles were added in 1900. The number of passengers carried by Indian railways in 1899 was 163,000,000. The telegraphs are 51,769 miles in length with 160,650 miles of wire; they handled in 1899, 5,500,000 paid messages. The postal system included in 1899, 29,122 post-offices and boxes, against 753 in 1856, and carried in 1899, 489,000,000 pieces of mail. The roads maintained by public authority aggregated 152,000 miles. The imports of 1899 were \$297,000,000 and the exports \$379,000,000, making India sixth in the list of great exporting countries of the world.

The method by which the British administration of India is conducted at the seat of the home Government and in India is described by Sir W. W. Hunter, who served for many years in India, and has prepared an elaborate series of volumes discussing every detail of administrative, commercial, and physical conditions in that country, as follows:

#### BRITISH ADMINISTRATION OF INDIA.

"The act of 1858, which transferred India from the company to the Crown, also laid down the scheme of its government. Under the company the governor-general was an autocrat, responsible only to the distant court of directors. The court of directors had been answerable to the shareholders or court of proprietors on one hand, and through the board of control to the Sovereign and Parliament on the other. The act of 1858 did away with these intermediary bodies between the governor-general and the British ministry. For the court of directors, the court of proprietors, and the board of control it substituted a secretary of state, aided by a council appointed by the Crown.

"The secretary of state for India is a cabinet minister, who comes into and goes out of office with the other members of the ministry. His council was originally appointed for life and consisted of fifteen persons. Its members are now appointed for ten years only, but may be reappointed for another five years for special reasons. Their number may also be diminished by the secretary of state by his abstaining from filling vacancies so long as the total shall not be reduced to fewer than ten members. The secretary of state rules in all ordinary matters through the majority of his council. But in affairs of urgency and in questions which belong to the secret department, including political correspondence, he is not required to consult his council. The viceroy or governor-general is appointed by the Crown and resides in India. His ordinary term of office is five years.

"The supreme authority in India is vested by a series of acts of Parliament in the viceroy or governor-general-in-council, subject to the control of the secretary of state in England. Every executive order and every legislative statute runs in the name of the 'governor-general-in-council,' but in certain cases a power is reserved to the viceroy to act independently. The governor-general's council is of a twofold character.

"First, the ordinary or executive council, ordinarily composed of five official members besides the viceroy, and the commander in chief in India, which may be compared with the cabinet of a constitutional country. It meets regularly at short intervals, usually once a week, discusses and decides upon questions of foreign policy and domestic administration, and prepares measures for the legislative council. Its members divide among themselves the chief departments of state, such as those of foreign affairs, finance, war, public works, etc. The viceroy combines in his own person the duties of constitutional sovereign with those of prime minister, and usually has charge of the foreign department. As a rule, the viceroy is himself the initiating member of council for foreign and feudatory affairs.

"Second, the legislative council, which is made up of the same members as the preceding, with the addition of the governor of the



province in which it may be held; certain officials selected by the governor-general from Bengal, Madras, Bombay, or other provinces, and nominated members, representative of the nonofficial native and European communities. The official additional members thus appointed to the legislative council must not exceed in number the nonofficials, and the number of the nominated additional members must now not exceed sixteen or be less than ten. The meetings of the legislative council are held when and as required, usually once a week. They are open to the public, and a further guaranty for publicity is insured by the proviso that draft bills must be published a certain number of times in the Gazette. As a matter of practice, these draft bills have usually been first subjected to the criticism of the several provincial governments. Provincial legislative councils have also been appointed for the presidencies of Madras and Bombay, and for the lieutenant-governorships of Bengal, and of the Northwestern provinces with Oudh. The members of these local legislative councils are appointed, in the case of Madras and Bombay, by the governors of those provinces; and in Bengal, and the Northwestern provinces with Oudh, by the lieutenant-governors, subject to the approval of the governor-general. The acts of these provincial legislative councils, which can deal only with provincial matters, are subject to sanction by the governor-general.

"An important act dealing with the legislative councils has recently been passed. By it the number of the nominated additional members has been raised to not less than ten or more than sixteen for the governor-general's legislative council; to not less than eight or more than twenty for the Madras and Bombay legislative councils, and to not more than twenty for the Bengal, or more than fifteen for the Northwestern provinces with Oudh, legislative councils. Further, by section 2 of this act power is given to the governor-general's and to the local legislative councils to discuss the annual financial statements of the supreme and local governments, and to ask questions about them; but it is distinctly laid down that 'no member \* \* \* shall have power to submit or propose any resolution, or to divide the council in respect of any such financial discussion, on the answer to any question asked.' The most important feature of the act is paragraph 4 of section 1: 'The governor-general in council may, from time to time, with the approval of the secretary of state in council, make regulations as to the conditions under which such nominations, or any of them, shall be made by the governor-general, governors, and lieutenant-governors, respectively, and prescribe the manner in which such regulations shall be carried into effect.' Under this paragraph it becomes lawful for the viceroy to permit all or a certain proportion of the legislative councils to be elected by their fellow-citizens.

"The presidencies of Madras and Bombay, and the lieutenant-governorships of Bengal and the Northwestern provinces, have each a high court, supreme both in civil and criminal business, but with an ultimate appeal to the judicial committee of the privy council in England. The chief justices of these high courts are appointed in England from among the distinguished leaders of the English bar, and the puisne judges are selected in certain proportions from the Indian civil service and from the English or the local bars. The legal capacity of the natives of India has long been recognized, and native judges sit upon the bench in all the high courts, and have proved thoroughly competent for their important duties. \* \* \*

"The law administered in the Indian courts consists mainly of—(1) the enactments of the Indian legislative councils (imperial and provincial) and of the corresponding legislative bodies which preceded them; (2) statutes of the British Parliament which apply to India; (3) the Hindoo and Mohammedan laws of inheritance, and their domestic law, in causes affecting Hindoos and Mohammedans; (4) the customary law affecting particular castes and races. Much has been done toward consolidating special sections of the Indian law, and in the Indian penal code, together with the codes of civil and criminal procedure, we have memorable examples of such efforts.

"But although the governor-general in council is theoretically supreme over every part of India alike, his actual authority is not everywhere exercised in the same direct manner. For ordinary purposes of administration, British India is partitioned into provinces, each with a government of its own, and certain of the native States are attached to those provinces with which they are most nearly connected geographically. These provinces, again, enjoy various degrees of independence. The two presidencies of Madras and of Bombay, including Sind, retain many marks of their original equality with Bengal. They each have an army of their own. They are each administered by a governor appointed direct from England. They have each an executive and legislative council, whose functions are analogous to those of the councils of the governor-general, although subject to his control. They thus possess a domestic legislature; and in administrative matters, also, the interference of the governor-general in council is sparingly exercised.

"Of the other provinces, Bengal, or rather Lower Bengal, occupies a peculiar position. Like the Northwestern provinces and the Punjab, it is administered by a single official, with the style of lieutenant-governor, who is controlled by no executive council; but Bengal has possessed a legislative council, a sign of its early preeminence, since 1861, whereas the Northwestern provinces only obtained a legislative council in 1887."

#### A FRENCH VIEW OF THE SUBJECT.

"One of the most difficult problems of colonization," says M. Leroy-Beaulieu, "is the mode of administering and governing the colonial establishments. Of all nations which have pursued a successful colonial policy there is perhaps not a single one which should have followed, on this point, a just and constant policy and been able to escape the troubles which the majority of colonies so very often cause to the mother countries. But the teachings of history have brought about considerable modifications in the official doctrines on the normal and permanent relations between full-grown colonies and their mother countries, and it is to be hoped that a juster and wiser policy will prevent, in the future, those catastrophes which colonial history presents for the past.

"During the first period of colonization the thoughts of the colonists are turned exclusively toward the acquisition of wealth. The desire of saving and accumulating, which is everywhere one of the principal springs of national activity, is in the colonies almost the only motive of action. The pursuit of wealth is the almost only interest in the laborious existence of the settlers. Everybody is engaged in ceaseless work to obtain wealth; and since all are engaged in similar occupation and pursue the same object, the one that succeeds in becoming rich has the double honor of being, at the same time, the most powerful individual and of being regarded the most clever in the community. In the life of the colonist, filled as it is by the desire and hope of lucrative gain, no place is left for speculative thought; private life is to such an extent full of schemes, events, and efforts that nothing is left for public life; all the functions and dignities which constitute an object of envy in our old European societies are scorned and disdained by the first colonists as inconvenient burdens which might rob them of valuable time and form an obstacle for the acquisition of wealth—the only object of their thoughts and only goal of their efforts. During the early stage of colonization there prevails generally a striking equality between the people. Primary education being almost universal, whereas higher instruction is quite exceptional, the result is an identity of education which suppresses all class distinction. There is no place for the class of people so numerous in the old societies who, having a competence of old standing, holding aloof from all professions which have gain as their principal object, and versed in speculative disciplines, strive after the

administration of public affairs as the natural field reserved for their activity and intellect. During this first period of the colony the mother country is thus able to govern and administer without obstacle and control its new domain, secure of not exciting any complaint if it applies some moderation in its orders and skill in its decisions, for all that is wanted from it is that it establish security everywhere and not interfere in a vexatious manner with private interests. On these two conditions the administration of affairs of general interest is turned over to it without regret.

"But even during this first period of colonization there is a limit to the action of the home government. This limit is put by the community which springs up, beginning with the first days of the colony, by dint of the simple juxtaposition of a number of farms, or even huts, and which, from the very first days, again clamors for the fullness of its functions and insists upon its independence being respected. The commune, just like the family, is an institution of the natural no less than the political order; it is the fundamental element of all civilization, and the more this element is being developed the stronger and more active will civilization be. This independence of the local community, whose usefulness has been proclaimed at all times by the most advanced and progressive nations, is, in our opinion, even more indispensable for colonies than for other societies, and we dare say that the degree of respect shown by the people for the attributions of municipal bodies is the best measure of their colonizing abilities. In the colonies, moreover, the local community has an importance not to be found anywhere else, because, in the state of growth and rapid progress peculiarly characteristic of a colony, municipal interests are more often at stake than in old societies which have attained a degree of stability which requires only a certain routine. An administrative tutelage will, therefore, prove infinitely more vexatious in the colonies than anywhere else, since its action will necessarily be more frequent, more apparent, and perceptible. Such a tutelage will at the same time be more difficult in practice, because of the wide extent of the territory, the diversity of conditions, and the variety and mobility of interests; it will, furthermore, be much more subject to error, owing to the lack of precedents, the insufficiency and inexperience of the officials, almost all taken from outside the colonial ranks and lacking the knowledge of local circumstances and conditions. The colonists are, much more than the inhabitants of old countries, likely to resent the constant interference of an inexperienced administration. The interests of all at this stage of civilization being much more entangled and less distinct than during successive epochs, the authorities to which appeal from the errors and mistakes of subordinate officials might be taken being much farther away, communication being so much more difficult, and the time which is lost through formalities provided for by a minute administration having much more value in young societies, all these circumstances would make administrative tutelage particularly obnoxious in the colonies. Of all institutions of the Old World this is the one whose importation is likely to prove most pernicious. Any nation which applies itself seriously to the task of colonization and which has the praiseworthy ambition of establishing in a new country a vigorous and progressive society, should permit municipal life to develop without fetters. \* \* \*

#### THE GOVERNMENT OF TROPICAL TERRITORY UNDER TWENTIETH CENTURY CONDITIONS.

Mr. Benjamin Kidd, an English writer and student, expresses the opinion that in the government of tropical territory, in which the people of the governing country can not make permanent homes, the government should be largely conducted from the home country through the agency of a small but carefully selected and highly trained corps of officials in the governed territory, and that these in turn should carry out the details of government through the best element of the natives. In his work, *The Control of the Tropics*, 1898, he calls attention to the growing demand of all of the well-developed Temperate Zone countries for the products of the less developed Tropics and the importance of a development of the producing powers of the Tropics, which will be followed by a mutual interchange of their natural products for the manufactures of the Temperate Zone, and thus both sections and their people benefited. This development of the Tropics, he suggests, is likely to be accomplished by the people of the Temperate Zone nations, which have within the past quarter of a century obtained control of such vast tropical areas. Commenting upon the methods of government which may best be applied in view of the impracticability of distributing the population of a Temperate Zone country over large areas within the Tropics, he says:

"During the last two decades of the nineteenth century nearly 5,000,000 square miles of the tropical regions of the world, or an area considerably greater than that of the whole of Europe, has been brought under the control of continental powers of Europe under the conception of colonial expansion. These regions continue to wait for the white colonists who will never come. But in the meantime the ruling instinct of the occupying power seems everywhere to be simply to fall back on the old idea of the factory or the plantation—the estate to be worked for the profit of those who have taken possession. It is one of the gloomiest spectacles at the end of the nineteenth century, this railing off of immense regions in the Tropics under the policy which has suggested their acquirement, regions tending, in the absence of white colonists, to simply revert to the type of States worked for gain. \* \* \*

"If we inquire what the colonies are with which the British colonial office is concerned, we shall have presented to view a curious list. At the head of it comes the great self-governing States like Canada, Victoria, New South Wales, South Australia, the Cape, Natal, New Zealand, and others, all colonies in the true sense of the word, offshoots of England in temperate regions of the world. \* \* \* If we look farther down the list we have a strange medley—vast territories in tropical lands, acquired at various dates in the history of war and trade; countries inhabited by different races and governed under a variety of constitutions; regions representing every type of administrative problem—questions of war, of defense, of finance—which raise the whole modern policy of the Empire; questions of responsibility to weaker races; of the relations of the governing power to great systems of native jurisprudence and religion, which take us back to the very childhood of the world, and in which the first principle of successful policy is that we are dealing, as it were, with children. \* \* \*

#### TROPICAL LIFE NOT SUITED TO THE WHITE RACE.

"The attempt to acclimatize the white man in the Tropics must be recognized to be a blunder of the first magnitude. All experiments based upon the idea are mere idle and empty enterprises foredoomed to failure. Excepting only the deportation of the African races under the institution of slavery, probably no other idea which has held the mind of our civilization during the past three hundred years has led to so much physical and moral suffering and degradation, or has strewn the world with the wrecks of so many gigantic enterprises. \* \* \*

#### HOW SHALL THE TROPICS BE GOVERNED?

"The Tropics in such circumstances can only be governed as a trust for civilization, and with a full sense of the responsibility which such a trust involves. The first principle of success in undertaking such a duty seems to the writer to be a clear recognition of the cardinal fact that in the Tropics the white man lives and works only as a diver lives and works under water. Alike in a moral, in an

ethical, and in a political sense, the atmosphere he breathes must be that of another region, that which produced him, and to which he belongs. Neither morally, physically, nor politically can he be acclimatized in the Tropics. The people among whom he lives and works are often separated from him by thousands of years of development. He cannot, therefore, be allowed to administer government from any local or lower standard he may develop. If he has any right there at all, he is there in the name of civilization. If our civilization has any right there at all, it is because it represents higher ideals of humanity, a higher type of social order. This is the lesson which, slowly and painfully, and with many a temporary reversion to older ideas, the British people have been learning in India for the past fifty years, and which has recently been applied in other circumstances to the government of Egypt. Under a multitude of outward aspects, the one principle which separates the new era from the old in India, the influence of which has come to extend even to the habits and dress of the governing class, is the recognition of the fact that the standards according to which India must be governed have been developed and are nourished elsewhere. The one consistent idea, which, through all outward forms, has in late years been behind the institution of the higher Indian civil service on existing lines, is that, even where it is equally open to natives with Europeans through competitive examination, entrance to it shall be made through an English university. In other words, it is the best and most distinct product which England can give, the higher ideals and standards of her universities, which is made to feed the inner life from which the British administration of India proceeds. It is but the application of the same principle which we have in the recognition of the fact that no violent hands must be laid on native institutions, or native rights, or native systems of religion, or even on native independence, so far as respect for existing forms is compatible with the efficient administration of the government. It is but another form of the recognition of the fact that we are in the midst of habits and institutions from which our civilization is separated by a long interval of development, where progress upward must be a long, slow process, must proceed on native lines, and must be the effect of the example and prestige and higher standards rather than the result of ruder methods. \* \* \*

#### BRING THE HOME GOVERNMENT INTO CLOSE TOUCH WITH THE COLONY.

"In the case of regions whose inhabitants have made little progress toward the development of any social organization of their own, the government for the time being must be prepared for duties and responsibilities of a different kind from those undertaken among ourselves, for not even under the protection of a civilized government can it be expected that in such cases the natives will develop the resources they have in charge under the principles of our Western individualism. But in this, as in all other matters, the one underlying principle of success in any future relationship to the Tropics is to keep those who administer the government which represents our civilization in direct and intimate contact with the standards of that civilization at its best and to keep the acts of the government itself within the closest range of that influence, often irksome, sometimes even misleading, but always absolutely vital—the continual scrutiny of the public mind at home. \* \* \*

#### THE TROPICS MUST BE ADMINISTERED FROM THE TEMPERATE REGIONS.

"The question that will therefore present itself for solution will be, How is the development and efficient administration of these regions to be secured? The ethical development that has taken place in our civilization has rendered the experiment once made to develop their resources by forced native labor no longer possible or permissible, if even possible. We have already abandoned, under pressure of experience, the idea which at one time prevailed that the tropical regions might be occupied and permanently colonized by European races, as vast regions in the temperate climes have been. Within a measurable period in the future and under pressure of experience we shall probably also have to abandon the idea, which has in like manner prevailed for a time, that the colored races, left to themselves, possess the qualities necessary to the development of the rich resources of the lands they have inherited, for a clearer insight into the laws which have shaped the course of human evolution must bring us to see that the process which has gradually developed the energy, enterprise, and social efficiency of the race northward, and which has left less richly endowed in this respect the peoples inhabiting the regions where the conditions of life are easiest, is no passing accident or the result of circumstances changeable at will, but part of the cosmic order of things which we have no power to alter.

"It would seem that the solution which must develop itself under pressure of circumstances in the future is that the European races will gradually come to realize that the Tropics must be administered from the temperate regions. There is no insurmountable difficulty in the task. Even now all that is required to insure its success is a clearly defined conception of moral necessity. This, it would seem, must come under the conditions referred to, when the energetic races of the world, having completed the colonization of the temperate regions, are met with the spectacle of the resources of the richest regions of the earth still running largely to waste under inefficient management. \* \* \*

#### THE TROPICS MUST BE UTILIZED BY THE CIVILIZED WORLD.

"It is to be expected that as time goes on such object lessons as those of India and Egypt will not be without their effect on the minds of the European races. It will probably come to be recognized that experiments in developing the resources of regions unsuitable for European colonization, such as that now in progress in India, differ essentially both in character and spirit from all past attempts. It will probably be made clear, and that at no distant date, that the last thing our civilization is likely to permanently tolerate is the wasting of the resources of the richest regions of the earth through the lack of the elementary qualities of social efficiency in the races possessing them. The right of those races to remain in possession will be recognized, but it will be no part of the future conditions of such recognition that they shall be allowed to prevent the utilization of the immense natural resources which they have in charge. \* \* \*

#### ONLY ONE TEST OF SUPERIORITY OF RACES OR MEN.

"Neither in respect alone of color, nor of descent, nor even of the possession of high intellectual capacity, can science give us any warrant for speaking of one race as superior to another. The evolution which man is undergoing is, over and above everything else, a social evolution. There is therefore but one absolute test of superiority. It is only the race possessing in the highest degree the qualities contributing to social efficiency that can be recognized as having any claim to superiority.

"But these qualities are not, as a rule, of the brilliant order, nor such as strike the imagination. Occupying a high place among them are such characteristics as strength and energy of character, humanity, probity and integrity, and simple-minded devotion to conceptions of duty in such circumstances as may arise. Those who incline to attribute the very wide influence which the English-speaking peoples have come to exercise in the world to the Machiavelian schemes of their rulers are often very wide of the truth. This influence is to a



large extent due to qualities not at all of a showy character. It is, for instance, a fact of more than superficial significance, and one worth remembering, that in the South American Republics, where the British peoples move among a mixed crowd of many nationalities, the quality which has come to be accepted as distinctive of them is simply "the word of an Englishman." In like manner it is qualities such as humanity, strength, and uprightness of character and devotion to the immediate calls of duty without thought of brilliant ends and ideal results which have largely contributed to render British rule in India successful when similar experiments elsewhere have been disastrous. It is to the exercise of qualities of this class that we must also chiefly attribute the success which has so far attended the political experiment of extraordinary difficulty which England has undertaken in Egypt. And it is upon just the same qualities, and not upon any ideal schemes for solving the social problem, that we must depend to carry us safely through the social revolution which will be upon us in the twentieth century, and which will put to the most severe test which it has had yet to endure the social efficiency of the various sections of the Western peoples."

### THE CROWN COLONY SYSTEM.

#### DISCUSSION OF ITS PRINCIPLES BY A PROMINENT PARTICIPANT IN ITS CREATION—EARL GREY'S FAMOUS LETTER TO LORD JOHN RUSSELL IN DEFENSE OF THE CROWN COLONY SYSTEM.

The "Crown colony" system, by which the home government or "Crown" names the administrative officers and at least a part of the law-making body in the colony, is applied in a more or less modified form to the government of 485,000,000 out of the total 500,000,000 people governed under the general title of colonies, dependencies, or protectorates. In the latter the governing and law-making powers are entirely named by or within the direction of the home government; but in general terms it may safely be said that the English crown colony system is approved and accepted in its general principles and methods by nearly all colonizing governments other than the English, and is thus the general basis of the government of a very large proportion of the 500,000,000 people living under a colonial form of government.

It seems not improper, therefore, in closing this discussion of the general plans by which government of colonies is administered by the home government and in the colony, to present in detail the reasons which led to the final adoption of this system by the British Government. These are presented with great care and detail by Earl Grey, who was secretary of state for the colonial department during Lord John Russell's administration, under which the system was largely formulated. This discussion, although written in 1853, is still considered by English authorities on colonial matters as a standard presentation of the principles upon which the present colonial system of England is founded. The following is from the opening chapter of that remarkable work, which consists of a series of letters by Earl Grey, addressed to Lord John Russell:

#### EARL GREY TO LORD JOHN RUSSELL.

I consider that the British Colonial Empire ought to be maintained, principally because I do not consider that the nation would be justified in throwing off the responsibility it has incurred by the acquisition of this dominion, and because I believe that much of the power and influence of this country depends upon its having large colonial possessions in different parts of the world.

#### COLONIES AS ALLIES OF THE NATION.

The possession of a number of steady and faithful allies in various quarters of the globe will surely be admitted to add greatly to the strength of any nation, while no alliance between independent States can be so close and intimate as the connection which unites the colonies to the United Kingdom as parts of the great British Empire. Nor ought it to be forgotten that the power of a nation does not depend merely on the amount of physical force it can command, but rests, in no small degree, upon opinion and moral influence. In this respect British power would be diminished by the loss of our colonies to a degree which it would be difficult to estimate. Hence, if it is an advantage, not for the sake of domineering over other countries but with a view to our own security, to form part of a powerful nation rather than of a weak one (and, considering the many examples we have seen of the injustice to which weak ones are compelled to submit, this can hardly admit of a question), it seems to follow that the tie which binds together all the different and distant portions of the British Empire, so that their united strength may be wielded for their common protection, must be regarded as an object of extreme importance to the interests of the mother country and her dependencies. To the latter it is no doubt of far greater importance than to the former, because, while still forming comparatively small and weak communities, they enjoy, in return for their allegiance to the British Crown, all the security and consideration which belong to them as members of one of the most powerful States in the world. No foreign power ventures to attack or interfere with the smallest of them, while every colonist carries with him to the remotest quarters of the globe which he may visit in trading or other pursuits that protection which the character of a British subject everywhere confers, and can depend, in any difficulties or under any oppression to which he may be exposed, on the assistance of Her Majesty's diplomatic and consular servants, supported, if necessary, by the whole power of the Empire.

#### NATIONAL RESPONSIBILITY FORBIDS THEIR ABANDONMENT.

But I should regard it as a very unworthy mode of considering this subject if it were to be looked at with a view only to the interests of this country, as that word is usually understood. I conceive that by the acquisition of its colonial dominions the nation has incurred a responsibility of the highest kind, which it is not at liberty to throw off. The authority of the British Crown is at this moment the most powerful instrument, under Providence, of maintaining peace and order in many extensive regions of the earth, and thereby assists in diffusing amongst millions of the human race the blessings of Christianity and civilization. Supposing it were clear (which I am far from admitting) that a reduction of our national expenditure (otherwise impracticable) to the extent of a few hundred thousand a year could be effected by withdrawing our authority and protection from our numerous colonies, should we be justified, for the sake of such a saving, in taking this step, and thus abandoning the duty which seems to have been cast upon us?

It is to be remembered that if we adopted this policy we must be prepared for very serious consequences which would undoubtedly result from it. Some few only of these I will mention. No one acquainted with the actual state of society in the West India Islands, and the feelings prevalent among the different classes of their inhabitants, can doubt that, if they were left unaided by us to settle amongst themselves in whose hands power should be placed, a fearful war of color would probably soon break out, by which the germs of improvement now existing there would be destroyed, and civilization would be thrown back for centuries. In Ceylon a similar result would follow. Its native races are utterly incapable of governing themselves, and yet they certainly would not submit to be ruled by the mere handful of Europeans who have settled among them, if this small body were unsupported by British power. The great wealth which within the last few years has been created in this island would be destroyed, and the most hopeless anarchy would take place of

that security which now exists, and under the shelter of which such promising signs of improvement are beginning to appear. Even in New Zealand, although I have little doubt that the colonists of European descent would be found capable of establishing a government under which they might eventually rise to prosperity, yet we could scarcely hope to see this effected without a series of contests with the native inhabitants, in which the latter would in the end be destroyed, but not until they had inflicted and suffered an almost equal amount of misery. On the west coast of Africa there is at this moment a far more encouraging prospect than at any previous time. The efforts which have been so long made to improve the negro race seem to be at length beginning to produce important results, and a great change for the better may be looked for. But if we take up a new policy, and abandon our positions on the African coast, the slave trade will again revive in the extensive territory within reach of our settlements, where it has now been extirpated and has given place to a legitimate commerce which is daily becoming more important.

#### THE FINANCIAL AND COMMERCIAL VIEW.

To say nothing of the higher motives, and of the duty which I conceive to be no less obligatory upon nations than upon individuals, of using the power and the advantages intrusted to them by Providence to advance the welfare of mankind, I would ask whether, even in mere money, there would not be something to set off against the saving of expense from the abandonment of our colonies? On the other side of the account we have to put the destruction of British property which would thus be occasioned, and the annihilation of lucrative branches of our commerce, by allowing anarchy and bloodshed to arrest the peaceful industry which now creates the means of paying for the British goods consumed daily in larger quantities by the numerous and various populations now emerging from barbarism under our protection.

It is true there are several of our colonies to which the last observations do not directly apply, but the policy of abandoning a part of our colonial empire could scarcely be adopted without giving so great a shock to the feeling of confidence and security in the remainder as greatly to increase the difficulty of maintaining it; and I must add that it appears to me very doubtful whether even the colonies most capable of governing themselves, and which have no uncivilized tribes to deal with from whom any danger could be apprehended, would not for some time have much difficulty in maintaining their present state of tranquillity and security, both externally and internally, if their connection with the mother country were suddenly dissolved.

#### MINIMUM CONTROL BY THE HOME GOVERNMENT RECOMMENDED.

If the reasons which I have just stated for maintaining the connection between this country and the British colonies are admitted to be sound, it will follow as a necessary inference that two very plain rules as to the terms on which that connection should be continued may be laid down. In the first place, I think it will clearly follow that this country has no interest whatever in exercising any greater influence in the internal affairs of the colonies than is indispensable either for the purpose of preventing any one colony from adopting measures injurious to another or to the Empire at large, or else for the promotion of the internal good government of the colonies by assisting the inhabitants to govern themselves when sufficiently civilized to do so with advantage, and by providing a just and impartial administration for those of which the population is too ignorant and unenlightened to manage its own affairs. While it was our policy to maintain a monopoly of the trade of the colonies, it was necessary for the home Government to exercise a considerable control over their internal administration, because otherwise this monopoly would certainly have been evaded, and accordingly it will be found on looking back at the earlier history of our colonies (especially those which now constitute the United States), that the interference of the servants of the Crown in their internal affairs and the differences which that interference occasioned arose almost entirely from the endeavor to uphold the commercial system then in force. The abandonment of that system has removed the necessity for this interference. Secondly, I think it will follow that when this country no longer attempts either to levy a commercial tribute from the colonies by a system of restriction, nor to interfere needlessly in their internal affairs, it has a right to expect that they should take upon themselves a larger proportion than heretofore of the expenses incurred for their advantage.

#### "GOVERNMENT FROM DOWNING STREET."

I would observe with regard to the vague declamation on the absurdity of attempting to govern the colonies from Downing street, of which we have heard so much, that it would undoubtedly be in the highest degree absurd to attempt to govern from Downing street, if this is to be understood in the sense of directing from thence all the measures of the local authorities; but I am not aware that such an attempt has at any period of our history been thought of. On the other hand, it is obvious that if the colonies are not to become independent states, some kind of authority must be exercised by the Government at home. It will conduce to a clearer understanding of the subject to consider by what means any control over its dependencies is now practically maintained by the mother country, and to what extent that control ought to be carried.

#### HOW AUTHORITY OF THE HOME GOVERNMENT IS EXERCISED.

The authority of the home Government over the colonies is exercised mainly in two ways; first, by the appointment of governors, and, secondly, by sanctioning or disallowing the measures of the local governments, of which these officers are at the head. It is also exercised sometimes, but much more rarely, by prescribing measures for their adoption. With regard to the selection of governors, though I am aware that a contrary opinion has sometimes been expressed, it appears to me clear that if we are to have colonies at all, the appointment of their governors must necessarily be retained by the Crown, since I do not perceive by what other means any real authority or control could be exercised over the executive government of the colonies by the advisers of the Crown. But though the governors of colonies ought, in my opinion, always to be named by the Crown (and, looking to the consequences of Presidential elections in the United States, I believe that the advantage to the colonies of having persons entirely unconnected with local parties thus appointed to these situations can not easily be overrated), the nature and extent of the powers intrusted to the governors, and consequently the character of the colonial governments, must differ widely in different cases. In the settlements on the west coast of Africa the governors substantially exercise both executive and legislative authority, limited only by an appeal to the home Government. In Canada a representative assembly has not only the chief power of legislation, but also virtually a large share of executive authority, since the members of the executive council are required to possess its confidence. Between these two extremes there are many intermediate degrees of more or less power being exercised by the governors of different colonies.

#### DEGREE OF CONTROL.

The degree of control to be exercised over the local authorities by the secretary of state, as the organ of the home Government, ought obviously to depend very much on the greater or less amount of power with which the governors of different colonies are invested. In a colony like Canada, where representative institutions have attained their full development, and the governor is aided in his administrative duties by ministers who are required to possess the confidence of the legislature, exceedingly little interference on the part of the Government at home seems to be required. In colonies where this system of government is in successful operation, the home Government should, in my opinion, attempt little (except in those rare cases where imperial interests or the honor of the Crown are affected by local measures or proceedings), beyond advising the colonial authorities and checking, so as to give an opportunity for further reflection any ill-considered and hasty measures they may be inclined to adopt. Practically I believe that the influence which can thus be exercised through a judicious governor is very considerable, and may be of great service to the colonies. In the strife of parties which prevail in all free governments, the existence of an impartial authority serves to check the too great violence with which political con-

tests are sometimes carried on, and the experience and position of a minister of the Crown in this country enable him frequently to offer useful advice to the colonial legislatures. There are other colonies in which representative institutions exist, but in a form suited to a less advanced stage of society, and where the governor consequently is called upon to exercise considerably more power than under the system to which I have just adverted; and there are other colonies, again, in which no such institutions yet exist.

#### GOVERNING THE GOVERNORS.

In proportion as governors are more independent of any local control, it becomes necessary that some should be exercised over them from home; and in those colonies where they are unchecked by any kind of representative institutions, it is the duty of the secretary of state to maintain a vigilant superintendence over their proceedings. Although he ought, as I conceive, to abstain from any meddling interference in the details of their administration, and to support their authority so long as they appear to deserve his confidence, and rather to advise their recall when they cease to do so than to fetter their discretion by detailed instructions, he is yet bound to attend to complaints which may be made against their measures, and to prescribe for their guidance the general line of policy to be pursued.

#### LEGISLATIVE CONTROL.

These rules, as to the degree of interference to be exercised by the secretary of state, are equally applicable to the legislative and executive measures of the local authorities in the colonies; but while I am of opinion that the authority of the Crown, of which the secretary of state is the depositary, should be used in all cases with great caution, and in colonies possessing representative institutions with extreme forbearance, I can not concur with those who would prohibit all interference on the part of the home Government in the internal affairs of the colonies. It seems to have been overlooked, by those who insist that such interference must always be improper and who would adopt without any qualification the rule that the colonies should be left to govern themselves, that this would in some cases imply leaving a dominant party, perhaps even a dominant minority, to govern the rest of the community without check or control.

#### DUTY TO THE COLONY.

To permit the government of a distant colony to be so carried on, notwithstanding the oppression or corruption which might be known to exist, would in general be for the ease and advantage of the ministers of the day, but would not be consistent with any but a very low view of the duties belonging to the responsible advisers of the Sovereign of this great Empire. In point of fact, it has not unfrequently happened that the absence of difficulty in some parts of our colonial administration has arisen, not from its merits, but from its faults. For instance, so long as the home Government took no thought of the condition of the Negro population of the West Indies, it met with no opposition from the assemblies of Jamaica and the other West Indian colonies; but when, urged on by public opinion in this country and by the House of Commons, the Government undertook to give effect first to the resolutions of 1823 for the amelioration of the condition of the slaves and ultimately to the act of emancipation, it found itself placed in a position of antagonism to the dominant class in these colonies, the difficulties arising from which are not yet by any means at an end. Yet it was clearly the duty of the Imperial Government not to leave the population of these colonies to the unrestricted disposal of the local governments, and in this respect at least the discontent engendered by the interference of the home Government was the discontent of the dominant few (who can alone make themselves heard in this country) at interference exercised for the protection of the helpless and ignorant many. Even now, in the former slave colonies which possess representative institutions, the body of the population does not practically exercise such an influence in the assemblies as to exempt the advisers of the Crown from the duty of keeping a watchful eye upon the proceedings of the legislatures for the purpose of checking any attempts which might be made to pass laws bearing unfairly on the laboring classes.

#### DUTY TO THE HOME GOVERNMENT.

But even where the interference of the home Government is not necessary for the protection of a part of the population too ignorant or too weak to protect itself, there is another consideration which may require the exercise of some control over the proceedings of the local governments with regard to the internal affairs of the colonies. Every act of these governments, whether legislative or executive, is done in the name and by the authority of the Sovereign; hence the honor of the Crown, which it is of the highest importance to the whole Empire to maintain unimpaired, must be compromised by any injustice or violation of good faith which it has the power to prevent being committed by the local authorities. It is therefore the duty of those by whom the Imperial Government is conducted and to whom, as the responsible servants of the Crown, its honor is intrusted to take care that this honor does not suffer by the Sovereign's being made a party to proceedings involving a departure from the most scrupulous justice and good faith toward individuals or toward particular classes of the inhabitants of any of our colonies.

#### NONINTERFERENCE IN LOCAL AFFAIRS.

In the colonies which are the most advanced in civilization and in the exercise of the powers of self-government it is not superfluous to insist on this consideration. On the contrary, it is in colonies having popular forms of government that there is perhaps most danger that in the excitement of party contests, to which such governments are peculiarly liable, measures not consistent with strict justice may sometimes be attempted and may require to be checked by the authority of the Crown intrusted to the secretary of state. Any interference on the part of that minister with measures of purely internal administration in the colonies to which I am now adverting is to be deprecated, except in very special circumstances, the occurrence of which must be exceedingly rare; but I am convinced that it may sometimes be called for, and that it is therefore expedient to trust, for averting the evils and the dangers which must arise from an improper interference by the home Government with the local administration, rather to the discretion with which the powers now vested in the Crown are exercised than to a limitation of these powers by new legal restrictions. In particular I should regard it as in the highest degree inadvisable to adopt the proposal that has been made to take away, so far as regards certain classes of laws, the general power which the Crown now possesses of disallowing all acts or ordinances passed by the colonial legislatures.

I have little doubt that the propriety of regulating the amount of control to be exercised by the secretary of state over the measures of the local authorities by the greater or less infusion of popular power in the constitutions of the several colonies will be generally recognized. It remains to be considered what steps ought to be taken for the establishment of representative institutions where they do not now exist, or for improving them where they exist only in an imperfect form. On this head, also, I think there can be little difficulty in determining the principles which ought to be acted upon, although there will be a good deal more in their practical application.

#### REPRESENTATIVE INSTITUTIONS WHEREVER PRACTICABLE.

Keeping steadily in view that the welfare and civilization of the inhabitants of the colonies and the advantage which the Empire at large may derive from their prosperity are the only objects for which the retention of these dependencies is desirable, and believing also that there can be no doubt as to the superiority of free governments to those of an opposite character, as instruments for promoting the advancement of communities in which they can be made to work with success, I consider it to be the obvious duty and interest of this country to extend representative institutions to every one of its dependencies where they have not yet been established, and where this can be done with safety; and also to take every opportunity of giving increased development to such institutions where they already

exist, but in an imperfect form. But I believe that in some cases representative governments could not safely be created, and also that the same form of representative institutions is by no means applicable to colonies in different stages of social progress. The principal bar to the establishment of representative governments in colonies is their being inhabited by a population of which a large proportion is not of European race, and has not made such progress in civilization as to be capable of exercising with advantage the privileges of self-government.

Of such colonies Ceylon affords the best example. The great majority of its inhabitants are Asiatics, very low in the scale of civilization, and having the character and habits of mind which have from the earliest times prevented popular governments from taking root and flourishing among the nations of the East. Amidst a large population of this description there are settled, for the most part as temporary residents engaged in commerce or agriculture, a mere handful of Europeans and a larger number (but still very few in comparison with the whole population) of inhabitants of a mixed race. In such a colony the establishment of representative institutions would be in the highest degree inexpedient. If they were established in such a form as to confer power upon the great body of the people, it must be obvious that the experiment would be attended with great danger, or rather with the certainty of failure. If, on the other hand, the system of representation were so contrived as to exclude the bulk of the native population from real power, in order to vest it in the hands of the European minority, an exceedingly narrow oligarchy would be created, a form of government which experience certainly does not show to be favorable to the welfare of the governed. Were a representative assembly constituted in Ceylon, which should possess the powers usually intrusted to such a body, and in which the European merchants and planters and their agents had the ascendancy, it can hardly be supposed that narrow views of class interests would not exercise greater influence in the legislation of the colony than a comprehensive consideration of the general good. To anticipate that this would be the effect of placing a large measure of power in the hands of a small minority implies no unfavorable opinion of the character and intelligence of the European inhabitants of Ceylon, but only a belief that they would act as men placed in such a situation have generally been found to do.

In Mauritius, Trinidad, Santa Lucia, and Natal a somewhat similar state of things exist; for although the preponderance of the uncivilized races in these colonies is far less overwhelming than in Ceylon, still, taking into account the immigrants from India and Africa (whose welfare is entitled to especial consideration), the inhabitants of European origin are but a fraction of the whole population. Hence it appears to me that the surrender of a large portion of the powers now exercised by the servants of the Crown, and the establishment of representative legislatures, would not be calculated to insure the administration of the government upon principles of justice and of an enlightened regard for the welfare of all classes in these communities. This end may, I believe, be far better attained by maintaining for the present in these colonies the existing system of government, of which it would be a great mistake to suppose that, because the inhabitants are not entitled to elect any of the members of the legislatures, it provides no securities against abuse.

#### THE RIGHTS OF CITIZENS IN THE COLONIES HAVE MANY SAFEGUARDS.

Other influences are brought to bear upon the government of these colonies, which answer many of the objects of a legislature of a representative character. In the first place, in all of them, the press is perfectly free. The newspapers comment upon all the measures of the Government, not only with entire liberty, but with the most unbounded license and the force both of local opinion, and also, to a considerable degree, of opinion in this country, is thus brought to bear upon all the measures of the administration. Every inhabitant of the colonies is also entitled freely to address to the secretary of state any complaints or remarks he may think proper on the measures of the local authorities, subject only to the rule that such letters shall be transmitted through the hands of the governor (who is bound to forward them), in order that he may at the same time send such explanations on the subject as appear to him to be called for. This privilege is largely exercised, and is the means of supplying much useful information. It is hence impossible that the secretary of state can be kept in ignorance of any errors or abuses committed by the local authorities, while if he fails to interfere when he ought, he can not himself escape the censure of Parliament. The greatly increased facilities of intercourse with the colonies have of late years effected a great practical alteration in the position of colonial governors; and, whatever may have been the case formerly it undoubtedly can not be alleged that Parliament is now indifferent to what goes on in the colonies, or that faults, real or imaginary, which may be committed in the administration of their affairs can hope to escape the ever-ready criticism of an opposition eager to find matter for objection to the government of the day. Perhaps some persons may think that this disposition has been carried too far for the real interest of the colonies.

In these colonies there exist also legislative councils consisting partly of persons filling the chief offices of the government, partly of some of the principal inhabitants, who, though named to their seats in the legislature by the authority of the Crown, and not by popular election, are yet in the habit of acting with great freedom, and practically express to a considerable extent the opinion of the class to which they belong. It was my object, while I held the seals of the colonial department, without relinquishing the power possessed by the Crown, gradually to bring these legislative bodies more under the influence of the opinion of the intelligent and educated inhabitants of these colonies. With this view, in one or two cases, the proportion of unofficial to official members was augmented, and the practice was everywhere introduced of requiring the whole expenditure to be provided for by ordinances discussed and passed by the legislative council; these ordinances being founded on estimates prepared and submitted to the legislature by the governor, and published for general information. In general the fixed establishment of the colonial governments is provided for by permanent laws, and that part of the expenditure which is of a more fluctuating character by ordinances passed annually, every charge on the colonial revenue being required to have, in one form or the other, the sanction of the legislature. This regulation was adopted, under my instructions, in all the colonies to which I am now referring, in place of the very lax and irregular practice previously prevailing in some of them, by which the only authority for a large proportion of their expenditure consisted of instructions given by the secretary of state, with the concurrence of the treasury. The publicity given to the estimates and accounts of the colonial expenditure, and the rule that, except in cases of great emergency, the drafts of all proposed ordinances should be published before being passed, have enabled the colonists to bring under the consideration of the governors and the legislative councils, and ultimately to the secretary of state, any objections they have entertained to proposed ordinances or financial arrangements. Every encouragement has been given to them to make known their opinions freely, both to the local and home governments; and the most careful consideration has been given to their views, especially when these have been stated by chambers of commerce or municipal bodies, the advice and assistance of which in the administration of colonial affairs are, in my judgment, of the highest value.

These are as effective securities as in the present state of these colonies I believe to be attainable for insuring their good government; but I conceive that gradually to prepare them for a more popular system of government ought to be one of the principal objects of the policy adopted toward them, and it is one of which I never lost sight. It was more particularly with this view that I endeavored, whenever practicable, to create a system of municipal organization, entertaining a strong conviction that the exercise of the powers usually intrusted to municipal bodies is the best training that a population can have for the right use of a larger measure of political power.

#### APPOINTMENTS IN THE COLONIES.

These observations on the general principles which ought to govern our colonial administration would be incomplete without adding some remarks upon the important subject of patronage. It is commonly believed that one of the principal objects for which the colonies are retained is the patronage which they are supposed to afford. It is impossible to conceive a greater delusion. It is now many years since the colonies have afforded to the home Government any patronage which can be of value to it as a means of influence in domestic politics. Since Parliament has ceased to provide, except in a very few special cases, for any part of the expense of the civil government of the colonies the colonists have naturally expected that offices paid for by themselves should be filled up by the selection of persons from their own body when this can be done without inconvenience. Accordingly offices in the colonies have for a considerable time been for the most part practically disposed of by the governors. It is true that these offices, when their value exceeds £200 a year, are in general nominally at the disposal of the secretary of state, and when vacancies occur can only be filled up by the

governors, subject to the confirmation of the Crown signified by that minister. But in the great majority of cases the recommendation of the governors is accepted as a matter of course; the patronage, therefore, is in effect exercised by them, and offices are filled up by the appointment of colonists.

This practice prevails more or less completely in different colonies, according to circumstances. In the North American colonies appointments may be said to have been for a long time given exclusively to residents, and in the other colonies having temperate climates and a European population they have been chiefly so, perhaps with fewer exceptions, than would have been for the real advantage of the colonies themselves. I say with fewer exceptions than would have been for the real advantage of the colonies themselves, because until they reach an advanced stage in their progress I believe that the appointment to some of the principal offices in the colonies of persons not selected from the narrow circle of their own inhabitants and imbued with the peculiar feelings and opinions which are apt to prevail in such communities, but chosen from among the well-educated gentlemen of the mother country, is calculated greatly to improve the tone of colonial society and to prevent it from gradually degenerating from the standard of manners and acquirements to which we are accustomed at home. It is also an advantage in small societies, as tending to mitigate the bitterness of that party spirit which is so often their bane, that some of the offices of most importance should be filled up by persons from a distance, not connected with any of the small knots and cliques into which such societies usually become divided; while the interchange of appointments between different colonies not only answers this object, but tends also to keep up among them a feeling of connection with each other and with the Empire of which all form a part. These remarks apply more especially to judicial appointments, which I believe it would be wise, as a general rule, to fill up from the bar of the mother country, or of other colonies, until the colonies have made a considerable advance in wealth and population.

For these reasons it seems to me in the highest degree inexpedient that a transfer of patronage from the Crown to any colonial authorities should be formally made. The existing arrangement enables the secretary of state occasionally to depart from the restricted field of selection for important offices afforded by the society of the particular colony, though practically this can be done very rarely; while the necessity imposed upon the governor of reporting the reasons for his recommendations to vacant offices, and obtaining the confirmation of the secretary of state for the provisional appointment he may make, affords no unimportant check on any abuse of the patronage thus exercised, especially as those candidates for employment whose claims have not been admitted by the governor have the right of bringing their case, by letters sent through his hands, under the consideration of the secretary of state.

In the tropical climates, where the number of residents of European race is comparatively small and the colonial society affords a still narrower field of selection, appointments are rather more frequently made from home, but even in these colonies the more important and lucrative situations are usually filled by the promotion of those who have held inferior appointments; and it is desirable for the encouragement of the civil servants of the Government that this course should in general be followed, though no positive or invariable rule can be laid down, and it is sometimes of great advantage to depart from the usual practice. The above observations apply to all appointments under the rank of lieutenant-governor, or president, administering the government of a colony, and the effect of the practice I have described, which has been followed for some years by successive secretaries of state, has been to reduce the number of appointments really at the disposal of this minister within limits so narrow as to render the patronage an object of no importance as a means of obtaining political support for an administration.

Governors and lieutenant-governors, it is true, are invariably appointed by the Crown, on the advice of the secretary of state, but this patronage can only be looked upon as a source of difficulty and anxiety. The welfare of every colony and the alternative of success or failure in administering its affairs are so mainly dependent upon the choice of a governor that I can hardly believe that any secretary of state, even if he were insensible to all higher motives than a regard for his own interest and reputation, would willingly be guided in his selection by any consideration except that of the qualifications of the individual preferred. At the same time the advantages of these appointments are not such as to lead to their being often accepted by persons who have much distinguished themselves by the ability they have shown; so that the services of men who have filled other important offices, and who would therefore be preferred for such situations, can not be commanded. Hence the choice generally lies among persons of less tried fitness.

## QUESTION II.

### WHAT SHARE OF THE ADMINISTRATION WITHIN THE COLONY IS CONDUCTED BY REPRESENTATIVES OF THE HOME GOVERNMENT, AND WHAT SHARE IS INTRUSTED TO THE NATIVES IN CONJUNCTION WITH REPRESENTATIVES OF THE HOME GOVERNMENT?

The fact that the native population in the tropical colonies of the world is many hundred times as great as that representing the home government either by birth or direct descent illustrates the importance of this question. To answer it there must be taken into account not merely the number of each class now actually employed in the various successful or unsuccessful colonies of the world, but the duties assigned to each, or at least to each class. This question of the division of labor and official duty between the natives and representatives of the home government becomes more important year by year as the control of the great nations of the temperate zone is extended more and more over tropical territory, where methods of government have not made the advance which characterizes those of the temperate zone. The indisposition of the native of the temperate-zone countries to locate permanently in or colonize, in the proper sense of the term, the tropical territory brought under control of his government adds to the necessity of relying to a great extent upon native cooperation in the details of administration and enforcement of law. At the same time the ever-increasing facilities for communication by wire and by mail, and for transportation of military forces in case of necessity, renders it practicable to administer government in territory of this character through a smaller number of representatives of the home government as these facilities for quick communication multiply.

This question, like all other questions pertaining to the management of colonies, can probably be best answered by a study of the methods adopted by the countries which have had long experience in colonization, and which may properly be supposed to have adopted their present methods as those best suited, not alone to their convenience as a nation, but to the welfare of the people whom they are thus governing.

#### SMALL EUROPEAN POPULATION IN TROPICAL COLONIES.

In the self-governing colonies it goes without saying that practically all officers are either natives of or descended from natives of the governing country. In all newly acquired territory it is also apparent that government must be temporarily conducted through the military or through officers with semimilitary power, who receive their instructions from the home Government and are supplied with a sufficient force to execute these laws and regulations. It is especially with reference to the tropical territory which has been a sufficient length of time under the temperate-zone governments to enable them to settle upon and adopt a permanent form of administration and determine the share of the administration which shall be allotted to the natives that this inquiry is made. Here again the experiences of England, Netherlands, and France in the East and West Indies, respectively, afford the most important and valuable lessons.

#### IN THE BRITISH COLONIES.

In India, according to Sir George Chesney, "there are now altogether only about 750 British officials (excluding English officers in the police), including military men in civil employment and a few others engaged in civil administration, or about one to every quarter of a million people. Besides these the higher judicial and executive service comprises about 2,600 officials, of whom, according to the latest returns, only 35 are Englishmen not domiciled in India. Four-fifths of these are Hindoos; the remainder are Mohammedans. Under this class comes the subordinate civil service of India, including about 110,000 persons, with salaries of about 100 rupees and upward, of whom 97 per cent are natives of India."

The International Geography, edited by H. R. Mill, New York, 1900, has the following: "Taking into account the 75,000 British troops and all the professional and mercantile population of that race, the proportion is 1 Briton to 3,000 Indians. In the service of the state, irrespective of the 800 British officials occupying the more responsible posts, and the whole of the subordinate staff, which is Indian, no less than 97 per cent are natives of the country." The Statesman's Year-Book of 1901 says that "nearly all the civil judges and a great majority of the magistrates of original jurisdiction are natives of India, while in Bengal, Madras, and Bombay the proportion of natives sitting in the appellate courts is considerable;" and adds that "the Indian army now consists of 74,000 European and 140,000 native soldiers." In Ceylon the total number of English is but about 6,000 and the population 3,000,000. In the Malayan Peninsula the proportion of English to natives is about the same.

In the Dutch East Indies, where 35,000,000 natives are governed, the total number of male "Europeans and persons assimilated to them" was in 1896, according to the Statesman's Year-Book, but 35,000, and as a large share of these are engaged in mercantile and financial pursuits or the management of plantations, it is apparent that the number of officials who are natives of the governing country must be relatively small, and that a very large share of the details of government of these 35,000,000 people must necessarily be in the hands of natives.

In the West Indian colonies, also, a comparatively small proportion of the officials are natives of the governing country. In Jamaica, for instance, according to the Colonial Office List, only 2 per cent of the inhabitants are white; the remainder are chiefly of African descent, four-fifths being pure Negroes. In British Guiana, out of a total population of 180,000, less than 5,000 were Europeans other than Portuguese, including all occupations and representatives of the various European countries. In British Honduras, out of a total population of over 31,000, about 500 are of European descent.



## IN THE FRENCH COLONIES.

The French distribute their own officials more liberally in the colonies in proportion to the population than do the English or Dutch, and this is commented upon by some students of and writers upon colonial subjects as disadvantageous rather than otherwise. Mr. Poultney Bigelow, in his *Children of the Nations*, 1901, calls attention to the fact that in French Guiana the official head was changed on an average more frequently than once in two years during the forty-six years from 1817 to 1863, and that in a population numbering only 20,000 altogether there were 1,000 government officials, and this not counting soldiers or sailors. "The Frenchman," he says, "is a brave soldier and his fellow-citizens have a penchant for detailed administration. They conquer and they govern, but they do not colonize. When they govern they govern too much. They are suspicious of native initiative and distrustful of colonial self-government."

Prof. Henry E. Bourne, writing in the *Yale Review* of May, 1899, on French methods in Indo-China and French colonial methods in general, says that the administration of justice is too often intrusted to Frenchmen unacquainted with the language, customs, and local traditions of the colony or community in which they are located, and that appointments are too frequently made through favoritism. Added to these defects, he says, "was the equally great evil of the multiplication of places. Ten years ago the officeholders formed a large part of the whole French population of Cochin China. The under-secretary in charge of the colonies declared in 1891 that the total appropriation for public works, 80,000 francs, was in that year spent in salaries. As the colonial council for Cochin China was elected by officeholders and contractors—that is, practically all the Frenchmen in the colony—it voted high salaries and fat contracts. The Annamites in Cochin China are regarded as subjects, not as citizens. Their function is to pay taxes and to obey French officers. They enjoy no political rights, unless the management of their communities may be so regarded. The deputy who sits in the Chamber for Cochin China does not represent them. He represents merely the 4,000 Frenchmen in a total population of over 2,000,000. \* \* \* As in the last days of the Roman Empire the Germans brought into southern Europe their law as a personal possession and privilege, and still allowed the Romans to be judged according to their own laws, so the Frenchman has carried into Indo-China his codes and liberties, his right to local self-government and to representation in the French Chamber of Deputies without thereby disturbing the social organization, customs, and laws of the Annamites. Probably the little French communities and the larger native communities will long exist side by side almost distinct social entities."

M. de Lanessan, the present French minister of marine, and formerly governor-general of French Indo-China, in his work, *Principes de Colonisation*, says on this subject: "Generally speaking, it may be said that in the French colonial possessions very little regard has been shown for the interests of the native people. Imbued with the spirit of the Roman jurisprudence, which lies at the base of all the institutions of the mother country, we have shown no greater regard than that of transferring to our colonial possessions the whole administrative and judiciary machinery of the mother country, without asking ourselves whether the natives for whose benefit we professed to work would not find in this machinery simple tools of oppression and exploitation. Not to mention the old colonies, such as Guadeloupe, Martinique, and Reunion, where a new race formed by a mixture of the black and white required political administration and judicial institutions better adapted than ours to their special conditions, we have introduced in colonies such as Cochin China and Senegal, where the native population is more numerous and altogether distinct from the European races by customs, religion, etc., an organism which seems to have been constructed in such a way as to crush the native. What else are the colonial councils of Senegal and Cochin China, with the preponderance in them of European members and their considerable power as regards the assessment of fiscal charges and expenditures, but organs of exploitation of the natives?"

## OBJECT LESSONS IN THE EAST INDIES.

Five colonies in the East Indian group and three in the West Indies seem especially valuable "object lessons" in the details of colonial management in the Tropics. These are India, Ceylon, Malayan Peninsula, Java, and French Indo-China in the East Indies, and Jamaica, Barbados, and Trinidad in the West Indies. It seems not improper, therefore, to present detailed statements of the methods of administering the government in each of these and the share intrusted to the natives. For this purpose statements made by distinguished writers and students, chiefly men of practical experience in these colonies, have been selected.

Sir W. W. Hunter, a gentleman of lifetime experience in regard to the government of India as an officer of the British Government, and the compiler of an extremely valuable series of volumes on India, is an author accepted the world over; while Gen. Sir George Chesney's long experience in India and the high qualities of his work, *Indian Polity*, give him equally high rank as an author on methods of government in India. Sir John Strachey has also had long experience in India, and his volume, *India*, is highly commended by students of this subject. The works of these three distinguished students of India have been relied upon for a definite and detailed statement of the government of India and the share of the natives therein.

Regarding the government of Java, and the respective share of Europeans and natives therein, the supply of literature is abundant and excellent in quality. The spectacle of a handful of Europeans governing 35,000,000 people in a small and densely populated island with such remarkable success, financial and otherwise, has attracted students of this subject from all parts of the world. English, French, German, Dutch, and American writers have in turn visited, studied, and written upon the methods of government in Java. In some cases additional value has been given to these studies by the fact that the men who engaged in them had previously had long experience in India as officers of the British Government, and were thus enabled not only to study with great care the Dutch methods in Java, but to contrast them with those of the English Government in India. This is especially true of the work of Mr. Henry Scott Boys, formerly of the British Government in India, from whose *Notes on Java* liberal quotations are made. To these are added extracts from the excellent studies of conditions in Java by Mr. Basil W. Worsfold, an Englishman of long experience and observation in the Orient; M. Jules LeClercq and M. Chailley-Bert, whose works on Java are the result of personal visits to and studies of the institutions and methods of that island, and Prof. Clive Day, of the American Economic Association, whose excellent studies on the labor problems, published in the *Yale Review*, and on Dutch colonial finance, published in the proceedings of the American Economic Association, have attracted great attention, and received the commendation of officers of the Dutch Government as valuable aids to studies of conditions in that island. From the excellent writings of Sylvester Baxter, also in the *Yale Review*, and those of Mr. L. B. Clarence on Ceylon, in the *British Empire Series*, additional information has been obtained regarding the Orient.

For French Indo-China the works of M. de Lanessan, already referred to, and the article by Prof. Henry E. Bourne, published in the *Yale Review*, have been chiefly relied upon.

For the Malayan Peninsula, which is looked upon as an especially important field of study by reason of the similarity of its population, climate, and conditions to those of the Philippines, a statement by Lieut. Gen. Sir Andrew Clarke, who extended the British Government over the native states in that peninsula, furnishes much detailed and valuable information, as does also a carefully prepared review published in the New York Tribune.

For details regarding the governments of the West Indian Islands, especially those which may be considered the most important examples, statements from the British Colonial Office List, the writings of Sir Charles Dilke, the excellent work of Prof. Robert Chalmer, of Oriel College, Oxford, on colonial currency, and the report of the British commission which in 1897 investigated conditions in the British West Indies have been relied upon.

## THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA AND SHARE OF THE BRITISH AND NATIVES, RESPECTIVELY, IN ITS ADMINISTRATION.

The system of government of British India and the share of the natives therein may be described as follows:

The general direction of the government is in charge of the secretary of state for India, assisted by a council of ten members, nine of whom must have resided at least ten years in India and not left India more than ten years prior to the date of their appointment. These officials are located in London and all of their work with reference to India is performed from that stand point. This council has no initiative authority, but conducts the business relative to India subject to the direction of the secretary of state for India, an important part of this duty being to act upon all grants and appropriations of the revenues of India, both in India and elsewhere, no grant being valid without their favorable action. Meetings are held at least once each week.

The supreme executive authority in India is the governor-general, or viceroy, aided by his council, which consists of five appointed members, and the commander in chief of the Indian army. The work of government is divided into seven departments—home, foreign, finance, military, public works, revenue, and agriculture—and one of these departments is assigned to each member of the council, the foreign department being under the personal direction of the governor-general. All these are Englishmen appointed by the home Government.

For legislative work the governor-general's council is enlarged by the addition of sixteen additional members, Englishmen, nominated by the governor-general. This council has power, subject to certain restrictions, to make laws for all persons within British India, and all British subjects in the native states of India.

For administrative work, India is divided into eight great provinces, with a governor, lieutenant-governor, or chief commissioner at the head of each; these officials being Englishmen of long experience in India, subject to the approval of the home Government. The governors are appointed by the home Government, the lieutenant-governors and commissioners by the governor-general of India. Only two of these officials are designated as governor—those at the head of the great provinces of Madras and Bombay. Four others are styled lieutenant-governor—those of Bengal, Punjab, Burma, and the Northwest Province. The other two, styled commissioners, are respectively at the head of the Central Province and Assam. A new province has just been created on the northwest frontier and will be under charge of an agent of the governor-general. These officers become members of the governor-general's council when it sits in the province over which they preside. Each of the governors and lieutenant-governors has a legislative council, which assists him in framing laws and regulations for the province. These councils are in part nominated by the lieutenant-governor and in part named by the municipal corporations, rural boards, and commercial bodies of the province.

Each of these eight great provinces is divided into districts, at the head of which is placed by appointment a "collector magistrate," or "deputy commissioner," an Englishman, who is the executive officer of the district and is responsible to the governor of the province for the administration of the district. He carries on the government through assistant magistrates, and a superintendent and assistant superintendent of police, also Englishmen. In some districts there is also a judge, while in others the magistrate collector also acts as judge. There are about 250 of these districts in all of British India, and they thus have an average population of about 1,000,000 people each, though no fixed unit of population is applied in determining their boundaries.

The district is thus the administrative unit of British India. The governor-general of India, the governors and lieutenant-governors of the provinces, the "collector magistrate," or "deputy commissioner," at the head of the districts, their assistants, and the superintendents of police and their assistants are Englishmen; the additional thousands who carry out their orders and attend to the details of the administration of law and the preservation of order are natives.

Next below the collector magistrate, or deputy commissioner, the head of the district, are the deputy collectors, all natives of India; the "tehsildars" who have charge of the "tehsils," or wards, into which the district is divided, and have in most cases magisterial powers, and they too are all natives. The police, except the district superintendent and his assistant, are also natives.

The system of Indian law provides a judge's court for each district, with "munsiff," or lower courts, from which appeals may be made to the judge's court of the district, and from that to the high court of India, and in certain cases to the judicial committee of the privy council in London. A large number of the judges of the courts in the districts are also natives of India.

Still below the district organizations, are the municipal governments in the cities and towns, and the local boards in the rural districts. There are 750 towns which have municipal organizations, in charge of the water supply, sanitation, roads, drains, and markets. They impose and collect taxes, expend money for local purposes, make improvements, and enact by-laws. In all rural tracts, the local boards are in charge of roads, schools, and hospitals. The members of these municipal organizations and the rural boards are natives of India, and are elected by vote of the taxpayers. The police of India, which, exclusive of the village watch, number about 150,000, are all natives, aside from the district superintendent and assistant superintendent above referred to.

Aside from this machinery of British India is that of the "native states," which contain 70,000,000, or about 24 per cent of the population of all India, and have an area of 655,000 square miles, or 42 per cent of the total area. The control of the British Government over these varies in degree and is administered through a "resident," or agent, an Englishman, who resides at the seat of government of the native state and aids or advises the native prince at the head of the government and his ministers and councils in the framing and administration of law. These princes or rulers of the native states are not permitted to maintain a military force beyond a fixed limit; to make war or peace with other states, or send ambassadors, and no European is permitted to reside at their courts without special permission of the British Government. In case of misgovernment of the state by the prince, the British Government in its treaties with them reserves the power of dethronement.



No accurate statement has been made of the total number of officials in India, or of the proportion who are natives of England and India, respectively, but some idea of the immense total of officers of all kinds and the small percentage which the English must form of that total may be obtained by an examination of the following statement from the 1891 census of India, which shows the number of persons dependent for support upon official position. The census does not attempt to state the actual number of officeholders or of persons engaged in specified occupations, but instead gives the "total population supported by" each occupation. This statement shows the total number of persons supported by the various occupations under the term "Administration" to be 5,600,153, and with the very liberal estimate of 5.6 persons for each family would give a total of 1,000,000 officials in the various groups and classes enumerated. When it is considered that the same census showed in India only 100,551 persons of all ages who were born in England, the small proportion of English officials will be apparent.

## OCCUPATION OR MEANS OF LIVELIHOOD.

	India.
Order 1. Administration .....	5, 600, 153
Suborder 1. Civil service of the State.....	2, 395, 162
1. The viceroy, governors, and other heads of administration of provinces and their families.....	30
2. Chiefs of native states and their families .....	111, 742
3. Officers of government and their families.....	42, 272
4. Clerks, inspectors, etc., and their families.....	573, 253
5. Constables, messengers, warders, etc.....	1, 447, 478
6. State service (unspecified) .....	220, 387
Suborder 2. Service of local bodies .....	118, 135
7. Local and municipal inspectors, etc.....	5, 178
8. Local and municipal clerical establishments.....	32, 689
9. Local and municipal menials, etc.....	80, 268
Suborder 3. Village service .....	3, 086, 856
10. Village headmen (not returned as agriculturists) .....	349, 559
11. Village accountants (not returned as agriculturists) .....	452, 986
12. Village watchmen and other menials (not returned as agriculturists) .....	2, 284, 311

Commenting upon the share of the native in the administration of law in British India, Gen. Sir George Chesney, K. C. B., M. P., in his work, *Indian Polity*, 1894, says:

"The civil administration of India is in fact carried on by native agency, supervised by a small body of Englishmen. During the last twenty-five years, notwithstanding the additions of territory made, the covenanted civil service has been reduced by 22 per cent, and, excluding Burma, the condition of which is for the time exceptional, there are now altogether (omitting English officers in the police) only about 750 British officials, including military men in civil employ and a few others, engaged in the civil administration, or about one to every quarter of a million people. Besides these the higher judicial and executive service comprises about 2,600 officials, of whom, according to the latest returns, only 35 were Englishmen domiciled in India. Four-fifths of these are Hindus, one-half of them being Brahmans; the remainder, save a few Sikhs, Parsis, and unspecified classes, are Mohammedans. Under this class comes the subordinate civil service, including about 110,000 persons of salaries of 100 rupees and upward, of whom 97 per cent are natives of India."

## SIR GEORGE CHESNEY ON THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

Sir George Chesney, in his "*Indian Polity*," describes the government of India as follows:

## THE LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

In Bengal thirteen of the twenty members of the legislative council are to be nominated by the lieutenant-governor, of whom not more than ten are to be officials of the government. The nomination of the remaining seven is delegated as follows: The municipal corporations of the cities and towns in the province will recommend two members; the district (rural) boards of the province will nominate two; one nomination each has been given to the Corporation of Calcutta, the Association of Merchants, and the University of Calcutta. For the purposes of the election, the municipalities and district boards are grouped in eight divisions, corresponding with the geographical charges of the official commissioners of divisions into which the province is divided, and two groups of each class, or four groups in all, will elect one member each. A seat in the council being held for two years, each group will thus get its turn once in eight years. The votes of each municipality are valued in an ascending scale according to its income, a municipality with an income of 5,000 rupees having a single vote, one with an income of 250,000 rupees and upward eight votes. The various district boards have all equally a single vote. Each municipality or district board, as the case may be, which takes part in the election of the year, sends a delegate to the appointed place of meeting within the division, where the election is carried out by ballot, repeated if necessary until some one of the nominated candidates obtains a majority of the whole number of votes. The candidates nominated must be residents in that part of the province for which the election is being held.

The procedure adopted in Madras is somewhat more simple. Here also the governor makes thirteen nominations, of which not more than nine may be of official persons; the nominations (or rather recommendations for the nomination) of the remaining seven councilors have been made over to the Corporations of Madras, Chamber of Commerce, and University of Madras, one each, while the municipal and district boards throughout the province are divided for the purpose of the election into two groups respectively, each nominating one candidate. Each municipality and district board has only a single vote, without regard to size or income.

For the council of the governor-general the nominations to four seats have been made on the recommendation of the nonofficial members of the four provincial councils; a fifth nomination has been given to the Calcutta Chamber of Commerce.

Before describing the system of district administration carried on throughout the country, in the efficiency of which the interests of the people are mainly concerned and on which the security and efficacy of the British government in India is mainly dependent, some account of the centralized departments may first be given.

## DEPARTMENTS UNDER THE SUPREME GOVERNMENT.

It has already been explained that the government of India retains the direct control of various branches of the civil administration, the business of which is distributed among the following departments:

I. Finance and commerce: Under the administration of the financial member of council, whose functions correspond with that of the English chancellor of the exchequer, the secretary of the department holding a position analogous to that of the secretary of the

treasury. The head of the executive department of finance and account is the comptroller and auditor-general, in whose office all the accounts of the country are brought together and compiled, who is responsible for the proper working of all the account departments throughout India, and is also the final authority for the disposal of all departmental or interprovincial differences of account. The comptroller-general is also the currency commissioner, and in this capacity exercises the functions which are performed for the British Government by the Bank of England.

The civil accounts of each province are dealt with by an accountant-general, with one or more deputies and assistants, who also conducts the detailed audit of all the civil expenditure. The proceedings of the accountant-generals are supervised by traveling inspectors, who report to the comptroller-general.

#### THE POSTAL SYSTEM.

The post-office, an imperial service under the finance department, is administered by a director-general. Under him come the postmaster-generals of provinces, either civil servants or departmental officers advanced for good service, who form one body for the purposes of promotion and are available for transfer from one province to another. The Indian postal rates are the cheapest in the world. A letter can be sent from one end of the country to the other—from Peshawur to Mandalay (3,000 miles)—for half an anna, value a halfpenny.

#### DEPARTMENTAL SERVICE.

II. The department of revenue and agriculture, which deals with the business denoted by its title, administers also the following departments:

Survey of India department. This carries on three great branches of survey: (1) The great trigonometrical survey, or general measurement of the country. This has been practically completed within India, but is now being carried on to the extensive regions on the northwest frontier and in Burma which have recently come under British rule. (2) Various topographical surveys. (3) The revenue survey, for recording superficial areas and tracts as the basis of land-revenue settlements.

#### HOME DEPARTMENT.

III. This department, which, with that of revenue and agriculture, is administered by the available civilian member of the governor-general's council, deals with all the business coming up to the government of India other than the special affairs already detailed and public works, and is the general medium of communication with the provincial governments and secretary of state, as well as the department in which all business relating to the government collectively is dealt with, as, for example, rules for the conduct of business between the departments.

#### PUBLIC WORKS.

IV. Public works, the administration of which forms another department of the Supreme Government, includes construction of roads and canals, supervision of railways, etc. This department also administers the telegraph department (with a director-general at the head). This is a more appropriate arrangement than to place it, like the post-office, under the home department. The telegraph lines being carried in many parts through uninhabited forests and over wild mountain ranges, their construction and maintenance present greater difficulties than the transmission of messages.

### SIR W. W. HUNTER ON THE GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

Sir W. W. Hunter, in his 1892 edition of *The Indian Empire*, says of the details of administration in India:

Alike in regulation and nonregulation territory, the unit of administration is the district—a word of very definite meaning in official phraseology. The district officer, whether known as collector-magistrate or as deputy commissioner, is the responsible head of his jurisdiction. Upon his energy and personal character depend ultimately the efficiency of our Indian government. His own special duties are so numerous and so various as to bewilder the outsider, and the work of his subordinates, native and European, largely depends upon the stimulus of his personal example. His position has been compared to that of a French *préfet*, but such a comparison is unjust in many ways to the Indian district officer. He is not a mere subordinate of a central bureau, who takes his color from his chief and represents the political parties or the permanent officialism of the capital. The Indian collector is a strongly individualized worker in every department of rural well-being, with a large measure of local independence and of personal initiative.

As the name of collector-magistrate signifies, his main functions are twofold. He is a fiscal officer, charged with the collection of the revenue from the land and other sources; he is also a revenue and criminal judge, both of first instance and in appeal. But his title does by no means exhaust his multifarious duties. He does in his smaller local sphere all that the home secretary superintends in England and a great deal more, for he is the representative of a paternal and not of a constitutional government. Police, jails, education, municipalities, roads, sanitation, dispensaries, the local taxation, and the imperial revenues of his district are to him matters of daily concern. He is expected to make himself acquainted with every phase of the social life of the natives and with each natural aspect of the country. He should be a lawyer, an accountant, a surveyor, and a ready writer of state papers. He ought also to possess no mean knowledge of agriculture, political economy, and engineering. \* \* \* The municipalities at present existing in India are a creation of the legislature; indeed, a recent branch of our system of administration. Their origin may be traced, not directly to the native *panchayat*, but to the necessity for relieving the district officer from certain details of his work. The *panchayat*, or elective council of five, is one of the institutions most deeply rooted in the Hindu mind. By it the village community was ruled; the headman being only its executive officer, not the legislator or judge. By it caste disputes were settled; by it traders and merchants were organized into powerful guilds, to the rules of which even European outsiders formerly had to submit. By a development of the *panchayat* the Sikh army of the *khalsa* was despotically governed when the centralized system of Ranjit Singh fell to pieces at his death.

The village organization was impaired or broken up under Mughal rule. Municipal institutions have developed under the British rule in place of the old Hindu mechanism or rural government, which had thus worn out. Police, roads, and sanitation are the three main objects for which a modern Indian municipality is constituted. In rural tracts these departments are managed (in different provinces) by the collector, or by one of his subordinate staff, or by a local fund board. Within municipal limits they are delegated to a committee who, at first, derived their practical authority from the collector's sanction, implied or expressed. Except in the larger towns the municipalities can scarcely be said as yet to exhibit the attributes of popular representation or of vigorous corporate life. But the local government acts, which received a new impulse during Lord Ripon's viceroyalty, have strengthened the rural and municipal boards. As education advances, they will be further developed. In 1882-83 the municipalities in British India, exclusive of the three presidency cities, numbered 783, with 12,923,494 inhabitants. In that year the municipalities of Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras governed a population of 1½ millions; the members of the three municipal bodies numbered 171, of whom 93 were elected. Increased life and vigor has been given to municipal institutions in India by the extension of the elective principle under the local self-government acts (1882-1884). In important places the majority of the municipal bodies are elected by the local taxpayers, but in certain small towns all, and in every town some, of the administrators are nominated by the Government or have seats *ex officio*. In Upper Burma alone there are no elected members in the 16 municipalities, which, despite the recent date of the annexation, have already been constituted. The 758 municipalities, excluding the presidency towns, of which British India consisted in 1890-91 of 10,585 members, of whom 5,848 were

elected and 4,737 nominated *ex officio*. But this does not fairly exhibit the advance made by the elective principle, for the nominated municipal commissioners of small towns or in backward provinces are included. It is more instructive to point out that in the 107 municipalities of the Northwestern provinces there were 1,218 elected to 317 nominated members, and that in the 145 municipalities of Bengal the proportion was 1,154 to 944. Out of the aggregate number of municipal commissioners, concerning whom information is available, 6,790 were natives and 839 Europeans. The population within municipal limits was, according to the census of 1891, no less than 13,024,308, of whom 1,580,715 resided in the three presidency towns. The larger the town and the more vigorous the municipality, the greater is the power of local administration conceded to it, and the larger the proportion of elected members. The establishment of rural self-government has been undertaken later than that of urban self-government, and presents peculiar difficulties, owing to the nature of the population and the distances to be traversed to attend meetings. Nevertheless district and rural boards have been formed in every province except Burma to administer and allot local taxation. The principle of election has been admitted as far as possible, and in the Northwestern provinces and Oudh 1,284 out of 1,564 members of the district boards were elected, and in Bengal 323 members out of 793. The greater part of the expenditure of these rural boards is devoted to local roads, but as the idea of local self-government develops they receive charge of primary education and sanitation. It is more difficult to get members to attend these boards than in municipalities, but with increased responsibility and power it is hoped that this difficulty will lessen. \* \* \* Excluding the village watch, still maintained as a subsidiary police in many parts of the country, the regular police of all kinds in British India in 1890 consisted of a total strength of 150,591 officers and men, being an average of 1 policeman to about 6½ square miles of area and to about 1,468 of the population. The total cost of maintenance was Rs. 2,583,983,<sup>1</sup> of which Rs. 2,418,973 was payable from the imperial or provincial revenues. The former figure gives an average cost of Rs. 26, 13, 8, or (at the old rate of exchange of 2s. to the rupee) of about £2 13s. 8½d. per square mile of area, and of 1 ana 9 pies, or (at the old rate of exchange) about 2½d. per head of population. The average pay of each constable was Rs. 7 a month, or £8 8s. a year. In 1890 the total number of places of confinement in British India, including central and district jails and lockups, was 746; the total number of prisoners admitted during the year or remaining over from the previous year was 495,820; the daily average was 88,353. The places of transportation for all British India are the Andaman and Nicobar islands, where there are two penal establishments, containing in 1890-91 a daily average of 11,804 convicts.

### THE GOVERNMENT OF JAVA AND THE SHARE OF THE NATIVES AND EUROPEANS, RESPECTIVELY, IN ITS ADMINISTRATION.

The government in Java is administered by a small body of carefully trained officials sent from Netherlands for this duty, who, by a skillfully devised and elaborate system, obtain the cooperation of the native chiefs in carrying into execution the laws and regulations, which are made by the Dutch Government in Netherlands and Java in combination. In Netherlands the colonial department is under the direction of a member of the council of ministers, corresponding with our term cabinet, and through him are submitted to the Sovereign the more important of the laws and regulations framed by the Governor-General and his council in Java.

The Governor-General, appointed by the home Government, who is located in the island, exercises supreme control over the different branches of the general administration, issues ordinances and regulations, declares war, makes peace, and concludes treaties with the native princes; appoints civil and military employees, and watches over and protects the interests of the natives. He is aided by a council composed of five members, whose advice, however, he is not bound to follow, these officials being known as directors and subject to the control of the governor. These directors are in charge, respectively, of finance, public instruction, industries and worship, justice and public works, and the department of the interior. The commanders of the army and navy are the heads of their respective departments. Meetings of these department chiefs are called by order of the governor-general, and they form what is known as the "council of directors."

The island is divided into twenty-two provinces, at the head of which are European officers, who are as powerful in their provinces as the governor-general in the colony. These officials, or "residents," are appointed by the governor-general. Each resident, who is a European, is aided by an assistant resident and comptrollers, whose duty it is to see that the laws and regulations are carried out throughout the province. All of these European officials must have received a careful training, either in the institutions maintained for that purpose in Netherlands, or in the island, or both.

The agency through which the resident and his aids carry out the details of the government in the province, or residency, as each district is called, is the regent, or "younger brother," as he is called, who is always a native functionary belonging to one of the highest families of the country, and frequently of princely birth, and who receives a high compensation for his services in the administration of government among the natives. The families from which these "younger brothers" are selected, having been for preceding generations the rulers of the natives, their directions of the details of the government are the more readily accepted by the natives; and this is especially true by reason of the fact that the real ruler, the European resident, masks his authority under the title of "elder brother." The regent, or younger brother, is paid a larger salary than the resident himself; has the right of precedence over all European functionaries except the resident; is surrounded by princely pomp, holds court where, according to Leclercq, "all the natives, even of his own family, approach him on their knees only;" has a numerous retinue, and exercises his control over all the native chiefs of the regency and through them over the people as a whole.

### THE SYSTEM DESCRIBED BY AN ENGLISH OFFICIAL OF INDIA.

"The system of administration in Java," says Henry Scott Boys, whose long service in British India renders his view of government in Java especially valuable, "was, under the native sovereigns, almost identical with that of Akbar in India. The headmen of the villages were, as in India, chosen by the villagers themselves. The rulers of the subdistricts and provinces were appointed, and all held office at the pleasure of those who nominated them. With their duties as revenue collectors they combined the offices of criminal and civil judges, being assisted by the Musselman law officer and legal counselor, who was the expounder of local customs, which regulated much the dispensing of justice. The parallel between the Javan and Indian systems is curiously exact. When the Dutch made good their footing in the island they made no attempt to undertake its government. So far as the natives were concerned, they left them and their management entirely to their native rulers. They insisted on certain articles of commerce being kept close monopolies for themselves. They demanded from each district a forced contingent of rice, leaving the regents to levy it from the villages in whatever manner they pleased; compelled the regents to supply whatever labor they required, and after they had started the coffee plantations, required the regents to see that every cultivator planted, nurtured, and plucked a certain number of coffee trees. \* \* \* Java and Madura are now divided into twenty-five residencies, which comprise seventy-eight regencies, each of which latter divisions is

<sup>1</sup> Rx. = 10 rupees: present exchange value of the rupee, about 33 cents.

ruled by a native regent, assisted by an 'assistant resident,' who has as his lieutenant in the work a 'comptroller.' At the headquarters of each residency is a resident, with powers of supervision over the officers in charge of the regency. The work of administration is supposed to be done by the native regent, and all orders to the people are issued through him. The actual rulers are, of course, the Dutch, but it is their settled policy to carry, if possible, the native upper classes with them in their administration, and they endeavor to secure this object, even at the risk of much inconvenience and ineffectual government, which but too often results from this dual rule. The regency is again divided into small districts, each under immediate orders of a 'wadana,' who, like the regent, is a native of high family, with 'mantries' under him. These mantries, who are officials corresponding to the petty officers of police in India, are the relations, generally, of the regent and wadanas. In each village there is a headman, who is elected by the villagers. This man collects the land tax, allots the rice fields, keeps the roster of men at work on the plantations or roads, sees to the supply of gratuitous provisions for the mantries and others, and tells off the villagers as watchmen in their turn. He settles small disputes, and, being chosen by the people, is trusted by them, and is really a protection to them. The principle upon which the courts are based is the conferment of very limited powers upon both European and native officers sitting alone, even the regent being unable to inflict a severer punishment than ten days' imprisonment, while the joint court, 'landraad,' in which the resident and regent, with one other native of high rank, sit together, can inflict the penalty of death, subject to the confirmation of the supreme court at Batavia. The landraad is the principal civil and criminal court for natives. The resident, regent, and wadana exercise petty civil jurisdiction when sitting alone. No Europeans, however, are subject to any other than purely Dutch courts.

#### FURTHER TESTIMONY OF ENGLISH EXPERTS.

Mr. W. Basil Worsfold, in his *A Visit to Java*, published in 1893, describes the system of administration as follows: "The Netherlands India, as the Dutch possessions in the East are officially styled, includes the whole of the Malay archipelago, with the exception of the Philippine Islands belonging to Spain, part of Borneo in the possession of the North Borneo Company, and the eastern half of New Guinea, which is shared by Germany and England. The total area is officially stated to be 719,674 square miles, and the total population 29,765,031. It is administered by a governor-general, a government secretary, and a council of state consisting of five members, who are appointed from among the chief Dutch residents in the island of Java. As all matters of general policy are controlled by the secretary for the colonies, who is a member of the home Government, the functions of the colonial government are mainly executive and consultative. So close is the connection that the colonial estimates for revenue and expenditure have to receive the approval of the home Government before they can be carried out. Moreover, the various government officials scattered through the archipelago are responsible to the secretary for the colonies. There are colleges established both in Holland and Batavia in which the young men intended for the colonial service can receive a suitable training.

"The physical sanction upon which the Dutch authority rests is an army of 30,000 men, composed of Dutch, German, Swiss, Italians, and native, but officered exclusively by Dutchmen, and a navy of 50 ships. Of these troops, a large proportion (amounting in 1891 to 16,537) are native. The headquarters of the army is fixed at Batavia. There are barracks at Weltevreden, and at Meester Cornelis in the capital, and additional accommodation has been recently provided at Buitenzorg. The fleet is stationed at Soerabaya, a town which possesses the best harbor in Java, and which is conveniently situated at the other end of the island. There are, however, a few ships always stationed at Batavia. The greater portion of the fleet is composed of the ships of the Netherlands Indian navy, which is permanently stationed in the archipelago; but there are among them some ships belonging to the Dutch navy, which are relieved every three years.

"At the present time (1892) the chief occupation of the colonial forces is the establishment of the Dutch authority in Sumatra. Since 1874 the natives of Achin have successfully resisted the Dutch, and the Achin war has proved so costly and so disastrous that the home Government have ordered the operations of the troops to be confined to such as are purely defensive. Acting under these instructions, the colonial forces have retired behind a chain of forts, and all attempts to advance into the interior have been abandoned. Last year (1891) Baron Makay, the secretary for the colonies, was able to assure the States-General that 'excellent results were expected from the blockade system' now adopted, and that the Achinese were already beginning to feel the inconvenience of being cut off from their supplies of necessities, such as opium and tobacco.

"Java is by far the most important of the islands of the Malay archipelago. Its population is four times that of the remaining Dutch possessions in the East. This population is divided as follows (1890): Europeans, 48,783; Chinese, 237,577; Arabs, 13,943; other Orientals, 1,806; natives, 22,765,977; total, 23,068,086.

"With the exception of the Chinese, the great retail traders of the Malay countries, almost the entire population of the island is 'native.' This term includes various branches of the Malay race, of which the chiefs are the Javanese and Sudanese, occupying, respectively, the east and west of the island. Separate dialects are also spoken by the people of Bantam and Madura. There is little to distinguish the two chief races, except that the Javanese are more warlike and spirited than the Sudanese, who are somewhat more dull and almost entirely agricultural. Speaking generally, the native population of Java is but little inferior in intelligence to the native population of India, while in some respects—in particular in the readiness shown by the native princes to assimilate European learning and customs, and in a certain artistic sensibility manifested by the whole people—they resemble the inhabitants of Japan.

"The majority of the Javanese natives are employed in the cultivation of rice; in work on plantations, sugar, coffee, cinchona, and tea, and in various lesser industries, such as the making of mats and weaving of sarongs. They are also by no means unskillful as workers in clay, wood, and metals, and as artisans generally, and are successfully employed by the Government in working the railways and post-telegraph services. For purposes of administration the island is divided into twenty-four residencies. Each residency is further divided into districts, and finally into campongs or townships. It will be remembered that when, at the end of the eighteenth century, the Dutch Government took over the island from the East India Company they received possession of the soil, subject only to such limitations as the company had already imposed upon their ownership. Since that time the colonial government has pursued a policy in Java similar to that pursued by the British in India, by which the native princes have been gradually induced to part with their territorial rights and privileges and to accept in return proportionate monetary compensations. At the same time the services of these 'princes' have been utilized in the work of government. As a result of this latter, the sums paid originally as incomes equivalent to the revenues derived from the rights surrendered have now come to be of the nature of official salaries. Most of these regents, as the native princes are called, receive from 2,000 to 3,000 florins a year; but some one or two, such as the sultan of Djokja and the regent of Bandung,

receive as much as 70,000 or 80,000 florins. The Dutch have wisely employed, as much as possible, the social organization which they found in existence, and native authorities and institutions have been supplemented by European officials. In each residency there is, therefore, a double set of officials, European and native. First of all there is the resident, who resides at the chief town, and is the head of all officials, European and native. Under him there are assistant residents, controleurs, and assistant controleurs. The controleur is an official more especially connected with the Government plantations, and the regulation of the industrial relations between the planters and the peasants or coolies is an important duty which he fulfills. The regent is the head of the native officials, but, of course, inferior in authority to the resident, whom he calls his 'elder brother.' Under him is an officer called a patih, and then wadenas, assistant wadenas, and ultimately the village chiefs or loerabs. In addition to these there is a further official called a jaksa, who ranks above the wadenas, and receives information of any offenses committed. In the villages the loerabs act as policemen, but in the towns there are regular native policemen called oppas, who also attend on the wadenas. In each residency there is a court of justice consisting of a president, who is a paid legal official, a clerk of the court, and a pangoeloe or priest for administering oaths. In this court the jaksa sits as native assessor to the European judge-president. There are superior courts at the three great towns, Batavia, Samarang, and Soerabaya, and a supreme court at Batavia. Murder and crimes of violence are generally rare, but small thieving is common throughout the island."

#### A FRENCH VIEW OF GOVERNMENTAL METHODS IN JAVA.

M. Jules Le Clercq, in his excellent work, *Un Séjour dans l'île de Java*, published in 1898, describes the Dutch system of government in Java as follows:

The administration of the colonial possessions is exercised in the King's name by the minister of colonies, and each year a detailed report is presented to the States-General on the situation in the colonies. The government of the Dutch Indies rests no more, as in the time of the famous Dutch India Company, in the hands of a commission, but is vested now in one man, a functionary of the King and responsible to him for the proper discharge of his office. This responsibility finds its sanction in the power granted to the King and the second chamber of the States-General to impeach him.

#### THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL.

This royal officer has the title of governor-general. He is the commander of the land and sea forces of the Dutch Indies; he exercises supreme control over the different branches of the general administration; he issues ordinances on all matters not regulated by law or royal decree; he declares war, makes peace, and concludes treaties with the native princes; he appoints civil and military employees; he has the right of amnesty, clemency, and no capital punishment can be executed without his sanction. One of his most important duties is the protection of the natives; he watches that no cession of land violate their rights, and issues rules and regulations relating to the "government cultures;" he fixes the kind and extent of the forced labor and sees to the proper execution of all ordinances pertaining to this matter; he has the power of expelling all foreigners who disturb the public order. In a word, the representative of the King is vested with all the powers; he is, in the Empire of the Indies, almost the King in the absolute sense of the term.

#### THE COUNCIL.

To be sure, by his side, or rather under him, there is an India council meeting under his chairmanship and constituted of a vice-president and four members, but this is a mere consultative body whose opinion he takes without, however, being bound to follow it. True, in certain cases specified by law he is bound by the decision of a majority of the council, but as the council is not responsible for the conduct of the Government, the governor-general, even in such cases, has the right of appeal to the King, and, pending this appeal, he has the right, even against the advice of the council, to take such measures as he regards opportune when he thinks that the general interest of the colony would suffer from the delay which an appeal to the King involves. As a matter of fact, the governor-general possesses all executive and legislative powers.

#### NO SECRETARIES OR MINISTERS.

There are no secretaries or ministers at the head of the civil administration but officials, five in number, who hold the modest title of directors. These officials are subject to the order and supreme control of the governor, who in reality is the prime minister. There is a director of the interior, one of finance, another of public instruction, religious worship and industries, a director of justice, and one of public works. The commanders of the army and navy are the heads of their respective departments. The meetings of these different department chiefs, called by order of the governor-general, form the council of directors. To what extent the affairs of this council are almost family affairs may be best seen from the fact that sometimes the directors are chosen from among the brothers of the governor.

#### THE SHARE OF THE NATIVES IN ADMINISTRATION OF GOVERNMENT.

The machinery of the local administration, even better than that of the central administration, reveals the ingenious scheme by means of which a very small number of functionaries rules the densest population of the world. The island of Java is divided into twenty-two provinces, at the head of which are European officials who are as powerful in their provinces as the governor-general in the colony at large; but just as the chiefs of the departments have but the title of director, these provincial governors or prefects call themselves modestly "residents," and their provinces, very often containing over a million souls, are called "residencies." The "resident" appointed by the governor-general is in his province the representative of the government, and as such the chief of the civil administration, the finances, justice, police, and he has the right to wear the payong, or gold parasol, which, in the eyes of the Javanese, is a mark of the highest rank. He is assisted by the assistant residents, who in turn have subordinates in the persons of the comptrollers, who see to the proper observation of the regulations relating to the natives, visit periodically the villages of their districts, listen to complaints, oversee the plantations of the government, and form, so to say, the link which connects the native administration to the European administration.

#### HOW THE NATIVES AID IN THE DETAILS OF ADMINISTRATION.

The following features of the Dutch colonial service in Java show best its skillful organization. The mechanism consists partly in concealing the true motors of the machine under the network of pure display, by leaving to the native princes the illusion of power and veiling the actions of the European rulers. Each residency comprises one or more regencies, and alongside of each resident there are one or more regents. Now, while the resident is always a European official, the regent, on the other hand, is always a native functionary belonging to the highest families of the countries and frequently of princely birth, who bears, according to the importance of his rank, the title of "Raden Adipati," or "Mas Toemenggoeng," or even that of "Pangeran" (prince).

The natives are subject to the regent, their natural chief; the resident, although the real holder of power, does nothing except through the medium of the regent. In order to conceal his authority, he allows himself to be regarded in the eyes of the natives as the elder brother of the regent, and gives his orders to his brother in the form of recommendations. This formula, which would be



regarded meaningless with us, has quite an importance with the Javanese, since in their eyes the elder brother, in the absence of the father, is the chief of the family, respected by the younger brothers, but still regarded always as brother, and not as official chief. Being a brother merely, the regent enlightens him with his counsel. The European official is even held to take the advice of the native functionary, whenever the interests of the native population are at stake. The younger brother is the intimate counselor of the elder brother in all cases where the latter has to be enlightened on the condition of the people; but once a resident has made his decision, after having heard the opinion of the regent, the latter, as a good younger brother, has to submit whatever the decision be.

In order to leave to the natives the illusion of autonomy, the Dutch not only permitted them to keep their rulers, "wedonos" (village chiefs), but even their emperor. The territory of the Vorstenlanden, the central province which occupies the fifteenth part of the area of Java, constitutes actually a small empire, the last fragment of the Kingdom of Mataram. The Vorstenlanden are divided between two princes, the soesoehoenan and the sultan, the first residing at Solo or Soerakarta and the latter at Djokjakarta. These two capitals are even now the centers of Javanese life, and it is here that one can best form an idea of what Java has been in the past. Formerly the Vorstenlanden formed but a single province under a single soesoehoenan, but during last century the Emperor Hamangkoe, despairing of quelling a Chinese insurrection, called to his aid the Dutch and ceded to them some land in return for their services. Hardly freed from the Chinese, he met with the claims of his brother, who insisted upon his right to share the throne. Hamangkoe, in order to escape new struggles, applied for arbitration to the Dutch, who put an end to the dispute by a decision quite in conformity with the policy inspired by the principle, "divide ut imperes" (divide and rule). They divided the kingdom into two provinces, which was the best means to weaken a powerful State. The greater part of the two divisions formed the province of Soerakarta and fell to the share of soesoehoenan; the other division was turned over to the brother of the Emperor, who became sultan of Djokjakarta. The present Emperor and sultan are descendants of these two princes. The former bears the title of "soesoehoenan," which means "his highness." He also has the titles of "The Nail of the World," "The Commander of the Armies," "The Servant of the Charitable," "The Master of Worship," "The Regulator of Religion."

### THE GOVERNMENT OF FRENCH INDO-CHINA AND THE SHARE OF THE EUROPEANS AND NATIVES, RESPECTIVELY, IN ITS ADMINISTRATION.

The French colonies are, for the details of governmental methods, divided into two classes: (1) Those in which limited powers of legislation are granted to a local legislature, in a few cases wholly elected, in others partly nominated by the home government and partly elected; (2) those in which the government is conducted by decrees. These provisions do not include, however, tariff laws and other important measures, which are regulated by general legislation of the home government. In French Indo-China a large share of the government is conducted by decrees, though a local body partly appointed and partly elected chiefly by French citizens has very limited legislative powers. Under this general term of French Indo-China are included Cochin China, Tonkin, Anam, and Cambodia, whose united area is 263,000 square miles, with a population of 22,000,000. Cochin China, Anam, and Tonkin are inhabited chiefly by Anamites, who had a well-defined system of government when the French took possession. Under that system the country was divided into districts known as "communes," in which the representatives of the ruling element formed a communal council and elected one of their number as the head of the commune, and this officer, as representing the commune, carried on the government, raised taxes, and under his general management order was maintained within his province or commune. The French have, in a limited way at least, adapted the details of the native form of government in much of this great section. Under existing French law with reference to colonies, the French executive not only administers colonial affairs, but issues general decrees for their government. This system is the result of the failure to complete legislation begun in 1854, by which a system of government for the French colonies in America was framed and the Emperor empowered to legislate for the others by decrees until a plan of government for the remainder should be framed. This plan has never been completed, however, and consequently the President and head of the colonial department direct the management of French Indo-China and other French colonies of this class by decrees.

The chief official of French Indo-China is a governor-general, appointed by the Government of France usually upon the recommendation of the department of colonies. The military and naval forces are subject to his orders, and all civil officers in the colonies are his subordinates, most of them appointed either by him or upon his recommendation. In Cochin China there is a lieutenant-governor, and in Tonkin, Anam, and Cambodia each a resident superior, each of whom is subject to the general direction of the governor-general. These in turn are assisted by residents and vice-residents, who carry out the details of the work through the existing communal machinery above described, on a plan somewhat similar to that of the Dutch in Java, relying for those details largely upon the native officials. These leading officials are paid sufficient salaries to assure the Government that they will cooperate faithfully, and, through their influence and knowledge of the people, administer the government in a manner which will be accepted by the natives. The tariff laws, however, are made by the French Government, and more of the details managed at the seat of the home government than is the case in the British or Dutch colonies, already discussed. The colony is represented in the French Chambers by a deputy elected chiefly by the Frenchmen residing in the colony, though natives may become French citizens if they desire and participate in such election. A colonial council also exists, which consists of two members named by the privy council, two by the Saigon Chamber of Commerce, six elected by Frenchmen residing in Cochin China, and six elected by a college of delegates chosen for this purpose by the nobles of each municipality. This council sits twenty days in each year, but is prohibited from debating political matters, its only duties being to issue decrees regulating private property, discuss finance and taxation, express its opinion upon tariffs and taxes already established, and send protests to the ministry in France.

#### DESCRIPTION BY PROF. HENRY E. BOURNE.

The French system in French Indo-China is described by Prof. Henry E. Bourne, in a copyrighted article in the Yale Review, May, 1899, reproduced by permission, as follows:

\* \* \* Indo-China is not mere territory containing a negligible quantity of inhabitants. The people, Anamites or Cambodians, have a developed civilization, with fixed customs and laws; but, unlike the Philippine situation, outside of Sulu there has been, both in Anam and Cambodia, a monarchy, through which the French leaders could organize a subjection of the people by treaties, usually negotiated at the point of the bayonet. It has not been necessary to deal with the vague multitude and to rule chaos. Still, on the whole, there is hardly a phase of the Philippine problem not already illustrated in the history of Indo-China.

Although in the sum of French possessions, Indo-China is almost an empire, like British India, it is ruled by a governor-general. It is not a unity, either in race or in institutions or in the development of the French administration. Tonkin and Cochin China, the deltas of the Red River and of the Mekong, are connected by the long and narrow Anam, of which the inhabited portion is crowded between the mountains and the sea, so that the group resembles, as the Anamites themselves say, a long pole with a bag of rice on each

end. These three territories were united in the first years of the century under the rule of the Emperor Gia Long, and are inhabited chiefly by the Anamites. Their social order is the same, and it has been little disturbed by the partition of the empire since the coming of the French. It is essentially democratic, with self-governing communes as its basis.

This Anamite commune is important, because it is the unit of administration and the responsible agent of the government for the collection of taxes, the raising of troops, and the execution of the law. It offers the unvarying framework of society for each advance of the population into unoccupied districts. Its honors and duties belong to the notables, who are inscribed on the tax rolls. The higher notables form the communal council, and elect one of their number mayor. As soon as their choice is accepted by the government the mayor represents the commune in all questions raised by the central administration. He carries out the laws, is chief of police, and guardian of the tax rolls.

Cambodia also belongs to Indo-China, and lies on the Mekong above Cochin China. It is the feeble remainder of an ancient kingdom, and yet its people affect to despise the encroaching Anamites, claiming their own origin in an earlier, perhaps an Aryan, emigration. Their social organization also differs from that of Anam. When the French protectorate began, they did not have the commune. Instead of a lettered aristocracy reaching the higher official positions nominally through severe competitive examinations, they had a semifeudal nobility, and administrative affairs were centralized instead of being left to local authorities. \* \* \*

For many years after the treaty of 1863 the protectorate had remained merely nominal. If the terms of the treaty were closely adhered to, the French resident could not legally interfere in the internal administration of the country, and the men who successively occupied the position failed to gain ascendancy enough in the court of King Norodom to compensate for the legal weakness of their situation. Lanessan rather savagely regards such a failure as characteristic of French colonial officers everywhere. They do not make the least effort, he says, "to work for the increase of the native authority, and at the same time to penetrate it by our influence."

When the resident, to strengthen his position, tried to take a seat in the council of ministers, the King resisted stubbornly, but all the while he was covertly using the guaranty his throne received from the protectorate to render himself absolute. His court became more luxurious, and since his revenue did not increase, his officers, the mandarins, were not paid, and were forced to pillage the people. Roads and bridges, no longer repaired, soon almost disappeared.

From this desperate situation M. Thomson, the governor of Cochin-China, attempted to rescue the country by the treaty of June 17, 1884, negotiated under the guns of French ships. The remedy was too drastic; it attempted to revolutionize Cambodian society from top to bottom. Furthermore, it was justly believed to be an ill-conceived device for annexing Cambodia to Cochin-China, dictated by officials eager to extend their jurisdiction.

It is not astonishing that Cambodia, from king to peasant, was profoundly stirred by such an attack upon traditional privileges and national susceptibilities. Insurgent bands appeared everywhere. The peaceful inhabitants, impartially afraid of the insurgents and of the French, fled to the forests. In less than two years the country looked like a desert. Finally the resident was authorized to inform King Norodom that the treaty might be considered a dead letter, though it was not to be abrogated.

Possibly the resistance of the Cambodians would not have been so obstinate had not the French Government by its hesitancy showed that it was not sure of its policy. Though the treaty was made in the spring of 1884, the law approving it was not passed until July 17, 1885, and the decree providing for its promulgation was not issued until January 9, 1886. Furthermore, it was only in 1891, when Lanessan came out as governor-general, that the treaty was thoroughly put in force.

So much, at least, of the history of Indo-China must be told in order intelligently to explain the measures by which France has sought to administer this group of possessions. But the period of conquest saw the very machinery in Paris devised to control such portions of the national domain radically reconstructed.

#### POWERS OF THE FRENCH EXECUTIVE.

Americans are naturally surprised to discover that the French executive is intrusted not only with the administration of colonial affairs, but also with the legislation which devises the mechanism of government in the colonies and which regulates all the details of the colonial régime. So extensive a grant of power is rather anomalous even in a country accustomed to government by decrees. It came about in this way: The constitution of 1852 delegated to the senate the organization of the colonies. Accordingly in 1854 Martinique, Guadeloupe, and Réunion were provided for by *senatus consultum*. The other colonies were left for a subsequent act, and meanwhile the Emperor was empowered to legislate for them by decrees. As the expected *senatus consultum* never came, the prerogative remained in his hands until his overthrow. It was then held to pass provisionally to the new executive, where it still remains, because the constitutional laws of 1875 did not touch this field of legislation. In certain cases the president can issue his decrees merely upon the report of the minister charged with the management of the colonies, and at most he is obliged to consult the council of state. But if the chambers legislate upon any matters concerning the colonies the president can not traverse this legislation by subsequent decrees.

Such a system has much to commend it for the effective control of distant possessions. Many a fine enterprise has been ruined in a crisis by the sort of hesitancy and dilatoriness which may be looked for in a deliberative assembly. But while promptness is made possible there is little danger of irresponsible action, for the minister must countersign each act of the president, and he does this knowing that if he blunders intolerably he will bring defeat upon his colleagues in the cabinet. There is also less likelihood that policies will be constantly changed, since the minister, though a party leader in the chambers, is surrounded in his administrative bureaus by a permanent corps of officials, familiar with what has been previously attempted. Such a system may be as effective as military rule and yet be free from the characteristic evils of barrack-room government. \* \* \*

#### LOCAL MACHINERY OF CONTROL UTILIZED.

As French rule in Indo-China was extended and its character changed, the local machinery of control was necessarily reconstructed on a more elaborate scale. In 1879 Cochin-China passed from the hands of the admirals to a civil régime. Le Myre de Villers was the first governor. His jurisdiction covered also the protectorate of Cambodia. And upon the renewal of the trouble in Tonkin, in 1882, it was he who sent Commander Rivière to protect French interests. But, as soon as the war was ended, the new protectorate was administered separately, as has already been explained, by a resident general, living in Hue, and responsible to the minister of foreign affairs. After three years' experience with the plan of divided responsibility, all Indo-China was united by decree, October 17, 1887, and all residential officers subordinated to a governor-general. This union revealed the tendency gradually to subject the whole territory to a single administrative system.

The decree of October 17, which created the union, was supplemented by another three days later, which hindered its effectiveness by making the appointment of the governor-general and the higher officers of the protectorates dependent upon the joint recommendation of two ministers—the minister of foreign affairs and the minister of marine. Furthermore, no military operation could be begun without the consent of the minister of foreign affairs, and to him were to be addressed copies of the regular reports required from Indo-China.

To what extent this system of dual control was practically injurious it is not possible to say. At all events, the disorders that afflicted Tonkin and the unsettled condition of Cambodia were not remedied.

#### ADDITIONAL POWER TO THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL.

After four years more it was decided to try the radical expedient of placing in the hands of the governor-general the most ample powers. In the language of the decree itself, issued April 21, 1891, he was made "the depositary of the powers of the Republic in French Indo-China." He now stood forth the rival of the governor-general of British India and of the governor-general of the Dutch East Indies.

To define his powers more in detail, the military and naval forces were subject to his orders, all civil officers were his subordinates; their appointment was dependent upon his recommendation, or, in case of minor positions, was his sole prerogative, and the higher

officers—residents, directors, magistrates, etc.—could also be suspended by him. Moreover, he was to be the sole medium of communication with the home Government. Evidently, it was the intention of the decree to prevent conflicts of authority and to give petty jealousies no route back to Paris. But at least one bypath was soon discovered, and the first governor-general felt that his credit at home was being industriously mined. Every year the commander of the troops was ordered to send a report of the inspections directly to the minister of the marine. This document, not passing through the hands of the governor-general, offered the protection of its seal to all sorts of statements, in one case, at least, directed definitely against the governor-general. But the new plan has worked well on the whole, and Indo-China's history has been less checkered since 1891. The natives were no longer obliged to serve two jealous masters—the civil and military authorities.

It is unnecessary to describe the elaborate administrative machinery put under the control of the governor-general. Mere mechanism is not significant, unless a particular device in governmental machinery is chosen as the best instrument for carrying into effect some policy. It is sufficient to note that the hierarchy consisted of a lieutenant-governor in Cochin-China, resident superieurs placed at the head of affairs in Cambodia, Tonkin, and Anam, with residents and vice-residents subordinate to them. The duties of these officials varied according to the character of French rule in each part of Indo-China. For example, in Tonkin many of the mandarins, who served the Anamite government, intrigued persistently against French influence, and were removed. Their successors were thoroughly under French control.

Although the powers of the governor-general have been diminished since 1891, seriously, according to Lanessan, the system of single control still remains. But its effectiveness has been impaired by a misuse of the appointing power reserved to the ministry.

#### THE SPOILS SYSTEM.

To give Indo-China administrative autonomy was one of the aims of the decree of 1891. In this way alone could the dependency be guarded against the worse effects of the spoils system. When Lanessan reached Indo-China he found complaints that inexperienced men had been put into important places over the heads of others who had served the government faithfully, and had acquired a just claim to promotion. Certain officers boasted "that they had gained all their grades in Paris, and rallied their colleagues, who were without influence." Lanessan even says, "It was not rare that an officer, dismissed for disobedience, wrong-doing, or incapacity, returned with his rank raised."

This was not the only chronic evil that afflicted the administration. The French have carried the principle of organization into many branches of the colonial service, and have given to each its hierarchy of positions, which the ambitious young man may aspire to reach grade by grade. This may be correct in theory, but it would imply an empire homogeneous in race, customs, and language. And yet just such differences were often ignored up to 1891 and even later. \* \* \*

The decree of 1891 protected Indo-China against most of these disorders. Administrators and residents were largely recruited in the dependency itself, and were not in danger of seeing their well-earned promotions snatched from them by political deals in Paris.

A certain number of the candidates were to be furnished by the *Ecole Coloniale* at Paris. These men had been trained for the work they were to do, but they were without practical experience. While Lanessan was governor-general, and doubtless since that time, these men upon their arrival in the colony were expected to serve an apprenticeship of at least eighteen months, with some resident-superieur or some provincial administrator, and at a place where they would find facilities for technical instruction in the elements of their craft.

But the condition of the magistracy was not bettered by the decree. It was still possible to bring them from the ends of the earth and set them down in Cochin-China, regardless of the injury done to the administration of justice by intrusting it to men who, though well-meaning, were unacquainted with the language, customs, and legal traditions in the local courts. Such a magistrate was at the mercy of an interpreter. About him might gather a body of attorneys, *rabatteurs*, who found it to their own interest to multiply legal controversies, even among a people inclined to carry everything to the courts. Under the old system of free administration of justice this fashion was harmless, but with the new French courts it was a means of ruining the natives who resorted to them.

There was another danger. The magistrates who had been long in the country, seeing that the higher positions were to be gained by favor, and not earned by fidelity in the service, became discouraged and left the country. Occasionally a judge who had served well in Cochin-China was promoted to a position elsewhere at the time when his labors were becoming most valuable.

Added to these defects in the system of appointment was the equally great evil of the multiplication of places. Ten years ago the officeholders formed a large part of the whole French population of Cochin-China. The under secretary of state in charge of the colonies declared in 1891 that the total appropriation for public works—80,000 francs—was for that year spent in salaries. As the colonial council of Cochin-China was elected by officeholders and contractors—that is, practically all the Frenchmen in the colony—it voted high salaries and fat contracts, until the home government put an end to such looting of the treasury for the benefit of a few hundred individuals by applying the surplus to the needs of the other Indo-Chinese possessions.

#### ADOPTING LOCAL MACHINERY OF CONTROL.

One of the most interesting phases of any colonial experiment is the attempt to adjust the machinery of control to the existing institutions. In very few instances would it be safe or wise to substitute a new administrative system for one which is entrenched behind the custom of years or perhaps of generations. The French have had too much experience in the art of colonization to make such a blunder in its baldest form, but certain efforts of theirs have shown a tendency in this direction.

According to the treaty of 1884 with Anam, the residents and their subordinates were not to interfere with the details of provincial administration in Tonkin, although upon their demand the native officials could be dismissed. And within the limits of Anam itself the officers of the Anamite government were to carry on their administration undisturbed. The customs service was reserved for French management, with the truly omnibus addition of "*en général, les services qui exigent une direction unique ou l'emploi d'ingénieurs ou d'agents européens.*" The resident-general was to reside within the citadel at Hue, and was to control the foreign relations of the empire as his principal duty.

This was the aim of the treaty, but it was carried out in a spirit suggested by the continued disturbances, both in Tonkin and in Anam.

In Tonkin the French feared the influence of the mandarins. Moreover, these men exposed themselves to attack because of their extortions before the beginning of the French régime. Consequently the residents worked to diminish their power. This, in a measure, disorganized the administration and rendered the work of control more burdensome. Such a policy was really unnecessary, for the mandarins were intelligent enough to discover that France had come to stay, and that if they had been handled carefully, so that they might "save their face" before the multitude, little trouble need have been feared from them.

In Anam the treaty was not respected even to this degree. Everywhere the Anamite officers found themselves under the orders of either the residents or of the soldiers, often of both. The mandarins grew desperate and a formal protest was sent to the President of France. This document declared that the least infraction of orders was to be severely punished. Furthermore, if the mandarins consulted the residents, the army officers were angry; if, on the other hand, they took their orders from the officers, they were rebuked by the residents.

A still more serious blunder was embodied in the Cambodian treaty of 1884. This shattered the social and administrative fabric of the Kingdom at a stroke. An attempt had been made to abolish slavery in 1877, but it had failed. The treaty renewed this attempt, destroying an important part of native property without compensation. It also provided that individual property in land should be substituted for the old system, by which the title of the whole vested in the King. And with a shrewd look into the future it comprehensively forced upon the King "*toutes les réformes administratives, judiciaires, financières, et commerciales aux quelles le gouvernement de la République française jugera à l'avenir utile pour faciliter l'accomplissement de son protectorat.*"



It is not surprising that such a treaty could not be carried out until after resistance had been overcome by force, or until an object lesson had been given the King and the aristocracy to show them what advantages they might gain from the arrangement.

The opportunity came in connection with the sorest spot of all—the finances. When Le Myre de Villers was governor of Cochin-China, he had taken from the King's control the revenue coming from the tariff, the taxes on alcohol, opium, etc., and had used them to pay the expenses of the protectorate. They were barely sufficient for this, because a staff had to be maintained for the collection, so that 30 per cent of the income was consumed in collecting it. Moreover, these collectors, taken from the customs service of Cochin-China, and independent of the resident at Pnom-Penh, often played the petty tyrant and compromised the reputation of the protectorate.

These evils were incidental. But the main trouble was that the King found that out of a total revenue of \$1,100,000 (Mexican), \$650,000 were taken from him. To make up the loss, he resorted to the desperate expedient of farming certain of the taxes left him, negotiating with Chinese traders for a lump sum. These Chinamen grew rich by extortion, in spite of the fact that they were obliged to concede *douceurs*, after the manner of the old régime in France, to the women and favorites about the court.

It was not until Lanessan came out as governor-general that this desperate state of affairs was remedied and the other provisions of the treaty were enforced. He had been in Cambodia on a tour of inspection in 1887, and had suggested to the King the wisdom of consolidating the two budgets of the protectorate, and of organizing a common treasury. But, in the face of opposition from Cochin-China, the scheme could not be carried through. When he resumed the negotiations the King readily consented, without formal treaty, to put into effect, January 1, 1892, the reforms which had been suggested. Lanessan then assigned on the budget a civil list larger than the King's previous income. He also won the mandarins by paying them adequate salaries for the duties they were accustomed to perform. This was done without raising the tax rate, on the supposition that with better management the taxes would be more productive. In several instances the rate was actually lowered. Although the French were henceforth to control the collection of the direct taxes, as well as the customs duties, etc., the old collectors were not dismissed; they were simply reorganized so that the danger of oppression and speculation would be lessened.

The results of this reform were noteworthy. Complaints of extortion were almost unheard. The taxes produced more at the low rate than at the higher rate previously fixed. The estimated receipts were \$1,238,190, while the actual receipts were \$1,578,130. This gave the Government the opportunity to complete certain needed public improvements in the capital. The King could become reconciled to a protectorate of this sort, and since 1892 Cambodia has given little trouble.

The French have showed no disposition within the limits of the old Anamite Empire to interfere with local administration, as this was centered in the commune. They have even made some attempts to set its machinery in motion in Cambodia, where it did not exist. \* \* \*

#### FRENCH LAWS INTRODUCED.

As in the last days of the Roman Empire the Germans brought into southern Europe their law as a personal possession and privilege, and still allowed the Romans to be judged according to their own laws, so the Frenchman has carried into Indo-China his codes and liberties, his right to local self-Government and to representation in the chamber of deputies, without thereby disturbing the social organization, customs, and laws of the Anamites.

There has been one tentative step toward assimilation particularly interesting, and this is the colonial council of Cochin-China. In 1880, when it was created, the minister of the marine declared that the measure was dictated "by his constant purpose to prepare, by successive acts, the advent of the institutions of the metropolis among our peoples beyond the seas." Besides four members, two chosen by the Saigon Chamber of Commerce and two by the privy council, there are twelve elected members, six elected by the Frenchmen residing in Cochin-China, and six by a college of delegates, who are in turn elected by the notables of each municipality. Every precaution is taken lest this assembly become an embarrassment to the administration. The annual sessions can last only twenty days, unless prorogued for a further period of ten days by the governor-general, who may also suspend the sittings at any time. He, moreover, appoints the president. There can be no debate upon political matters, nor even a political wish expressed. The council can do but four carefully defined things—it can issue decrees regulating private property; it can deliberate, subject to the governor-general's approval, upon finances and taxation; it can express its opinion upon tariffs, *octrois de mer*, etc.; and it can send protests to the ministry in France. It is simply a school for training in the forms of representative government. \* \* \*

#### A FRENCH VIEW OF THE SHARE WHICH EUROPEANS AND NATIVES SHOULD HAVE IN THE GOVERNMENT OF THE COLONY.

M. de Lanessan, the present French minister of marine, formerly governor-general of Indo-China, and who had prior to that service had long experience in the French colonies and abundant opportunity to observe the methods in the English colonies, in his work, "Principes de Colonisation," discusses the question of the relations of the Europeans and natives in official life and the duties of European officials in the colonies, the methods of their selection, etc., as follows:

##### COLONIES SHOULD NOT BE EXPLOITED BY EUROPEANS.

I believe that in order to make the colonies prosperous, and furthermore, to acquire the sympathy and confidence of the people, we ought to strive, first of all and chiefly, to protect the former against the proclivities on the part of the Europeans of exploiting them. Our laws and our codes ought to be introduced there as little as possible, and each colony ought to have the right to adopt for itself a system of legislation adapted to the particular necessities of the country and the habits of the natives. As regards our administration and political organization, they ought to be shaped with the view of protecting the natives, of attracting him without violence toward our civilization, of reducing his charges in the largest possible degree; and, moreover, of putting him in a position to appreciate by himself the advantages of our intervention with the affairs of his country. From all the facts stated above, a certain number of principles and rules may be reduced, which I think worth the while to sum up as follows:

##### GOVERNMENTAL CONTROL OF COLONIES IN A PRIMITIVE STATE IS NECESSARY.

If the people of the colonies are yet in a state of more or less distinct barbarism, such as certain people of Africa, those of New Caledonia, Guiana, many tribes of Laos and Madagascar, etc., the colonizing nation is obliged to take into its hands the direction of the administrative affairs; but while doing it, it should make use as much as possible of the tribal chiefs and the heads of the more important families, so as to show its intention of not breaking with the local customs. Moreover, it would do well to treat the customs, habits, ideas, the religion, and even the prejudices of the natives in such a manner as to earn sympathies which might be utilized in order to introduce gradually progress and civilization.

##### RESPECT THE LOCAL ORGANIZATION WHERE POSSIBLE.

If the people in the colony, as for instance the people of Anam, Cambodia, the Hovas, etc., possess a more or less complete political and administrative organization, the latter ought to be not only respected, but even loyally utilized. A protectorate would, in such cases, seem to be the only proper régime. The latter, while sincere, ought, however, at the same time to be effective; that is, the protecting nation ought to find the means of gaining the confidence of the people and the protected government to such a degree that nothing going on in the country should remain unknown to it, and that its ruling influence may extend without violence and with the

consent of all to the smallest details of administration, and make itself felt in all conditions and parts of the country. In this matter the texts of treaties have but a secondary importance. The moral, political, and administrative worth of the governors and their subordinates, however, have an importance much superior to that of diplomatic documents, acts, or decrees. The best of these acts in the hands of unskillful people produce nothing but disorder, insurrection, and misery. The very worst, in the hands of experienced and well-informed men, may be sufficient to create peace and harmony between the protector and the protectorate, and assure the prosperity of the protected country, while serving at the same time the interests of the protecting country.

#### REDUCE THE MILITARY CONTROL TO A MINIMUM.

As regards military action it is best to reduce it even in the most barbarous countries, and during periods of rebellions to the lowest possible degree; never should the direction of affairs in a colony be intrusted to the military authorities. By dint of its education, personal interests, and exciting surroundings the army is irresistibly pushed toward the abusive use of force. It tends less toward prevention of disorder than its suppression, and the losses which it suffers serve but to push it on to bloody expeditions, for the death of some results in the advancement of others.

#### RULING BY FORCE THE MOST DIFFICULT METHOD.

Moreover, the further we go the harder it becomes to rule even the most savage people by mere force. The European nations are more and more furnishing to the people beyond the seas whom we want to colonize, the rapid-firing weapons which are made use of by them, to attack or resist our rule. The material interests of Europe then, as well as humanitarian considerations, condemn violence and force as a means of colonization.

#### OBSERVE THE GREATEST LOYALTY IN DEALING WITH THE NATIVES.

Before all, however, we must observe the greatest possible loyalty in our relations with the natives, whatever the stage of civilization they may have arrived at. We are in the habit of speaking of "Oriental duplicity." We should be careful, however, not to give occasion to the people who are less civilized than ourselves, and with whom we come in contact, to speak of "Occidental duplicity."

### THE GOVERNMENT OF THE MALAY FEDERATED STATES AND THE SHARE OF THE EUROPEANS AND NATIVES, RESPECTIVELY, IN THEIR ADMINISTRATION.

The government and methods of administration in the communities of the Malayan Peninsula, which were a few years ago brought under British direction and order and good government brought out of confusion and misrule, are looked upon by many as an especially interesting object lesson, in view of the similarity of conditions there to those in the Philippines, both as to race, climate, and general location. The present system of government consists of a high commissioner, who is the governor-general of the adjoining Straits Settlements. In each Malayan State there is a British resident-general, who is responsible to the high commissioner and who consults with and aids the sultan or native ruler of the State in making and administering laws. In addition to this there is in each State an elective council, which enacts laws and regulations, except those relating to finance; but these are subject to the approval of the high commissioner, who also establishes the financial system. These legislative councils of the various States also meet annually in a joint council for the discussion of topics of finance and general administration and make recommendations to the State councils and to the high commissioner. Uniform courts of justice and procedure have been established in various States, in some of the more important of these British magistrates presiding, while less important cases are tried before the native headman. The police system includes about 2,000 persons, of which number about 30 are Europeans. Under this general system the States have prospered greatly. Their total revenue, which in 1895 amounted to \$8,481,007, was in 1899 \$14,733,001. The commercial development has been equally rapid and gratifying. The exports have increased from \$31,622,805 in 1895 to \$54,895,139 in 1899, and the imports from \$23,653,271 in 1895 to \$33,765,073 in 1899. Railway construction is making rapid progress, roads being opened, telegraph lines built, and the productive capacity of the country greatly increased. The area is in round terms 25,000 square miles and the population 500,000.

#### DESCRIPTION OF THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE GOVERNMENT.

The following account of the organization and administration of the Federated Malay States is from the New York Tribune of January 20, 1899:

Twenty-five years ago to-day the engagement of Pangkor was made. The anniversary may pass unmarked by ceremonial, but it suggests an ancient saw: "What man hath done," said the old copybooks, "man may do again." The saying is as true as it is trite. Especially true is it when the men who strived are akin to those who achieved, and when the attempt is made in circumstances like those in which the former task was done. It will be of interest, and perhaps instructive and inspiring, then to recall what has recently been done in the way of governing East Indian tribes, since the men who have done it are of our own blood, speech, and temperament, and the tribes governed bear a close resemblance in character and condition to those which the fortunes of war have committed to our charge in the Philippine Archipelago. Here is a plain tale, not from the hills, but from the straits; the story of a quarter of a century of Anglo-Saxon administration in the Golden Chersonese:

#### THE CAUSES OF BRITISH INTERVENTION.

First, the causes that led to British intervention in the Malay States. It is the same old story. Time was when the Malay States of the peninsula between the Indian Ocean and the South China Sea enjoyed a fairly settled government, of a primitive type. That was about the time when Portuguese adventurers began to explore and to exploit that quarter of the globe. During the sixteenth century the Portuguese traders found security and encouragement in those States. But it was their fatuous policy to take all they could get from the natives in the way of profit, and to give them nothing in the way of instruction and civilization. Such was the policy of the Dutch, also, who followed them at Malacca in 1641; and that was, indeed, the general policy of all European nations in those days toward those whom they deemed inferior races.

The result was natural. The limited contact with Europeans did the natives no good, and much harm. They absorbed the vices but not the virtues of the visitors. Their native Governments declined in authority and power. Population decreased. Trade suffered. Wars on land and piracy at sea became chronic and widely prevalent. There was no order nor security outside the walls of the foreign "factories." Early in the present century the British East India Company acquired its Straits Settlements and introduced a new foreign factor into the problem. It was a new, but not a different, factor. The British pursued practically the same policy as the Portuguese and Dutch. They held aloof from the native States, and left the latter to "stew in their own juice." And when in time the British Crown succeeded the East India Company, and the Indian Empire was established, the same policy was maintained. The condition of the

native states went steadily from bad to worse. The Malay chiefs and sultans could not keep order, or would not, and the secret societies in the large Chinese population constantly fomented trouble. On land there was a wretched mixture of tyranny and anarchy, and on the seas piracy prevailed as nowhere else in the world.

#### BARBARISM OR GOVERNMENT BY EXPERIENCED HANDS.

Such a state of affairs could not last forever. Unable to stand alone, the States were doomed either to fall into utter barbarism or to be made objects of ruthless and selfish conquest, unless some benevolent power should come to their aid. In their extremity some of the native chiefs of Perak, Selangor, and Negeri Sembilan turned to the British governor of the Straits Settlements for salvation. They asked him to intervene in their domestic affairs and rescue the land from anarchy. Nor was the choice of a savior ill-made. Great Britain had, as we have seen, held aloof from the native States, just as Portugal and Holland had done. Perhaps she had actually come less into contact with them than had either of the others. She was of an entirely different race and creed and manner from those nations and from the native States. She was as foreign and as strange, that is to say, to the Malays as we are to the Filipinos. That in itself was an advantage. She had, moreover, this other inestimable advantage, that she was a country of the most complete civil and religious liberty and therefore was exceptionally well fitted to deal with States populated partly by Mohammedans, partly by Chinese Buddhists, and partly by utter pagans. It will not escape observation that the Philippines, too, are largely thus populated, about one-third of the people and some of the most important native chieftains being Mohammedans, while a large Chinese population exists, permeated by secret societies; nor is it to be assumed that Americans are less inclined to tolerance of creeds and to civil liberty than is the other branch of the English-speaking race.

#### APPEAL FOR BRITISH AID.

That the Malay chiefs took these facts into account in appealing to the British governor does not appear. They knew him simply as a just man and an able and successful administrator. Nor does it appear that he engaged the consideration of the British Government in the matter. On the contrary, he seems to have acted upon his personal responsibility and to have taken counsel only with himself. He responded favorably to the Malay appeal. He went to Perak and investigated the state of the case. He talked it over with the Sultan of Perak, who was with difficulty holding his place against a rival claimant of the throne, and with the chief men of that and other States. And finally, without seeking special authority from the home Government and without any preliminary flourish of proclamatory trumpets, he made with the native rulers of the three States named the engagement of Pangkor. That memorable instrument was framed and signed on January 20, 1874—just twenty-five years ago—and it marked the dawn of the new era in the Malay Peninsula.

Under this engagement the native rulers were confirmed in their places. The title of the Sultan of Perak was confirmed against the pretender. The general administration of affairs, including the collection of taxes, the appointment of officials, etc., was to be conducted in the name of the native sultans and chiefs. In form everything was to go on just as before; but there was to be thenceforth a British resident in the country, whose advice was to be asked by the native rulers and was to be acted upon in all matters not pertaining to the religion and customs of the natives; and under him there were to be a few other British officers. Otherwise the government was to be conducted by the natives.

In putting this system into effect Sir Andrew Clarke had regard for the primitive, almost childlike, nature of the natives, and aimed at controlling them chiefly by personal influence. He had personal interviews with the native chiefs and persuaded them that good government would be to their personal advantage. They would have the same pomp and power as before, and perhaps an even larger revenue. To such presentments of the case he found them willing to listen, and by them to be swayed. The allegiance of the Malays was thus readily gained for his administration. With the Chinese he dealt with similar tact. He did not make the blunder of trying to repress or to suppress the secret societies. On the contrary, he encouraged them to maintain their organizations, and to meet openly. But he gave the headmen of them to understand that they would be held personally responsible for the conduct of the societies. The result was that the leaders became his lieutenants, and transformed the societies into agencies for supporting the administration.

The financial affairs of the States needed and received especial attention. Tax-gathering had been farmed out, and had been conducted by the familiar oriental method of "squeezing." Sir Andrew proposed to stop all that. The revenue was to be put upon a business basis. Taxes were to be honestly levied and collected under British supervision, and the sultans and chiefs were to receive stated civil lists. Thus the actual revenue to the governments of the States would be increased, while the burden upon the people would be decreased. Finally, he aimed at making commerce and industry secure and abolishing slavery. To such extent would he impose alien practices on the natives. For the execution of this scheme he made only five appointments of British officers, namely, a resident for each of the three States, and an assistant resident for each of two of them. These he chose after careful examination and trial in other official places, with sole regard to their fitness for the duties they were to perform. They were men who had experience in dealing with the natives, who were familiar with the native languages and customs, and who possessed both energy and tact. These officers held courts of justice, which they conducted in some such informal manner as that of the courts of frontier settlements—a system that strongly appealed to the Malays. They organized a native police service, closely supervised the collection of taxes, and in general endeavored to "run the country" for the greatest good of the governed.

#### HOW THE OBSTACLES WERE MET.

Obstacles arose. That was to be expected. They were partly native and partly British. It was not until he had made the engagement of Pangkor and organized the administration under it that Sir Andrew Clarke sought the sanction of his governmental superiors. He first reported what he had done to the Straits Government at Singapore, and asked its sanction for his "imperialistic" policy, which was conditionally granted. The approval of the London Government was not so readily and fully secured. Fickly critics there were afraid he was trampling upon the rights of the natives; that he would not make his residents sufficiently abase themselves and exalt the sultans and chiefs. Nevertheless, though with fear and trembling, they let him go.

Other troubles arose from the native chiefs. They presently began to show backsliding tendencies. They wanted to squeeze the taxpayers, as of old, and to play fast and loose with the rights of property and life. In brief, they wanted to get all the good they could out of the engagement, but not to be themselves bound by it. Perhaps the most obstreperous of them all was that very Sultan of Perak, who owed his throne to British intervention.

Happily, Sir Andrew Clarke was both prompt and resolute in action, as a man must be to deal with such matters. He kindly but firmly read the riot act. He told the Sultan of Perak and the rest of the disaffected chiefs flatly what they must do and must not do. "Must" is a word whose meaning is understood by such folk far better than "ought." He did not, however, neglect to enforce the moral obligation, as well as the physical necessity of obedience. He quoted the Koran to the Sultan, with good effect, and succeeded in convincing him that his interests in both this world and the next required him to observe faithfully the terms of the engagement. The Sultan yielded, though reluctantly, and to console himself took not to drink, but to opium, and soon became a wreck. Then his old rival cropped up again with a formidable backing, and there was danger of civil war or anarchy.

At this juncture Sir Andrew Clarke was succeeded by Sir William Jervois, also a man of firm and decisive character. He unhesitatingly told the chiefs that if they would not listen to British advice, as they had agreed to in the engagement, they would have to yield to British control. If they would not or could not keep the engagement, the British Government would take the administration of affairs into its own hands, in both name and fact. They hesitated and quibbled. Then some Mohammedan fanatics murdered the British residents in Perak. Instantly Sir William ordered in a body of Indian troops. The action of the latter was brief, but emphatic and decisive. The insurgents were crushed and cowed with a single blow. The people and the chiefs alike were made to realize that British power was as irresistible as British rule was just and benevolent. The Perak murderers were taken, tried, convicted, and punished. The faithless or worthless Sultan was sent out of the country, and a regent put into his place. And in a twinkling order was restored and the authority of the British residents established. There has been no outbreak since.

## LEGISLATIVE BODIES ORGANIZED.

The principle of control was now fully established, and its details were wrought out and applied. A legislative council was provided for each State, composed partly of British and partly of native members. The policy was to make as much use of native material as possible, and to train the Malays to work together with the British harmoniously for a common end. The native chiefs were retained in office, to act conjointly with the councils and to be educated and trained by the councils in what was practically constitutional government. In local affairs the native headmen were retained as the chief authorities in the villages, under strict accountability to the residents. The native police, which Sir Andrew Clarke had founded, was confirmed and increased in effectiveness under native officers, but, of course, under general British direction. It was, however, arranged that the members of the police force were not to serve in the States of which they were natives. In addition, each resident had a small guard of Sikhs and Pathans. For the districts in which Chinese settlers were numerous—that is to say, in the mining region—Chinese headmen were chosen.

## THE SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT.

In addition to the residents, there was appointed in each State a British treasurer, who should receive all taxes levied by the State, and in each district a native collector, who should collect the taxes and turn them in to the treasurer. A British auditor was also appointed, who should go about among the collectors, examining their accounts and supervising their general conduct. By such means the object aimed at by Sir Andrew Clarke was attained, namely, the lightening of the burden of taxation to the people, and at the same time the increase in effective value of the revenue of the State. It may be recalled that in 1877, the first year in which this system was in complete operation, the revenue of the three States was \$640,000, and the expenditures \$622,000. The sultans and chiefs received civil lists of \$80,000, the residents and other officers received \$250,000, and the police force of 800 men cost \$112,000.

## LOCAL DEVELOPMENT.

Under this system all the interests of the States were promoted. The residents cared not only for the tin mines, the chief industry of the peninsula, but for agriculture as well. Good roads were built, the system now including thousands of miles. Irrigation was introduced and extended. A scientific forestry service was organized. Railroads were built—there are now about 200 miles of them. Schools were opened. And, in brief, the States were endowed with all the appurtenances of civilization and started fairly on the road to enlightenment.

All this, as we have seen, was done with a staff of British officials that seemed absurdly small in contrast with the scope and amount of work performed. Never, perhaps, unless in the case of the illustrious Gordon in China and in the Soudan, has so much been achieved by so small a staff. The secret of it, or the secrets, rather, may readily be discerned. They had been, as we have said, selected solely for merit and ability, and they were accordingly capable of doing the largest amount of work in the best possible manner. They were not novices nor raw recruits; they were experts and veterans. And, in the second place, they succeeded in educating and disciplining the natives, Malays and Chinese, into efficient and trustworthy aids.

## THE SLAVERY PROBLEM.

One of the most difficult problems to deal with was slavery. That abominable institution existed, in one form or another, in all the States. It must be abolished, for it was altogether repugnant to the genius of British civilization. Yet it was so closely connected with the customs, if not the religion, of the natives that any abrupt attack upon it would seem like infringing upon them, and that the British were pledged not to do. But a little tact and patience solved the problem. Time, education, and moral influence, said the governor, will do all. In Selangor and Negri Sembilan slavery was not officially sanctioned by the native rulers, but was tacitly countenanced as a method of collecting debts. Insolvent debtors were seized by their creditors and set to "working out" their indebtedness; and it usually took one a lifetime to do it. In those States the residents simply discussed the matter with the sultans, and persuaded them to have all such cases adjudicated by the courts, so that it might be determined just how long each man must work in order to free himself; and also to forbid the continuation of the system by extension to new cases. Thus, in a short time, slavery was abolished, without any formal proclamation on the subject.

In Perak the case was worse. Slavery and slave trading existed there in their most detestable forms. Not only was a debtor enslaved, but so were his wife and children and his children's children forever. There was also, especially among the Chinese, much enslavement of women for immoral purposes. The first step taken by the resident there was to refuse to assist, or to let his subordinates assist, in capturing runaway slaves. That is, he repudiated the fugitive slave law. Next, he insisted that creditors must accept payment of debts, and thereupon grant full release to the enslaved debtors and their families. In the third place, he forbade the enslavement of any more free men. In the fourth place, cruelty to slaves was prohibited. And finally he prevailed upon the native government to redeem all remaining slaves by itself paying their debts. This last step was taken in the fall of 1882, the act of manumission to be completed in one year from that time. The result of it was that masters everywhere, in an enthusiastic impulse, set their slaves free "for the glory of God!" and refused to accept any ransom for them from the State, while the slaves refused to leave their masters, but remained with them as voluntary servants at any rate of wages the masters might give. Thus slavery vanished from all the States.

## A FEDERATION OF THE STATES EFFECTED.

These administrative reforms naturally brought to the States increased prosperity, wealth, and population, and these latter, in turn, exerted a reflex influence upon the administration, requiring it to become more complex. There was more to be done, and more administrative departments and offices were required. Then the adjoining State of Pahang asked to have the same beneficent system extended to it. The solution of the problems thus raised was found in federation. This was effected only a short time ago. In July, 1895, the four States of Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan, and Pahang were, by treaty, united under a common administrative head, the union becoming effective a year later, in July, 1896. All the four federated States were formally placed under British protection. A British resident-general was appointed, to have supervision and control over them all, and a federal army of Indian troops was brought in for general service. Under this general administration each State was to remain autonomous, with its own resident, council, and native sultan, chiefs, etc. The Mahometan and other native religions were to be scrupulously respected. The States were to furnish troops for the Imperial army, if needed, and uniformity of laws and administration was to be established with respect to State railroads, banks, immigration, survey and titles of land, forestry, sanitation, harbor regulations, fisheries, etc.

The organization of the federated system was effected on the following plan:

The governor of the Straits Settlements was the high commissioner and the direct representative of the British Crown.

Next came the resident-general, who was responsible to the high commissioner, and who reported to him, and to whom the sultans and chiefs might make appeal or with whom they might consult.

There was also a federal council, composed of the mixed legislative councils of the States, all meeting together, under the presidency of the high commissioner, or, in his absence, of the resident-general, or, in his absence, of the sultan of the State in which it met. It was to meet yearly in each of the States in turn. Its functions were not to be legislative, but merely advisory to the State councils. The first meeting of it was held in Perak in July, 1897, lasting four days, and marked with the pomp and circumstance which are so dear to the Oriental fancy and so impressive to the Oriental mind. It considered numerous topics of finance and general administration, and made to the State councils various recommendations, which were acted upon with profit.

Each State retained its resident as before, he being responsible to the resident-general, and its own legislative council. All financial control was, however, withheld from the councils and vested in the residents, and all legislation enacted by the councils was required to be submitted to and approved by the high commissioner.

A permanent civil service was established, federal in scope, all members of it being eligible to transfer or promotion from one State to another. All appointments were to be for merit only, after competitive examination; the appointments to be made by the residents, and, in the highest grades, with the approval of the resident-general; and removals to be for cause only, and none over the \$300 salary grade to be removed without the assent of the resident-general, and none over the \$600 grade without the assent of the high commissioner.

Uniform courts of justice and code of procedure were established, with a federal judicial commissioner (British) to go on circuit to hear appeals and try capital cases, and a federal legal adviser (British) to draft laws for the State councils. In each State some British magistrates were appointed, but the native headmen were left in authority as petty justices.

Each State had its own police force, but the system was uniform in all. The total force in the federation comprised only 29 Europeans, officers and inspectors; 518 Sikhs and Pathans, officers, noncommissioned, orderlies, and constables; and 1,430 Malays, noncommissioned, detectives, privates, charge takers, etc. The prison systems of all the States were made uniform. The police and prisons of each State were put under the direct and sole control of the resident, subject to instructions from the resident-general or high commissioner.

A federal commissioner of lands and mines was appointed, who framed uniform codes of land tenure and mining regulations, which were adopted by all the States.

A federal commissioner for Chinese affairs was charged with the supervision of that element of the population which formed a sort of "imperium in imperio."

The scheme also provided for a federal chief engineer of public works, chief railway engineer, chief surveyor, chief accountant, chief surgeon, inspector of schools, and inspector of ports and telegraphs. All these officers were, of course, to be Europeans, at least for the present.

The cost of all this administration was to be divided among the States in proportion not to their population, but to their revenue. Thus the rich and prosperous States were made to help the poorer, and all were moved, through mutual beneficence and singleness of aim, toward higher prosperity.

That system, adopted at the time of federation, is the one now in force in the federated Malay States. At the present time the total yearly revenue of all four States is about \$8,500,000, and the expenditures about the same. Fifty per cent of the money is spent for roads, railroads, bridges, and other public works. The value of foreign trade in 1896 was above \$28,400,000 exports and \$21,000,000 imports, a total of about \$50,000,000—a very good amount for a population of only about 500,000.

#### PEACE, PROSPERITY, CIVILIZATION.

Such is the story of British administration in the protected and federated States of the Malay Peninsula. The net result of it is peace, prosperity, and civilization. Broils on land and piracy on sea are now no more. Slavery is abolished. "Squeezing" is known no more. Taxes are lighter, yet the effective revenue is vastly increased, and public works of incalculable beneficence are being executed on a scale not dreamed of a generation ago. The country has been opened up to industry of all kinds. Justice has been made uniform and impartial, and all men equal before the law.

And all this has been accomplished without a war, with scarcely any action by the Imperial Government, and chiefly through the agency of the natives themselves. The native chiefs have been made to feel that they are still chiefs, and the native people that they are still under native rule. Warring tribes have been developed and consolidated into a nation, and that nation has been put well on the high road to advanced civilization and a place in the community of enlightened States. There has been no fighting. No additional burden has been laid upon the "weary Titan." Not a shilling has been taken from the pocket of the British taxpayer. No self-seeking "chartered company" has been enriched at the expense of justice and liberty. No "tyranny over subject races" has been exercised. There has been nothing but firm, yet kind, leadership of a people not yet able to maintain their freedom without such tutelage. Indeed, we might not inappropriately apply to the Malay States the words of our own constitution, and say that through the protection and control and guidance of British administrators justice has been established, domestic tranquillity has been secured, the common defense has been provided for, the general welfare has been promoted, and the blessings of liberty have been secured to the people and to their posterity.

#### A MESSAGE OF ENCOURAGEMENT AND INSTRUCTION.

Such is the story of a quarter century, rounded and complete to-day, and bearing from the Far East its rich message of admonition and of encouragement, of instruction and of inspiration, to a nation kindred to that which wrote it, and which wrought the deeds it tells, now moving into that same Far East to deal with like problems among like peoples. It is a story of what men have done. There remains for this nation to prove the old saying true and to show that other men, of the same blood and race and speech and thought and aim, can do the same again.

#### DESCRIPTION OF THE MALAY FEDERATION, BY SIR ANDREW CLARKE, UNDER WHOM THE FEDERATION WAS FORMED.

The following account of the organization of the Malay federation is by Sir Andrew Clarke, by whom that organization was formed during his service as governor of the Straits Settlements. The statement was published in the British Empire Series in 1890:—

I welcome the opportunity which has been afforded to me of saying something upon the subject of the Malay States, not only because I believe that there are certain lessons of imperial importance to be learned from the brief page of history I am about to recount, but because I consider that these States offer an opening to commercial enterprise as yet insufficiently realized.

I have thought a slight sketch of the manner in which these States were opened to British commerce might not be without interest and, perhaps, instruction. A glance at the map suffices to show the importance of the control of the eastern seaboard of the Malay Peninsula to the Empire. A rich and increasing stream of British trade skirts it for 350 miles.

Singapore, thanks to the genius of Sir Stamford Raffles, first occupied in 1819, has become at once a great distributing center and the most important strategic position in the western seas. Earlier history knew little of Singapore, however, and Malacca was the commercial emporium in the sixteenth century, when conditions differed widely. Malacca was taken by the Portuguese in 1511 and held till 1641, when the Dutch stepped in, to be in turn dispossessed by England in 1795. Opinions as to the relative values of distant possessions were somewhat vague at this period, and Malacca was given back to Holland in 1818, to be resumed by treaty in 1824 in exchange for a port in Sumatra. The effect of this treaty was to render the Dutch supreme in Sumatra, and practically to transfer to England all such rights as had previously been claimed by Holland in respect to the Malay Peninsula.

As early as 1786 the East India Company obtained the cession of the island of Penang from the Rajah of Kedah, and a strip of mainland—the province of Wellesley—was similarly acquired two years later. The four settlements—Singapore, Malacca, Penang, and the province of Wellesley—remained under the jurisdiction of the East India Company from 1827 to 1867, when they were constituted into a Crown Colony. The foothold thus established on the peninsula brought Great Britain into contact with native States in various stages of anarchy, whose perpetual quarrels became more and more intolerable.



## INTERNAL STRIFE REQUIRED ACTION.

The internal troubles of the peninsula reached a crisis in 1872, when, in addition to the squabbles of the Malay chieftains, the Chinese miners in Larut divided themselves into two camps and carried on organized warfare, involving much bloodshed. The defeated party betook itself to piracy, and the coast was virtually in a state of blockade.

This was the situation on my arrival at Singapore in November, 1873.

The coasting trade was everywhere stopped, and even the fishermen were afraid to put to sea. The senior naval officer informed me that the vessels at his disposal were quite inadequate to deal effectively with the widespread piracy existing. As the chief justice of the Straits Settlements (Sir T. Sidgreaves) stated in the legislative council on September 13, 1874, "These outrages and piracies have been a scandal to the British name, happening, as they have, at so small a distance from our shores."

My instructions were simple. The colonial office was thoroughly dissatisfied with the state of affairs in the peninsula. I was to make it the subject of careful inquiry and report my views as soon as possible. I fear that in some quarters there lurks a belief in the efficacy of reports to cure ills. I am not quite sure how many distinguished persons have been severally called upon to report—on Egypt, for example. My own experience of the uses of reports does not tend to a high appreciation of their practical value, and the war office is at this moment crammed with such documents, the majority of which have never been even studied, still less acted upon. Reporting alone scarcely seemed to meet the grave urgency of the situation. It was necessary to act in the first place, and to report afterwards.

## THE FIRST CONSULTATION WITH THE NATIVE CHIEFS.

Arrangements were accordingly made for a meeting of the Perak chiefs, with a view to settle definitely the disputed succession to the Sultanate, and a series of articles were laid before them which, after full explanation, were unanimously accepted. These articles stipulated for the appointment of British residents at Perak and Larut, under whose advice the general administration and the collection of revenue was to be carried on. After some difficulty I succeeded in obtaining an interview with the Sultan of Salangore and concluding a similar arrangement with him, while a small naval force proceeded up the Lingie and destroyed without opposition some stockades, with the result that similar measures of pacification became practicable in Sungei Ujong.

The principles on which I acted were very simple. Personal influence has always great effect upon natives of the type of the Perak chiefs, and this influence I endeavored to apply. Where it was possible I sought interviews with them and pointed out the effect of the evils from which the country was suffering. Their real interests were peace, trade, and the opening up of their country. In place of anarchy and irregular revenues I held out the prospects of peace and plenty. I found them in cotton; I told them that if they would trust me I would clothe them in silk. Their rule had resulted in failure; I offered them advisers who would restore order from chaos without curtailing their sovereignty. They were willing to listen to reason, as the vast majority of persons, whether wearing silk hats or turbans, usually are; and since I have often wondered how many of our useless, expensive, and demoralizing small wars might have been avoided by similar modes of procedure. The temptations to make war are far stronger than is generally known. A butcher's bill appeals to the dullest imagination and speedily brings down rewards and honors which the mere negotiator, however successful, can not hope to obtain. Perhaps some future analyst of causation will be able to tell us for how much slaughter and wasted treasure decorations are responsible.

## THE CHINESE.

It was not with the Malay chieftains alone that I was called upon to deal. The troubles of the peninsula were largely due to the fighting proclivities of the Chinese, supported by secret societies, which were directed by influential Chinamen even in Singapore itself. The Chinese secret society is a bugbear to some minds, and I may be pardoned for a brief reference to it. Secret societies are the natural and inevitable outcome of an arbitrary and oppressive government, such as exists in China, and the Chinaman, having acquired the hereditary habit of creating such organizations, carries it with him to the country of his adoption. In China the secret society is doubtless almost entirely political, constituting a danger to the State. Transplanted to another country, it entails no necessary political dangers and becomes practically a species of guild for mutual protection of the nature of a benefit or burial club. Such combinations do, however, frequently lend themselves to lawlessness and crime, or even, as in Larut, to the civil war of rival factions. The main evil is the secrecy observed in the deliberations and proceedings of these societies. Try to suppress them altogether and you will drive them deeper below the surface and render them really dangerous. On the other hand, recognize them as long as they keep within the confines of law, insist as far as possible upon open meetings and publicity of accounts, and you will find them a powerful lever ready to your hand. You will be able to hold the leaders responsible for illegality; you may even manipulate the secret society to your own ends. This was the course pursued with success in the case of the Malay States, and I am indebted to the chiefs of the Chinese secret societies for support readily accorded as soon as they understood the principles upon which my action was based.

Finally, I considered it was desirable to take the opportunity to settle some outstanding territorial questions. The farther boundary of the province of Wellesley had never been defined, and undefined boundaries are as fruitful a source of war as of civil litigation. The Sultan of Perak was willing to settle the question in a way which was completely satisfactory. At the same time our long-settled claims upon the Dindings were satisfactorily adjusted, and this position, important as controlling one of the great waterways of the peninsula, became an undisputed possession of Great Britain.

In all these proceedings I received the warm support of the legislature of Singapore and the community at large, while to Lord Carnarvon and the permanent officials of the colonial office I owe a debt of gratitude for their encouragement and appreciation during a period of much anxiety.

On the 18th of March, 1874, the chamber of commerce of the Straits Settlements adopted the following resolution:

"The chamber of commerce, having taken into consideration the engagements lately entered into between the chiefs of Perak in the presence of his excellency the governor, desires respectfully to express its entire approval of the measures adopted to put a stop to the piracy and misrule which have so long prevailed in that province, and sincerely trusts that his excellency will continue to perform the just, firm, and conciliatory policy thus inaugurated until the whole of the so-called independent States shall be brought under similar control."

On the 11th of March there appeared a letter in the Times which referred to the new steps, then just taken, and to myself, as follows:

"If it should prove successful, as there is every reason to expect, he will be entitled to the merit of beginning the conversion of what has been since the memory of man a wilderness into a flourishing and wealthy territory."

## A FRENCH VIEW OF THE RESULT.

This prophecy has received a remarkable fulfillment, and before setting forth some of the statistics, which prove a development of trade almost unprecedented under the circumstances, I should like to quote the words of a French witness, whose own writings sufficiently preclude any suspicion of partiality.

M. de la Croix, in a paper published under the authority of the Government of France on the political geography and the commercial situation of the Malay Peninsula, states:

"The old state of things, exclusively feudal and tyrannical, has given place to a régime of justice and liberty, in conformity with our social ideas. Piracy has been suppressed; slavery has been abolished. \* \* \* Schools have been everywhere established, spreading instruction among the native classes. Several museums have been started, and science thus receives its due. \* \* \* We shall see that the civilized world has only to be proud of the initiative taken by England in the Malay Peninsula. She has opened new

and rich regions, established a solid government, which assures complete security, which gives the heartiest welcome to all well-meaning workers, whatever their nationality, and gives them the support and encouragement which one meets with in all English colonies."

These words contain a remarkable tribute to the success which has attended British administration in the Malay Peninsula; and when it is remembered that the results pointed out by M. de la Croix—with the single exception of the little expedition of 1875-76—have been won without the expenditure of blood or money, I think our achievements may be regarded with legitimate pride. The new departure was stigmatized at the time by its detractors as "a policy of adventure." History will perhaps record another verdict, and I imagine that the secret of imperial as of commercial success lies in knowing when to adventure.

#### HOW PRODUCTION AND COMMERCE HAVE GROWN.

Judged by any test whatever, the results of the British protectorate of the peninsula are remarkable. The following table, taken from the latest official report, shows the growth of trade in Perak:

YEARS.	Imports.	Exports.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
1876.....	831,375	1,739,971
1877.....	965,894	1,075,423
1878.....	1,311,139	1,256,162
1879.....	1,781,979	1,465,546
1880.....	2,231,047	1,906,952
1881.....	2,936,892	2,566,591
1882.....	3,866,424	3,267,906
1883.....	4,772,331	5,164,310
1884.....	6,047,693	5,393,995
1885.....	5,811,605	6,569,466
1886.....	5,586,562	8,674,031
1887.....	6,951,962	12,249,334
1888.....	7,998,365	11,799,653
1893.....	10,188,448	14,499,475
1896.....	8,713,940	14,289,680
1897.....	10,075,969	14,442,428
1898.....	10,759,096	16,702,278
1899.....	11,615,260	25,707,051

Nothing could more effectively prove the rapid and steady development of the producing power of this State.

In the little State of Selangor, with an estimated area of only 3,000 square miles, which in 1873 had practically no trade at all, the growth in the last fourteen years has been even more striking, as shown below:

YEARS.	Imports.	Exports.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
1882.....	1,188,417	1,707,331
1883.....	1,526,614	2,253,636
1884.....	1,824,859	2,142,307
1885.....	2,275,391	2,544,947
1886.....	4,178,856	3,741,642
1887.....	5,052,113	5,901,786
1888.....	8,207,106	6,779,357
1893.....	9,274,049	10,271,808
1896.....	9,131,195	12,006,108
1897.....	11,407,017	12,246,639
1898.....	13,045,127	13,779,941
1899.....	18,008,485	20,894,185

The revenue also has literally advanced by "leaps and bounds," as the following statement proves:

#### REVENUE OF THE PROTECTED MALAY STATES AND STRAITS SETTLEMENTS FOR THE YEARS 1876-1899.

YEAR.	Perak.	Selangor.	Sungei Ujong.	Total.	Straits Settlements.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
1876.....	273,043	193,476	94,478	560,997	1,659,034
1877.....	312,872	226,853	97,707	637,432	1,723,466
1878.....	328,608	189,897	75,898	594,403	1,724,466
1879.....	388,372	184,387	76,632	649,391	1,822,651
1880.....	582,496	215,614	83,800	881,910	2,361,300
1881.....	692,861	235,227	97,665	1,025,753	2,433,821
1882.....	905,386	300,423	109,413	1,315,222	2,465,153
1883.....	1,474,230	450,644	117,145	2,042,119	3,049,220
1884.....	1,532,497	494,843	121,176	2,148,516	3,515,841
1885.....	1,522,085	566,411	120,214	2,208,710	3,508,074
1886.....	1,688,276	689,401	120,740	2,498,417	3,747,501
1887.....	1,827,477	1,153,897	141,502	3,122,876	3,847,653
1888.....	2,016,240	1,416,795	155,951	3,588,986	3,858,108
1893.....	3,034,093	2,765,351	.....	.....	.....
1896.....	3,960,371	3,756,936	.....	.....	.....
1897.....	3,837,559	3,688,391	.....	.....	.....
1898.....	4,575,842	3,862,439	.....	.....	.....
1899.....	6,580,306	6,692,330	.....	.....	.....

This plainly shows also how the resources of the Straits Settlements have expanded in sympathy with that of the satellite protected States.

#### POPULATION HAS RAPIDLY INCREASED.

Equally remarkable has been the effect of the protectorate in regard to the increase of population. Perak, with 25,000 souls in 1874, had 55,880 in 1879; in 1888, 194,801; in 1896, 280,093. Clearly British rule has attractions in this part of the world.

Real crime in these lately wild and semibarbarous States is wonderfully small. "It is certainly remarkable," writes Mr. Swetten-

ham, "that with such a community, living under such conditions as those which obtain in Selangor, twelve months should elapse with the commission of one murder and one gang robbery, where four of the members were arrested and convicted, while part of the stolen property was recovered."

#### RAILWAYS OPENED.

The 20 miles of railway opened in 1887 in Selangor pay a dividend of 25 per cent, and the 8 miles completed in Perak in 1888 pay 8½ per cent.

I might indefinitely multiply figures to prove the extraordinary advance in material prosperity which has taken place in the Malay Peninsula, but the above are sufficiently significant for my purpose. There is probably no instance where native States have been handled with such success, and I ask the reader to mark the methods adopted. "It is very simple," says M. de St. Croix; "the majority of the old native sovereigns have not only been preserved, but have received higher titles and a more complete confirmation of their hereditary rights. By their side are placed residents, charged with advising them, to follow the official term, but who, in reality, administer the country." In a word, in our conserving old titles and old feudal institutions as far as possible, dealing gently with local prejudice and wielding powers through the medium of the native rulers, whom our residents advise. Had this "simple" method been tried in upper Burma, I venture to think that much trouble and loss of life might have been spared, and that our position there to-day would be far more satisfactory than it is. Possibly the explanation may be sought in the presence of Burma of a large military force—a condition almost invariably hostile to the peaceful settlement of uncivilized countries. The simple methods pursued in the Malay Peninsula would have sufficed ere this to reopen commerce with the eastern Soudan and throw Manchester goods into Suakim. The very opposite policy has been hitherto adopted, and I conceive that few people are satisfied with the result.

#### THE LABOR QUESTION.

The Malay States need population, the opening up of communications, and capital. Hitherto the labor market has been supplied almost solely by Chinese, and the experiment of colonization from India remains to be tried. There is no objection whatever to the experiment. Portions of India are becoming overpopulated by people who are ready and willing workers, such as the Malay States need for their full development. Under proper supervision, the excess labor of the one country could be made to supply the wants of the other. I confess, however, that I am not sanguine of seeing this system of natural compensation going on within the limits of the empire, and for many years, at least, it is from China that the States must obtain their labor.

The result of our "policy of adventure" is one of which England may well be proud. A country of which, in 1873, there was no map whatever has been thrown open to the enterprise of the world. Ages of perpetual fighting and bloodshed has ended in complete tranquillity and contentment. Life is as safe as in many parts of Europe. All this has been accomplished almost without the application of force.

The contact between the civilization of the European races and effete semibarbarous States has occurred all over the world. Its immediate results have differed widely. Some races have succeeded; others have signally failed. This contact has, in some cases, been marked by mutual savagery, in others by mutual deterioration. I do pretend that in our dealings with the native States of the Malay Peninsula we have been actuated by a spirit of pure disinterestedness. I do not claim that our action will bear a close scrutiny, and that it has resulted in almost unmingled good to the States themselves, while a new and rich field has been opened out to the commerce of all nations.

### THE GOVERNMENT OF CEYLON AND THE SHARE OF EUROPEANS AND NATIVES, RESPECTIVELY, IN ITS ADMINISTRATION.

The method by which over 3,000,000 people in Ceylon are governed and the island developed through the agency of a total English population of about 6,000 may be briefly outlined as follows:

The government is administered by a governor-general, aided by an executive council, composed of the lieutenant-governor, colonial secretary, commander of the troops, attorney-general, auditor-general, and treasurer. For legislative purposes this executive council is enlarged by the addition of four other officeholders and eight nominated members.

The island is divided into nine provinces, each of which is presided over by a Government agent, who, with his assistants, administers law through the native headmen and their subordinates in the native communities. The basis of the legal administration is the Roman-Dutch law, modified by certain features of the English law and colonial ordinances, together with a criminal law modeled upon the Indian penal code. There is a supreme court and superior courts, courts of request, and, below these, village councils organized with power to deal with petty offenses and trivial claims, and presided over by native officials.

The production of tea since its successful introduction a few years ago has added greatly to the prosperity and commerce of the island, the exports having increased from 51,127,338 rupees in 1890 to 101,576,906 rupees in 1899; and the imports from 63,091,928 rupees in 1890 to 111,992,349 rupees in 1899.

The following account of conditions in Ceylon is by L. B. Clarence, published in the British Empire Series, 1899:

Ceylon is called England's principal Crown colony. It is not a "colony" in the strict sense of the word, for "colony" properly means a body of immigrants settled in a foreign country, and the English colonists are but a very small fraction of the inhabitants of Ceylon. The island is not a dependency of our country in which Englishmen can settle permanently, as in Australia, for instance, or Canada. The tropical climate forbids that. In Ceylon, as in India, the European immigrants must always be greatly outnumbered by the sons of the soil. The dependency is called a "colony," because it is governed through the colonial office, and a "Crown" colony, because it is administered directly under the Crown, and has no responsible representative government of its own. \* \* \*

#### EUROPEAN POPULATION SMALL.

In Ceylon, as in India, the European inhabitants, by reason of the climate, can never be more than a drop in the bucket compared with the natives. The Europeans (not counting the military) number scarcely 6,000, as against something like 3,000,000 natives. And so we are responsible for the welfare of a large native population living under our rule, and entirely dependent on us for good government and administration.

Ceylon is often coupled with India. A man returned from Ceylon to England is asked about his life "in India," as though Ceylon and India must be all the same. This is not unnatural. Ceylon has much in common, at any rate, with southern India. Its inhabitants are of Indian origin. Their ancestors came from India long ago. And yet, from one cause and another, the atmosphere of life and government and administration differs perceptibly in the two countries. \* \* \*

#### DEVELOPMENT OF INDUSTRIES.

Almost from the very outset our Ceylon possessions were separated from the administration of India, and placed under the colonial department. The difference has been further accentuated during the last fifty years by the remarkable rise and development of a great European planting enterprise—first in coffee, and since in tea. This brought in its train an unofficial European element in the population,



very small in comparison with the native inhabitants, but relatively far larger and more influential than any unofficial European class in India. There are, indeed, in certain parts of India, European planters of indigo, coffee, tea; but the planting community scattered in a few districts has never influenced the administration or tinged the current of government as in Ceylon. \* \* \* A great deal of the mountain country has been transformed into tea plantations, and the forest replaced by miles on miles of trim grown tea bushes, running in lines up and down the steep slopes, amid dashing torrents and huge blocks of rock tossed about in wild confusion. All waste land is *prima facie* the property of the Crown, and for many years the Government has discontinued selling land above 5,000 feet elevation.

About five-sixths of the whole island is uncultivated, and much of this would naturally be heavy timber forest. But about sixteen years ago the Government resolved on having a thorough overhaul of the forests and the forest management in general. So they borrowed a very able forest officer from India, and he discovered that much of the valuable timber, and in fact a great deal of the forest itself, was no longer in existence. This was mainly owing to a native habit of what the Sinhalese call *chena* cultivation. A villager goes into the forest, chooses a block of land, and fells all but the largest trees. He lets the cut wood and branches dry for a month or so, and then sets fire to it as it lies. The result is a bare clearing, with here and there the blackened stumps of the larger trees. He gets one or two crops off the land, and then abandons it and chooses another plot. In this way vast tracts of forest have been destroyed, and in some places repeated operations of this kind have so exhausted the soil that only ferns will grow. A good deal of this mischief went on after the old native government had fallen to pieces, and more during the earlier years of our possession. After this unwelcome discovery the Ceylon government followed the example of the government of India and set up a regular forest department. \* \* \*

#### THE NATIVES.

There are two native races, the Sinhalese and the Tamil. The Sinhalese number about two-thirds of the native population, and inhabit the southern and south-central parts. The Tamils dwell up in the north. These Ceylon Tamils must not be confused with the Tamil coolies employed on the tea estates, who hail from certain districts in the Madras presidency, and come and go between their homes in Ceylon. The national religion of the Sinhalese is Buddhism. The Tamils worship Hindu divinities after Hindu fashion.

There are also spread throughout the island about 250,000 Mohammedans, a race of mixed Arab and Indian blood, whom we call "Moormen," because the Portuguese gave them that name. They are indefatigable traders—the Jews, one may say, of the island. The Moorman's shop is in every village, and in his smart jacket and high cap of gaudy colors marvelously adhering to his shaven skull, with his assortment of gems and curiosities, he is the first to greet the visitor on arrival. \* \* \*

#### EUROPEAN IMPORTS.

Many European importations now reach the people which their forefathers never dreamt of. You find European crockery in the villages, and boxes of matches and many other imported things. In this way the people have come to possess various useful commodities; but even this has two sides, and unfortunately many of the ancient native arts and crafts seem doomed to die out. Time was when the blacksmith used to smelt his own iron, and very good iron it was; now he finds it easier to work up old scraps of English hoop iron, or the like. Once the people wore cotton cloths woven and dyed by the weaver caste, cloths which absolutely would not wear out; now the old native webs are being superseded by English fabrics which are not so serviceable. In spite of the usefulness of some of the importations, this decay of old native crafts is much to be regretted. And we may wonder how the people reconcile missionary teaching with some of the products which reach them from Christian England—knives made to sell, not to cut; bottles and ports that hold about half their apparent contents; and flimsy cotton fabrics disguised with artificial thickening. \* \* \*

#### HOW COMMERCE WAS DEVELOPED.

It is probable that the development of commerce and of the great European planting enterprise has been more fostered and encouraged under the colonial office than they would have been under the Indian government. On the other hand, in matters of general administration and legislation and the framing of institutions for the country and its people, Ceylon might have fared better as part of our Indian Empire.

There are few tasks more difficult than that of contriving all these matters for an Eastern population very unlike ourselves, strongly attached to their own traditions, and, withal, reserved, timid, and exclusive. In India the task was approached with all the skill and talents which can be commanded by a government on a great scale. In Ceylon it was otherwise. But what is more, in India the principal advisers of the government in these matters have been men armed with all the local knowledge and experience to be gained in working lives spent in the country and among the people. The government of India is not mixed up with that of other and dissimilar parts of the world. Ceylon has been less fortunate, through sharing the cares and traditions of the colonial office with a host of colonies, for the most part extremely unlike herself, in all quarters of the globe. Thus the legislation and administration generally were the less adjusted to the needs of the country. The government was less in touch with the people, and less informed of their peculiarities. It is significant that in Ceylon the native languages are far less used than in India for the transaction of public business, and in the law courts the proceedings are conducted in English. Thus the people are placed at the mercy of lawyers and other intermediaries, native or Eurasian, and the government knows too little about them.

#### THE GOVERNMENT.

Until 1833 the interior and the coast settlements were separately administered, but then the whole island was placed on one footing. The form of government is in theory much the same as that of the Indian presidencies. The legislature, which is subject to the veto of the Crown, consists of a number of official members and a smaller number of unofficials, supposed to represent the various classes of the community, not elected, but nominated by the governor. This is a suitable form of government. To introduce anything in the shape of responsible government is, for the present at any rate, out of the question, and would be disastrously opposed to the welfare of the native community. \* \* \*

#### DEVELOPMENT OF NEW INDUSTRIES.

And now I must describe the great European planting enterprise which has developed under our rule, beginning with coffee and continued with tea. A little coffee was grown during the Dutch times, and then the trade was allowed to drop, because Java, another Dutch possession, produced as much as they cared to place on the European market. Some of the coffee cultivation lingered on to our times, and at last attracted the attention of Englishmen with capital to invest. In 1824 the first coffee estate under European management was opened. The enterprise advanced, and after 1840 went on with rapid strides. The government, as owners of the forests, sold large tracts to English planters, and the clearings climbed higher and higher up the hills. \* \* \*

About 1873 coffee planting reached its zenith. The yield was generous, and prices ruled high. Very large sums were bid for forest land, and in addition to the bona fide enterprise of hard-working planters a gambling, speculative disposition set in. Then disease attacked the bushes, and the artificial inflation rendered the downfall more headlong. The coffee was dying out, and planters and their creditors were at their wit's end. Estates were sold for a mere song. Mortgagees and owners alike lost their money, superintendents lost their pay, and even coolies lost long arrears of wages at eight pence or nine pence a day. Yet the mass of the planters never lost heart. Cinchona was tried, and at first prospered, saving many from sinking. Then that product was attacked simultaneously by a disease and a fall in the price of quinine. Even then the planters were not to be beat, and they turned their attention to tea. They had to cut out dead or dying coffee, plant the land anew, and wait for crop. They had to provide an entirely new description of expensive machinery, and they had to learn, and to teach their work people, an entirely new industry. All this was successfully accomplished, and now for many years the tea has been thriving and paying handsomely, not only in the old coffee districts, but in new ones, some of them down in the low country. (The Ceylon tea crop for 1898 has been estimated at 126,000,000 pounds.) \* \* \*

## THE GOVERNMENT OF THE WEST INDIES AND THE SHARE OF EUROPEANS AND NATIVES, RESPECTIVELY, IN THEIR ADMINISTRATION.

The government of the West India Islands, while of course varying as to details, may be properly termed as of the Crown colony class; the term "Crown colony" indicating a government in which the laws are administered by persons designated by the home government, and in which at least one of the local legislative bodies is also named, in whole or in part, by the home government.

### HOW LAWS ARE MADE AND ENFORCED IN THE BRITISH COLONIES.

According to the British Colonial Office List of 1901 all of the British West India islands belong to the class in which the legislative council is partly elected and partly appointed, except Trinidad, Tobago, and Turks Island, in which the legislative council is entirely nominated by the Crown; and this is also the case in British Honduras. In British Guiana there is a legislative council partly elected, but the Crown has reserved the power of legislating by orders in council. In Trinidad and Tobago, one of the most prosperous colonies of the West Indian group, the government is administered by a governor aided by an executive council of seven members. The legislative body is a council, including the governor, who is president, nine official and eleven unofficial members, all of whom are nominated by the Crown. The present council consists of the governor, who is its president, the colonial secretary, the attorney-general, the commandant of the local forces, the solicitor-general, auditor-general, director of public works, surgeon-general, the protector of immigrants, the receiver-general, and the collector of customs, with eleven unofficial members, presumably residents of the island. Tobago, which is a part of the united colony of Trinidad and Tobago, is considered as a ward of Trinidad, and its revenue, expenditure, and debt merge with those of the united colony, the laws of Trinidad operating in Tobago, and all ordinances of the legislature extending to that island, except local ordinances which are especially made for it by the joint legislature of the colony. The laws are administered by a warden and magistrate.

Jamaica, which has a population of about 650,000, is governed by a council consisting of the governor, five official members, and ten other persons appointed by the Crown at the suggestion of the governor, and fourteen elective members. The ex officio members are the captain-general and governor, the senior officer commanding the troops, the colonial secretary, the attorney-general, the director of public works, and the collector-general. The elected members are residents of the island. In the sessions of the legislative council the governor has only a casting vote, and there are in addition, it will be observed, five ex officio and ten appointive members, making fifteen, while the total elective members number fourteen. These fourteen elected members are chosen from the fourteen parishes of the island. The parish is the unit of local government, and each has its own parochial institutions managed by a board, the members of which are elected.

The Cayman Islands, with a population of some 5,000 persons, are under the control of the Jamaican government and are considered a dependency of Jamaica. Turks and Caicos islands, with a population of about 5,000, are in part under the control of the Jamaican council, which passes special laws for their government, the less important legislation being conducted by a legislative board comprising the judge and commissioner, and not less than two nor more than four other persons appointed by the governor of Jamaica, the latter being usually natives of the islands.

The Barbados government consists of a governor and legislative council of nine members appointed by the King, and a house of assembly with twenty-four members elected annually on the basis of a moderate franchise. The population of the islands is about 192,000, and the number of voters under the limited franchise, based upon property and educational qualifications, is a little over 2,000. The legislative council, it will be observed, is entirely appointed by the home Government. The executive part of the government consists of the governor, the officer commanding the troops, the colonial secretary, the attorney-general, a member of the legislative council, and four members of the house of assembly nominated by the governor. This body, which is called the executive committee, introduces all manifestoes in the legislative body, prepares the estimates, and initiates all government measures.

The Windward Islands, which include Grenada, St. Vincent, the Grenadines, and St. Lucia, and form the eastern barrier of the Caribbean Sea, between Martinique and Trinidad, are under the direction of a governor and commander in chief, appointed by the Crown. Each island, however, has its own institutions, there being no common legislature, laws, revenues, or tariff, but a common court of appeal, while the colonies unite for common purposes. In Grenada there is a legislative council consisting of the governor and six official members nominated by him, and seven unofficial members nominated by the Crown. Each town has its own board for local affairs, semi-elective for the chief town and wholly elective for the others, and each parish has a nominated board for roads and sanitation. In St. Vincent there is an administrator and colonial secretary, and a legislative council consisting of four official and four nominated members. In St. Lucia there is an administrator and colonial secretary, with a nominated executive and legislative council. In considering the share of the home Government and the native population, respectively, in the government of these islands, it is interesting to observe that in Grenada, the most important of the group, there was in 1875 a legislative assembly which consisted of seventeen members, of which number eight were elected by the people and nine nominated by the Crown, each receiving a salary of £100 per annum, and that this legislative council, at its first meeting held in February, 1876, addressed a communication to the Queen, informing her that it had passed a bill providing for its own extinction, and leaving it "entirely to Your Majesty's wisdom and discretion to erect such form of government as Your Majesty may deem most desirable for the welfare of the colony," the result being the creation by the Queen of a new legislative council consisting entirely of appointed members, six of the number being official and seven unofficial.

The English possessions in the Leeward Islands, which form the most northerly group of the lesser Antilles, and comprise a dozen or more islands, are governed by one executive and one legislative council and one governor. The legislative council consists of eight official and eight elective members, of which latter number three are chosen by the elective members of the island council of Antigua, two by those of the legislative council of Dominica, and three by the nonofficial members of the legislative council of St. Kitts and Nevis. These members must be and continue members of the councils of their respective islands. The official members of the legislative council are the governor, the colonial secretary, the attorney-general, the auditor-general, and the administrators of the various islands. This legislative council has concurrent legislative powers with the local legislatures of the islands on certain subjects specified, including property, mercantile and commercial law, quarantine, post and telegraph affairs, currency, education, etc., and any island enactment on these subjects is void if repugnant to any enactment of the general legislature, or may at any time be repealed or altered by an act of the general legislature. The legislative council of Antigua consists of eight official and eight unofficial members, the latter being nominated by the governor. The legislative council of St. Christopher (St. Kitts) and Nevis consists of ten official and ten nominated

unofficial members, of which seven are chosen from St. Christopher and three from Nevis, the governor having a casting vote. In Dominica the local government is conducted by an administrator, aided by an executive council of ten members, all nominated by the governor. In Montserrat the legislative body is entirely appointed, as is also the case in the Virgin Islands. In Antigua the legislative council, which was partly elected and partly nominated, in 1898 passed an act abrogating itself and substituting the Crown colony system. In 1866 a legislative assembly in St. Christopher, which was partly nominated and partly elected, also passed an act abrogating itself and substituting a legislative council to be appointed by the home Government.

#### METHODS OF GOVERNMENT IN THE FRENCH, DUTCH, AND DANISH WEST INDIES.

The methods of government in the French, Dutch, and Danish West Indies are based largely upon the same general system as that outlined in the above descriptions of the government of the British West Indies, the law-making body being partly, if not entirely, named by the home Government, except in the French, where they are wholly elective.

As to the share of the natives or permanent residents of the islands in the government, it may be said that in cases where legislative bodies exist, the local and native population is represented in the selection of other than official members, and in some cases the official members are permanent residents of the islands. In the local boards and organizations which frame and administer parish and other local laws and regulations, the membership is entirely from the resident class, and in nearly all cases elective. In the French West Indian colonies having legislative bodies, the membership is largely of natives or permanent residents of the island. In the British West Indies this is true of the nonofficial members of the legislative bodies.

#### SHARE OF NATIVES IN THE GOVERNMENT OF BRITISH COLONIES.

Mr. Alleyne Ireland, who has had long experience in the British West Indies, in his "Tropical Colonization" says: "In the matter of appointments the colored natives of the various colonies are very fairly treated. I know of no instance of the governor of a colony being a colored man, but short of that colored men are to be found occupying good positions in all branches of the colonial service, as magistrates, medical officers, custom-house officials, land surveyors, etc. A notable instance of a colored man rising to a high position in the colonial service is that of Sir Conrad Reeves, the chief justice of Barbados (which island contains a white population of about 17,000), who is universally respected and who was knighted by Her Majesty in recognition of his distinguished services to the colony. \* \* \* The governor of a Crown colony is largely guided by the views of his executive council, which generally contains, in addition to the official members, several civilians, representing different classes of the community, as the planters and merchants, the white and colored inhabitants. \* \* \* In British Guiana most of the voters are colored men, and of the eight elected members of the court of policy, as it was constituted in 1898, five were prominent colored citizens. The court of policy has the power to legislate on all matters relating to the internal affairs of the colony, with the exception of financial affairs, which are dealt with by the combined court. The voters of British Guiana must be the owners of not less than 3 acres of land under cultivation, or of a house and land of the annual rental or value of not less than \$96; or occupation and tenancy of not less than 6 acres of land under cultivation; or occupation and tenancy of a house and land of the annual rental or value of not less than \$192; or the possession of an annual income or salary of not less than \$480, or have paid during the twelve months previous to registration direct taxes to the colonial revenue to the amount of \$20 or upward.

#### HIGH-GRADE OFFICIALS OBTAINED BY GOOD SALARIES.

"As a matter of fact, instances of dishonesty among the members of the colonial service are extremely rare, among the higher officials during the past twenty years almost unknown. During the ten years which I spent in the British colonies only two cases of official dishonesty fell under my notice, the delinquents being junior collectors in the West India service. One can not but be struck in traveling in the British colonies by the absolute confidence placed by all classes in the honesty of the public servants. \* \* \* It is useless for me to attempt to convey an adequate impression of the excellence of the British colonial service; only those who have lived in contact with these administrative systems can appreciate the sterling qualities of the men who are devoting their lives to the cause of good government. \* \* \* The advantages of a system of representation, even when unaccompanied by responsible government, may be said to consist chiefly in the opportunity afforded to the people to express to the governor and his officials their views on the legislation necessary for the welfare of the colony and in the control which the elected body exercises over the methods of taxation. In regard to the first of these advantages it is in practice a very real one, for although the governor and his officials constitute a majority in the legislative body, the wishes of the elected section are, as a rule, allowed to prevail. The cases in which the elected section consists almost entirely of one class of men, such as lawyers, planters, or merchants, are the exception, and class legislation is infrequent. And though in regard to the vote of estimates the elected section may occasionally find itself unable to give effect to all its intentions, such cases are very rare, and in the matter of raising revenue the methods advocated by the elected members are almost invariably adopted. \* \* \* The governors are almost always trained administrators, who are only appointed in the vast majority of cases after they have had large experience in one capacity or another in the government of colonies. \* \* \* The governors of Crown colonies are guided to a considerable extent by the advice of the local councils; and as it is the custom to appoint to that body men representing the various sections of the community, the governor can make himself thoroughly informed even on those matters which do not fall within his own observation. The great advantage of Crown-colony government is that the administration is entirely in the hands of trained officials, free from local prejudice, absolutely forbidden to engage in trade or to be in any way connected with any commercial undertaking, and unhampered by the constant antagonism of local elected assemblies. It is to the manifest interest of the officials to govern well, for the better they govern the more likely they are to obtain promotion. I am inclined to agree," says Mr. Ireland in closing his discussion of the British West Indies, "with the opinion of Mr. C. P. Lucas, that 'experience has shown that for a dependency inhabited by a colored race, where there is at the same time an influential, if small, body of European merchants or planters belonging to the ruling race, the form of government which unites strong home control with considerable freedom of and adherence to local public opinion is on the whole just, wise, and successful.'"

#### SHARE OF NATIVES IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

Sir George Cornewall Lewis, whose essay "On the Government of Dependencies," originally published in 1841, is still highly prized by students of colonial subjects, discussing the question of the share which the resident population has in the government of the colony,

says: "There is a constant tendency from inevitable causes to a misconception of the character and powers of a subordinate government. The relation of a subordinate to a supreme government is a complicated relation which the people, both of the dominant country and the dependency, are likely to misunderstand, and the incorrect notions entertained by either party are likely to give rise to unfounded expectations. It is the duty of the government of the dominant country to do everything in its power to advance correct opinions and to dispel errors respecting its political relations with the dependency, and still more important to avoid creating an error on this subject, since in case of any collision between the dominant country and the dependency the weaker party—that is, the dependency—can scarcely fail to be the chief sufferer. It should not be overlooked that the popular form of the supreme government counteracts to a considerable (or at least to some), extent the evils arising from absence of popular institutions in the dependency. Although the popular form of the supreme government does not afford to the inhabitants of a dependency any of the characteristic securities of popular institutions (the power of electing their own representatives) yet the publicity of the system of government and the probability that some of the members of the supreme legislative body will take up their cause and obtain a hearing for them affords them a considerable protection. The safeguards of a dependency without popular institutions are (1) the control by a home government free from local prejudices; (2) a local civil service whose interest it is to govern well; (3) the press both in the dominant country and in the colony; (4) a local assembly where native members can at least ventilate their grievances; (5) the legislative body of the home government, members of which are only too ready to find something to talk about as a means of advertisement; (6) philanthropic societies. Note above all that the telegraph brings home to the mother country the grievances of a dependency before they have become ancient history."

#### SIR CHARLES DILKE ADVISES GIVING THE WEST INDIAN NATIVES A LARGE SHARE IN THE LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

Sir Charles Dilke, in his "Problems of Greater Britain," says of the recent experiences in British colonies:

"As the government of the British West India Islands becomes with the lapse of time more democratic and more in the hands of the inhabitants, it is probable that the Indian immigration, which seems necessary to the cultivation of large estates in the hands of white owners, will cease, and that the estates will be day by day more and more cut up into smaller properties in the hands of blacks or 'colored' people. There can, indeed, be little doubt that if the mass of the people of our West India Islands had a direct voice in the management of their own affairs, as have the inhabitants of the French islands, they would soon remove those of their grievances which are connected with the taxation upon the necessities of life and the artificial supply of cheap labor.

#### NATIVE OFFICIALS SUCCESSFUL.

"Some who think the Negro unfitted for self-government point to Hayti; they might, however, reflect that Liberia presents a different picture, and that in the French islands of Martinique and Guadeloupe power is in the hands of the 'colored' population, while the islands prosper. The experience, indeed, of those islands in which the Negroes and 'colored' people have been intrusted with a large share in government, and the use which they make of representative institutions, seem to show that their detractors are in the wrong. The friends of the Negro are now able to point to the progress effected by West Indian peasant proprietors, to the spread of education, to the undoubted rise in the standard of comfort, and to the prominent place already taken by individuals of the African race. The chief justice of Barbados and the wealthiest inhabitant of Jamaica are both what some would call 'black men,' and in the West African settlements Negroes are being increasingly employed in government with excellent results. It stands to reason that between the interests of the large landowners, whether resident or absentee, and the interests of the peasant cultivators of the soil, points of divergence exist, and that, owing to the almost complete nonrepresentation of the latter outside of Barbados, their wants and wishes have hitherto not received the attention they deserve. The example of Martinique and Guadeloupe goes to show that it is time that we should make trial of a more liberal system.

#### THE FRENCH METHOD APPROVED.

"It is contended that where representatives of the people are elected by manhood suffrage, as is the case in the French islands of Martinique, Guadeloupe, and Réunion, the result has been (as it has in the Southern States of the American Union) a recrudescence of race hatreds, and in the French colonies the political subjection of the whites to the men of color. The organization of many of the English tropical colonies is, indeed, of a more oligarchic type than that which now prevails in the island colonies of France, of which the prosperity is remarkable. While we have a certain contempt for the French, considered as a colonizing people, every English writer on the West Indies admits that the French have been more successful in Martinique and Guadeloupe than we have been in similar and closely adjoining islands. M. de Lanessan has told us that excellent results have been attained by the French of late through frankly accepting the principle that the 'colored' race is better suited to the West Indies than is the white, and that France has encouraged and helped the 'colored' people to become dominant in the French islands. In the meantime the trade of two French islands is, roughly speaking, one-third that of all our own, vastly greater in size and in population, and our 'Dominica stands between the two French colonies, showing,' says Mr. Eves, 'a lamentable contrast to their prosperity.' The suffrage was conferred on the negroes of Martinique, Guadeloupe, Réunion, and French Guiana in 1848, at the time of the abolition of slavery. At the same moment the suffrage was given to a large proportion of the natives of French India. The electoral right was in the latter case shortly afterwards taken away, but was restored under the third republic. The Negro electors of the French Antilles and of Réunion speak French, are Roman Catholics, and live under French laws, but the natives of French India, as a rule, do not speak French, and are not Christians, yet nevertheless possess the franchise. In Tonquin and in Algeria the suffrage has, as I have said, not been given to the natives, and in the protectorates, such as Tunis and Annam, the French inhabitants themselves, like the English in India, have no votes. In Cochin China representative government is a farce, inasmuch as the great majority of the electors are in the employment of the French Government, but in the French Antilles it is a reality. In all, it may be said that 4 senators and 7 deputies are elected to the French Chambers by constituencies in which power is in the hands of the colored or black people. Such is the prosperity of the French West Indies that it would seem that we are wrong in not trusting the West Indian Negroes and colored people with a larger voice in their own future, though it may be admitted that if the choice lies only between Crown government and planter parliaments they are better off under autocratic than they would be under oligarchic institutions."

## VIEWS OF GENERAL DAVIS, OF THE UNITED STATES ARMY.

Brig. Gen. George W. Davis, whose service in Porto Rico familiarized him with conditions in that island, in an official report to the United States Government, discussing the future civil government of Porto Rico (which discussion he says he undertakes "with misgivings and much hesitation, preferring to be excused from any presentation of this question, but the orders of the Secretary of War require it"), says:

"The problems confronting the United States, respecting its newly acquired islands and their future government, can only be solved by an application of those wise rules and principles that are the product of human experience. To find modern examples of the application of those rules to tropical states, colonies, dependencies, or possessions we must turn to the experience of other nations.

## HISTORICAL PRECEDENTS.

"It will not be profitable to study historical precedents unless there be points of resemblance to Porto Rico in natural conditions, population, and history. Some of the States which have been formed from what we are accustomed to call 'Spanish-America,' and some of the islands discovered, settled, and populated under Spanish, English, and French domination, have many points of resemblance to Porto Rico, although it is probable there is none of these save Chile, at date of revolt from Spanish rule, which had so large a proportion of its inhabitants of the Caucasian race as Porto Rico now has.

"The only American tropical regions where the conditions are at all analogous are Venezuela, Colombia, Guiana, Central America, and the Greater and Lesser Antilles. But the Spanish States of South and Central America were very sparsely settled and all of them had a large Indian population, while Porto Rico is densely populated and has no Indian blood. In Haiti the negro very largely predominated, and the same was true of Barbados, Martinique, Guadeloupe, and Jamaica, and indeed nearly all the others save Cuba. The countries which most nearly resembled Porto Rico as respects the nationality of the inhabitants, climate, soil, and government at the time they were lost by Spain are that portion of Santo Domingo now known as the Dominican Republic and the island of Trinidad. The former became an independent State and the latter was ceded to the English Crown—one a few years before and the other about the beginning of the nineteenth century. Both had Spanish laws and institutions. In each there were a considerable number of negro slaves. In neither were there Indians. The Roman Catholic religion was established in both, and other denominations were not allowed. The natural productions of both islands were similar, sugar being the most important, as it was until recently in Porto Rico.

"In 1797 Trinidad was captured by the English and entered upon a new career under local Spanish laws, which were preserved and properly administered by Great Britain. Not so, however, with the island of Santo Domingo, which at the beginning of the century achieved its independence under Toussaint L'Ouverture.

"France endeavored to recover her part of the island, but was unsuccessful. In 1844 the eastern or Spanish part became independent, but later Spain tried to recover it, failed, and since then the Republic of Dominica has been unmolested in its career save by civil wars and some strife with Haiti and Spain, but for more than thirty years the inhabitants of Santo Domingo have been demonstrating their incapacity for self-government. There have been a half dozen civil wars and overturnings, the last but a few days ago.

## GOOD GOVERNMENT A NECESSITY.

"Statistics show that the negro blood is not very much more in evidence in Dominica than in Porto Rico, and the persons of white blood are of the same race and have been controlled by the same codes and institutions that have prevailed here. Had Dominica been a dependency of some strong and well-administered government, it is probable that much of this civil strife would have been prevented. But had it had home rule, such as is accorded to Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and the Territories of the United States, there would still have been struggles for preponderance of one party or faction over the other, which could only have been prevented from becoming sanguinary by the military intervention of the supreme Government. It does not seem to me possible that the Dominicans would have furnished an example of autonomic government well administered. They seem to know of but one use to make of political privileges, and that is to erect and maintain a despotism or a government of a class for the benefit of its adherents.

"This so-called republic has an area more than five times as great as Porto Rico, a soil of exceptionable richness, adapted to all tropical productions, a salubrious climate, a population containing many highly educated and intelligent men of Spanish origin, and yet we see what misuse has been made of their opportunities, which were of the fairest in the world.

"Under a good government, well administered, this little State could as well support a population of 5,000,000 as Porto Rico can 1,000,000, but so great has been the turbulence, and even chaos, that immigration and industrial development have been prevented, and Dominica has been cited all over the world as a typical example of the incapacity of Spanish-Americans to govern themselves. The contrast to Dominica furnished by Trinidad is so noteworthy that a further mention may be justified respecting the latter.

"The inhabitants of Trinidad when the island was conquered by General Abercromby in 1797 were largely of Spanish birth and parentage, although there were many French who had emigrated thither from Santo Domingo following the outbreak in 1793. There were also many thousand negro slaves. Its area is about 1,750 square miles (the largest of the British West India Islands, except Jamaica), or a little less than one-third the size of Porto Rico. At the date of the conquest it was inhabited somewhat less densely than Porto Rico, which then had about 36 inhabitants to the square mile.

"The population of Trinidad has increased to upward of 300,000, giving it 170 per square mile. Its revenues exceed \$3,000,000, its exports exceed by one-third the same from Porto Rico, its government is one of order and stability, and crime does not go unpunished. The number of children attending school is more than three times as large, in proportion to population, as here. They have a royal college and several schools for higher education. All religious denominations are free. Good roads abound, industries are diversified and are being constantly extended.

"If left uncontrolled and free, Trinidad would probably have supplied another example of a chaotic government. It had the most favorable elements for such a result—Spanish, French, negro slaves, 'maroons' from the neighboring Spanish and French possessions. Besides, its waters were infested with privateers, who were no better than pirates. Home rule was fortunately not accorded to this island, but instead it was governed at first by military officers directly. It is now a Crown colony, having an executive council of five official and three native appointed members, the governor presiding. It has also a legislative council of 21 members, 10 of whom are appointed by the governor and 11 are elected. The governor presides over this council. Only those who possess a stated property or income qualification, or who are members of the liberal professions, can vote at elections for councilmen.



"There is not anywhere in the world a tropical island having a happier and more contented population, nor one where life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness of the humble native, the freed slaves and the East Indian 'coolie,' as well as the rich and powerful, are more firmly secured in the enjoyment of all their natural and acquired rights. While the wage rate of the laborer is small, gauged by United States standards, taxation is so adjusted and revenues are so expended that the poorer laboring classes have many advantages lacking in many other islands, Porto Rico not excepted.

"The conditions in Jamaica and many other British islands not differing materially from Trinidad in regard to orderly government are not closely analogous to Porto Rico in other respects. The inhabitants of many of these islands are principally negroes. In Jamaica, out of a population of about 700,000, only 2½ per cent are white. In Barbados about 9 per cent are white. Trinidad is the largest of all the lesser Antilles, and, as above stated, was chosen for comparison with Porto Rico and Santo Domingo because most of the natural and social conditions are, or were, more nearly the same as in Porto Rico.

#### SELF-SUSTAINING GOVERNMENT.

"In regard to taxation, all the British islands are similarly administered. Each is self-sustaining and has its own export, import, and internal taxes, the same as though it were an independent government. In some of these places, where sugar was the principal reliance, the industrial and economic conditions are unsatisfactory. The United Kingdom—adhering to free trade—can supply herself with the bounty-fed sugar of continental Europe at a cheaper price than from her own colonies. As there is practically no market save the United States for sugar grown in the West Indies, that industry has greatly declined save in islands where exceptionally favorable conditions exist, and therefore business conditions are very unfavorable and unsatisfactory.

"The government of Barbados differs somewhat from the usual Crown colony type. The governor and colonial secretary are appointed by the Crown. The executive council consists of the governor, the commander of the troops, the attorney-general, and the president of the legislative council, and this last consists of 9 individuals, 4 of whom are nominated by the governor from the house of assembly.

"This house consists of 24 members, all elected. There is an executive committee connected with the assembly, a sort of committee of 'ways and means.' It introduces all money votes, prepares all estimates, and initiates all government measures. It consists of the governor, the commander of the troops, the colonial secretary, the attorney-general, the president of the executive council, and five members of the assembly appointed by the governor.

"The number of qualified electors was 2,208 in 1897, out of a population of about 190,000.

"The assembly, under the direction of the legislative committee, levies taxation, votes supplies, and enacts general laws. Business proceeds by bills read three times and by resolutions. Private members can move an address to the governor in legislative committee, requesting that certain acts may be done involving expenditure, or requesting that certain bills or resolutions may be presented to the assembly which involve expenditure. They may also introduce bills demanding the granting of powers to local bodies to raise loans.

"There are 11 parishes or townships, each having a council of from 9 to 11 members. One member of its council is nominated by the governor and from 8 to 10 are elected members. These councils or vestries have power to levy taxes which are subject to confirmation by the governor in council. They have charge of expenditures for the poor and the church and of taxes within the parishes.

"It is almost universally admitted that Great Britain has been more successful as a colonizing power than any other, and it has seemed to be profitable to study her examples of successful colonial management of people of almost all races. In only one marked instance has that policy been recognized as a failure. It grew out of the effort to make English colonies a direct source of profit to the Crown. Since the American Revolution this policy has been abandoned, and all English possessions, save a few military stations, are now maintained and governed on a basis of self-support.

"English possessions, as respects the character of their government, may be arranged into three classes:

"First. Those that, like Canada, have a governor-general appointed by the Crown, but have a responsible parliament.

"Second. Those that, like Barbados, have a governor and an executive council to determine the general policy, but also have an elected representative legislature which ratifies and confirms the policy of the governor and his council, and enacts into laws or amends the measures proposed by him, and some that are initiated in the assembly.

"Third. Those that, like Mauritius and Jamaica, have a governor and an executive council by whom the governmental policy is fixed and determined, without reference to an elective assembly. In this case the people have practically no voice in their own governmental affairs.

#### WHAT ENGLAND WOULD DO IN PORTO RICO.

"Were England now holding toward Porto Rico the position and relations borne by the United States, there is little doubt, judging from her past, that she would for the present govern Porto Rico as strictly as she governs her Crown colonies. Nothing would be taken for granted respecting claims of capacity for establishing and maintaining home rule. The people would have to demonstrate by active, practical experience their abilities for conducting a representative government—i. e., for autonomy, such as Canada enjoys—before it would be accorded."

#### METHODS OF GOVERNMENT IN THE FRENCH WEST INDIES.

In the French West Indies a broader power of self-government has been given to the people by the French Government than in any other of her colonies. A legislative body is authorized, composed of natives, which has the power to pass laws applicable to the exercise of political rights, the regulation of contracts, matters relating to wills, legacies, and successions, the institution of juries, criminal procedure, recruiting for naval and military forces, the method of electing mayors, municipal deputies, and councilors, and the organization of the local councils-general. In addition to this, each of the West Indies colonies is permitted to send representatives to the French Assembly, while the French Government itself makes the tariff laws. These colonies have a much larger power of self-government than has been granted to any other of the French colonies.

#### CRITICISM BY A DISTINGUISHED FRENCH ECONOMIST.

The results of the experiment, however, have been the subject of severe criticism by French students of colonial matters, among them Paul Leroy Beaulieu, who, in his work, *Colonisation Chez les Peuples Modernes*, says: "As regards politics, we have introduced French liberty into our colonies, we give them civil governors, we admit their representatives into our parliament. \* \* \* All these

reforms are excellent in themselves. It is unfortunately to be feared that they will, in practice, result in abuses, and that unless the mother country is very watchful those free powers which she has granted to her colonies will become powers of oppression. The deputies whom Martinique and Guadeloupe send to our Parliament serve only to represent the malice, prejudice, and ignorance of the blacks. The weak executive power in France allows itself to be intimidated by these deputies, and sends out to the colonies cowardly and incapable governors, whose indecision of character feeds the more or less barbarous hopes of the Negro majority. It is contemplated to pass a jury law in the Antilles, which would place the lives of the whites in the hands of their enemies. It is also suggested that French troops be replaced by a local militia, which in a short time would, by force of circumstances, be composed chiefly of Negroes. The hatred of the Negro for the white man is complicated in these islands by the hatred of the poor for the rich. Great caution is necessary for, as things are going, the history of Santo Domingo may easily be repeated, and when the white man is driven from these islands which he has colonized, and the blacks are left alone, Martinique and Guadeloupe will relapse into barbarism."

### DEFENSES OF COLONIES.

The defenses of the small colonies are in most cases supplied by the mother country, while those of the stronger ones are borne by the colonies themselves. The Indian army is entirely supported by the Indian Government, and in the case of the Netherlands East Indies the expenses of the army are also borne by the colony. In Canada the British Government maintains a force of 2,000 men, forming the garrison at the fortress of Halifax, which is considered the "imperial station." In addition to this, however, Canada has a large militia force which may be called out at any time; the active militia, including persons who voluntarily enlist for a three years' term, and are drilled a certain number of days in each year, the total number of this force being 45,000. It is entirely equipped from colonial funds. In Cape Colony the British Government maintains a small military force commanding a series of forts and batteries at St. Simons Bay. The colony maintains a force of mounted riflemen of 1,000 officers and men, and a militia force numbering about 7,000. In addition to this all able-bodied men in the colony between 18 and 50 years are subject to military service beyond, as well as within, the limits of the colony. The Australian colonies, which are now united under the Commonwealth of Australia, formerly maintained each a separate militia force and jointly maintained a small naval squadron and a torpedo service for the protection of the coast. In most cases the naval defense of the colonies is maintained by the home Government and with its own vessels, but in the case of the Australian colonies a separate naval force for local protection is maintained, and in certain other cases the British colonies have contributed certain sums to aid in defraying the expenses of naval protection of the colony. During the war in South Africa the Canadian and Australian colonies sent large numbers of troops to serve as a part of the British army in South Africa. In Ceylon the fortifications have been built by the home Government, and a battalion of British infantry, two companies of British artillery, and two companies of native artillery are maintained by the home Government, but the colony pays 1,845,000 rupees to the Imperial Government as the cost of the garrison. At Singapore the actual cost of the force for defense is defrayed out of the revenues of the colony, the Imperial Government supplying only the guns and ammunition, while the force which garrisons these works of defense is supported by the colony.

### IN THE TROPICS.

In colonies whose chief population is composed of natives of the territory thus governed and not natives of the governing country or their descendants, the military force is composed in part of natives and in part of citizens of the governing country, and is officered chiefly by those of the governing country, usually men who have received their training in the military establishments of that country. In British India, for instance, about one-third of the army is European and two-thirds native, and is wholly supported by the colonial government. In the Dutch East Indies the army is wholly supported from colonial funds, while the naval defense is partly colonial and partly belonging to the home Government. In the French colonies a large share of the army is supplied by the home Government, and it is officered chiefly from those trained in the military institutions and army of the home Government.

### THE ARMY OF INDIA.

In India the army consists of 214,928 officers and men, of which number 74,288 are Europeans and 140,640 natives. Of the European section 53,688 are infantry, 13,407 artillery, and 5,670 cavalry; of the native section 111,925 are infantry, 22,932 cavalry, 3,695 sappers and miners, and 2,088 artillery. The native troops are officered in part by Europeans and in part by natives; the total number of European officers in command of the native troops being 5,178 of all ranks. With the construction of roads and railways throughout India the facilities for concentration or mobilization of troops have been greatly increased. A regular transport service now exists, and a method for the supply of animal carriage, hospital service, and other field establishments sufficient to place a large army promptly in the field. The entire cost of the Indian army, both native and European officers and men, is borne by the Indian Government. In the Native States, in which the Indian princes still rule, but with the advice of a British officer stationed at their courts, there are so-called armies numbering 350,000 men, but they are badly equipped and poorly disciplined. In view, however, of the fact that native chiefs have offered large sums of money toward the cost of imperial defenses, the Indian Government has elaborated a scheme for the training of a picked contingent of troops in certain of the Native States, and with a view to enabling the chiefs to bear a direct share in the defense of the Empire a special contingent known as "Imperial service troops," numbering 18,000 men, have been organized and are now under instruction of British officers. A naval and coast defense is also maintained by the Indian Government, including torpedo boats and a submarine mine flotilla, troop vessels, surveying ships, inland steamers, etc. The expense of these is borne by the Indian Government, as is also the expense of the British Government's naval vessels permanently stationed in Indian waters.

The Indian army is described by Sir W. W. Hunter in his *Indian Empire*, 1892, as follows:

"The constitution of the Indian army is based upon the historical division of British India into the three presidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay. There are still three Indian armies, each composed of both European and native troops, and each with its own commander in chief and separate staff, although the commander in chief in Bengal exercises supreme authority over the other two. There may also be said to be a fourth army, the Punjab frontier force, which until 1885 was under the order of the lieutenant-governor of the province.

"The Bengal army garrisons Bengal proper and Assam, the Northwestern Provinces and Oudh, a portion of Central India and Rajputana, and the Punjab. In 1877-78 its total strength was 104,216 officers and men, of whom 63,933 were native troops. In 1890-91

the Bengal army numbered 130,375 officers and men, of whom 84,053 were native troops. In the Bengal native army the distinguishing feature is the presence of 12 batteries of artillery, and an exceptionally large proportion of cavalry, both of which arms are massed in the Punjab.

"The Madras army extends beyond the limits of that presidency into Mysore, the Nizam's domains, the central provinces, also to Burma across the Bay of Bengal, and to the Andaman convict settlements. In 1877-78 its total strength was 47,026 officers and men, of whom 34,293 were native troops. In 1890-91 the Madras army numbered 46,072 of all ranks, of whom 32,123 were natives. In the Madras native army the distinguishing features are the large proportion of sappers and miners, the small proportion of cavalry, and the entire absence of artillery.

"The Bombay army occupied Bombay proper and Sind, the native states of central India, and the outlying station of Aden in the Red Sea. In 1877-78 its total strength was 38,355 officers and men, of whom 26,645 were native troops. In 1890-91 the Bombay army numbered 41,771 officers and men, of whom 28,672 were natives.

"The total established strength of the European and native army in British India in 1877-78 (exclusive of native artificers and followers) consisted of 189,597 officers and men, of whom 64,276 were Europeans and 124,871 were native troops. The four chief arms of the service were thus composed: (1) Artillery, 12,239 Europeans and 901 natives; (2) cavalry, 4,347 Europeans and 18,346 natives; (3) engineers, 357 Europeans (all officers) and 3,239 natives; (4) infantry, 45,962 Europeans and 102,183 natives. In 1890-91 the total European and native army in British India consisted of 218,218 officers and men, of whom 73,370 were Europeans and 144,848 were native troops. The artillery consisted of 12,723 Europeans and 3,757 natives; the cavalry of 5,679 Europeans and 23,348 natives, besides a bodyguard of 199 troopers; engineers, 254 Europeans (all officers) and 4,015 natives; infantry, 53,701 Europeans and 113,529 natives. British staff officers, invalid and veterane establishment, etc., 1,013. Total Europeans, 73,370." The Statesman's Year-Book for 1901 gives the Indian army as 74,288 Europeans, including 3,616 officers of all grades, and 140,614 natives, including 1,578 officers.

#### THE ARMY OF THE DUTCH EAST INDIES.

The army of the Dutch East Indies is purely colonial. It consists of about 45,000 officers and men, of which number 16,000 are Europeans, 22,000 natives, and 5,000 Amboinese—natives of the island of Amboyna, one of the Dutch East Indian group of islands. No portion of the regular army of the Netherlands is allowed to be sent to the colonies, but native soldiers are permitted to enlist in the colonial service, and they form the nucleus of the army of Dutch India. The natives and European soldiers are not divided into separate corps, but generally mixed together, though in separate companies in the same battalions. The artillery is composed of European gunners, with native riders, while the cavalry are Europeans and natives. The commissioned officers are all European, with the exception of a few natives of high rank, but in each of the companies composed of natives about one-half of the noncommissioned officers are natives and one-half Europeans. A military academy is maintained in Java, and schools for soldiers are attached to every battalion of the army. The navy is partly colonial and partly belongs to the royal navy, and its expenses are therefore divided between the mother country and the colony. The personnel of the navy in the Dutch East Indies numbers about 3,300 men, of whom two-thirds are Europeans.

#### THE MILITARY IN THE FRENCH COLONIES.

In the French colonies the proportion of troops supplied by the governing country is larger than in the British or Dutch colonies, and a larger share of the expense is borne by the home Government. The funds expended by the French Government for its military service in the colony are not included in the 4,000,000 francs which are charged against "colonial service" in the budget, but are included in the budgets of the war and marine, respectively. In Algeria, which is conducted as a province of France, the military force consists of about 57,000 men, of whom more than one-half are French and commanded by French officers. In Tunis the army of occupation numbers about 20,000 men, the entire force being maintained by the French Government, the Tunisian army numbering but about 600 officers and men. In Madagascar the force consists of about 17,000 officers and men, about equally divided between French and natives. The French budget for 1901 allows 29,147,000 francs for military expenditure in Madagascar. Only 364 men are maintained on the local budget of Madagascar. In French Indo-China the military forces number about 29,000, of which number about 12,000 are French and 17,000 are natives, officered almost exclusively by French, though among the native forces the minor officers are natives.

"The army must above all be restricted to its natural function, i. e., of protecting the colony against foreign enemies and great rebellions at home, of chasing armed bands of robbers if they exist, and protecting against them the peaceful people," says M. de Lanessan. "Its natural place, therefore, is near the frontiers and in all those places where great movements of rebels are likely to spring up. Under no conditions, however, must it be charged with the internal and external police of the native population; but wherever this becomes necessary a special police force placed under its orders should be employed.

"Besides the army there must always exist a police force which should have as its basis the colonial gendarmerie, and should be charged with obtaining clandestine information regarding and exercise preventive surveillance over evil-minded persons, under the direct orders of the governor.

"The civil administrators or residents must not be deflected from their political and administrative functions by the excessively military rôle, such as they have been playing in Indo-China and at the western coast of Africa. If the military appears to be necessary for the maintenance of order in their district, it is not advisable that they should be its direct chiefs nor that they should direct its operations.

"The military should be placed under orders of special chiefs, who in their turn should report to the commander of the gendarmerie, so that both in the civil as well as the military territories the police might be directed by people who have received a special education required for the service. The police is a mechanism of particular nature, requiring specially prepared men; but of course it should always be at the disposal of the political and administrative authorities, as well as the military establishment, as is provided by the organic statute of the gendarmerie.

"In the matter of internal police of the villages and their protection by the native authorities the greatest possible regard should be paid to local customs. In the countries subject to our protectorate and even in the colonies subject to our direct control, but where the Europeans are only small in number and where there exist local administrations sufficiently organized, it would be well to make the latter responsible for the maintenance of order and tranquillity by placing under their control such a police force as they were accustomed to before our occupation, and by limiting ourselves to overseeing and controlling the organization and work of this force.



"The entire police should be in the hands of the colonial governor, through the intermediary of the commander of the gendarmerie, just as in France the entire police is subject to and ultimately dependent on the Government. The governor should also have supreme authority over the army and all administrative departments, because he personally represents all the ministers of the whole Government and is responsible to the latter for everything that happens in the colony. In order that he may be able to meet such wide responsibilities he should be given an authority commensurate with his responsibilities."

### THE ELECTIVE FRANCHISE IN THE COLONIES.

The extent to which the right of suffrage is granted to residents, and especially to natives of colonies, differs very widely with the varying circumstances. In colonies of the temperate zones, the "habitation colonies," as they are designated by Sir Charles Dilke, suffrage is in most cases universal and for all classes of officers other than the governor-general and in most cases the members of the higher legislative bodies.

In the tropical colonies, those in which government is largely through bodies named by the home Government, the elective franchise is usually restricted to local questions—in some cases to the election of a part of the legislative body of the colony, and in most cases to the election of members of local boards for the government of cities, towns, and rural communities. This power is usually restricted through regulations which limit the voting power to persons having certain qualifications, either educational, property holding, or taxpaying.

In India the local self-government acts of 1882-1884 extended the elective principle in a greater or less measure all over India. In all the larger towns, and many of the smaller ones, the majority of members of committees are elected by the taxpayers, everywhere the majority of these committees consisting of natives, and in most cases all members are natives. In the rural districts the local boards which are in charge of roads, schools, hospitals, etc., are elected, and in the village organization the headmen and other officers are chosen by vote of the adult male population.

In Java the village officers are elected, but those of higher grade, especially those upon whom the Dutch Government relies chiefly to carry out the details of its administration, are members of ruling families which have for generations controlled their districts.

In the British colonies other than India and the self-governing colonies, the franchise is regulated by local legislation, and varies greatly according to circumstances. In British Guiana the franchise is extended to every person who has, during six months' previous to registration, had an ownership of not less than 3 acres of land under cultivation, or of a house of the annual rental value of not less than £20; or occupancy or tenancy of not less than 6 acres of land under cultivation, or a house at an annual rental value of not less than £40; or an annual income of not less than £100; or have paid direct taxes of £4 3s. 4d., coupled with residence. In Ceylon the general officers are appointed, but the village headmen, who are the channel of communication between the Government and the people, are elected by the inhabitants of the village. In Cyprus a part of the legislative body is chosen by Mohammedan and a part by the non-Mohammedan residents of the island. The British subjects who have resided five years in the islands may also exercise the franchise. The qualification for franchise consists in the payment of any class of taxes. In Fiji the government is administered through an appointed legislative council, and a large share of self-government has been conceded to the villages and district council of the natives, the members of which are elected by the natives; in the principal towns the governing body is elected by the taxpayers. In Jamaica there is a property qualification for voters, and out of a population of about 600,000 there are about 23,000 qualified voters, who elect members of the parish organizations for the enactment of local laws and administer the work of construction of roads, markets, sanitation, waterworks, etc. In Mauritius the qualification for the elective franchise is the ownership of immovable property worth 300 rupees, or movable property worth 3,000 rupees, or the payment of rent amounting to 25 rupees per month, or license of 300 rupees annually, or the receipt of a salary of 50 rupees monthly.

### THE CIVIL SERVICE IN THE COLONIES.

The method of selection and maintenance of civil service in the colonies is interesting and important. In no part of a government service can there be greater necessity for careful selection of men or for careful training for such service. Located at a long distance from the seat of the home Government, removed in many cases from close official observation and scrutiny, free to a great extent from the opportunity of criticism by individuals or the press or both, and subjected to peculiar temptations through opportunities for profit by business or administrative work, it is necessary that the persons chosen be of the highest moral qualifications; while the fact that they must rely more on their own judgment than those who are constantly under supervision or who have constant opportunity for consultation requires that they be possessed of high intellectual qualities and good training. The further fact that without an acquaintance with local conditions, laws, and customs in the colony they are of comparatively little value increases the importance of retaining them permanently in the service in case they prove faithful and capable.

It is upon these grounds that the successful colonizing nations of to-day have established (1) a system of thorough training for candidates for their colonial service; (2) a system of civil-service examinations of a character which assures a high grade of intellectual training and knowledge; (3) a probationary service in which the fitness of men who pass examinations is further tested; (4) the permanent retention in the civil service of those who enter it and prove successful in its work; (5) a system of promotion which will be incentive to faithful and energetic service in whatever grade the individual may be employed; (6) retirement with a fixed rate of payment at a given age or at the end of a stated term of service.

#### TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR COLONIAL CIVIL SERVICE.

England, Netherlands, and France maintain systems for the preparation of men for their colonial service, by which a class of highly educated young men, trained with a special view to this line of life work, is constantly available. In Netherlands and France special training schools are maintained by the Government, open only to those who have passed through certain collegiate courses, and in these are required the lines of study which are looked upon as especially valuable in fitting men for colonial service. In England an equally high training is assured by the rigid civil-service examination which is required, especially for entering the Indian service. The rules governing the civil-service examination for the Indian service are given herewith, and an examination of them will make apparent the high intellectual training requisite for entrance into the Indian "covenanted civil service." This term, the "covenanted civil service,"

arose from the fact that the abuses by persons in the civil service in India in former years made it necessary for the East India Company during the closing years of its existence to require of its civil servants a "covenant" that they would not engage in trade, receive presents, or subscribe for pensions for themselves or families. This system is still followed by the English Government. (The rules governing the examinations for the Indian service are printed on another page.) The regulations printed in the Colonial Office List for 1901, which pertain to the selections for the civil service in the Crown colonies, specifically states that "all salaried public officers are prohibited from engaging in trade or connecting themselves with any commercial undertaking without leave from the Government, approved by the secretary of state. As a general rule this prohibition will be made absolute. \* \* \* No paid officer can be permitted to be the editor of a newspaper or take active part in the management of it."

#### AN AMERICAN VIEW OF COLONIAL CIVIL-SERVICE REQUIREMENTS.

The necessity for a special civil service for the Tropics is discussed by Mr. A. Lawrence Lowell in the introduction to his *Colonial Civil Service*, 1900, as follows:

"The requirements for a civil service in tropical or Asiatic colonies are quite different from those for the home civil service. At home, except for special branches of administration requiring a high degree of technical knowledge, such as the Army or the Navy, an intelligent man can easily learn in a comparatively short time to do the Government work fairly well. In the post-office, for example, everyone knows in a general way, or can readily understand, what is wanted, and the work can be done after a fashion by new men of good capacity. In most branches of the home administration, therefore, a constant change of employees produces inferior service, but does not stop the wheels of government altogether, and does not involve a danger of national ruin.

"In an Asiatic colony, on the other hand, where the duty of the official consists, for the most part, in ruling over districts containing many thousands of natives, an untrained man suddenly appointed would be perfectly helpless, however great his natural capacity. He knows neither the language nor the customs of the people, nor does he comprehend their thoughts; and the consequence of his ignorance may be disastrous. Well-meaning but inexperienced officials could easily provoke an insurrection like the Indian mutiny without being in the least conscious that they were drifting into danger. Hence the administration of the colony can be intrusted only to men who have mastered the language and all the conditions under which the government must be carried on. But Oriental and Western civilizations are so different that years must pass before an official becomes thoroughly efficient; and no man of parts will undertake those years of preparation if he is liable to be thrown back on the world to start life all over again after he has proved himself a valuable public servant. The colonial civil service must therefore be a lifelong career.

"The career must be begun young, and that for two reasons: First, because it is only in youth that new languages and a comprehension of strange civilization can be acquired rapidly and well; and second, because, if the selection of colonial officials is made after men have begun to be established in life, those who have already shown an ability to succeed will not abandon an assured career for another in which, though the reward is great, success is problematical. The men who apply will be those whose previous ventures in life have not been the most fortunate; and the colonial service can not afford to accept the failures in other vocations. Hence colonial officials must be recruited at the time when young men are choosing their occupations in life, and as the service means leaving home for a tropical climate, and what are to most persons uncongenial surroundings, men of strong qualities, moral, intellectual, and physical, must be tempted into it by large pay, security of tenure, and liberal pensions.

"On these principles all the progressive nations of the world are agreed, and the completeness with which they act upon them in practice is proportionate to the length of their experience. France has tried recruiting her colonial officials from her home civil service, but she has given it up; and, in fact, Leroy-Beaulieu, the great French writer on colonies, ascribed a capital importance to the mistakes of his country in this matter.

"In passing it must be remarked that it is unnecessary, and frequently it is inexpedient after the organization has been completed, to select the executive head of the colony from the permanent civil service. In the great English dependencies in the east the governor is, as a rule, an eminent English statesman appointed for five years only. His duty is to bring to bear on colonial problems large political views, and a world-wide experience of life while his relation to the colonial officials is like that of an English minister to the permanent staff of his department. He relies upon them for technical information and a knowledge of the native life, and he acts as a link between them and the Government at home. All this is true of the Dutch colonies also.

"Assuming that a colonial service must be a career, to begin in youth, and is to continue for life, the question naturally presents itself how the selection of young men is to be made. There are two methods of doing this: On the one hand, an arbitrary choice by the authorities, limited more or less by the requirement of certain qualifications, a method which has certainly its advantages, but entails unavoidably, to some extent at least, the evils of patronage and favoritism; and, on the other hand, a free competition of some kind among voluntary candidates. Either one or the other of these systems, or some combination of the two, must be adopted. During the last half century the progressive nations of Europe have been coming to use the competitive system to a greater and greater extent, although the forms in which it has been introduced differ very materially from one another.

"A second question that presents itself is how the young men who have been selected shall be prepared for their work; how far their training shall take the form of academic studies, and how far of an apprenticeship in the colony itself."

#### AN ENGLISH VIEW OF THE CIVIL SERVICE IN THE BRITISH COLONIES.

Mr. Alleyne Ireland, who spent several years in British colonies, and who has recently been commissioned by the University of Chicago to visit and report upon the colonies of the Orient and the Philippine Islands, in his volume, *Tropical Colonization*, 1899, says: "The civil service of the British tropical colonies is highly organized and highly paid, and the fact that anyone who enters the service has an assured position for the rest of his working days (subject to his continued good conduct and efficiency), with practically no limit in the direction of promotion and at the end a handsome pension, serves to attract the very best class of men that England can give. In the British tropical colonies the ranks of the higher officials are made up somewhat as follows: Governor, chief justice, puisne judges, attorney-general, colonial secretary, solicitor-general, registrar-general, comptroller of customs, colonial engineer, postmaster-general, receiver-general, auditor-general, and administrator-general. The salaries of these officials, as those of all others, are paid by the colonies. In the matter of appointments the colored natives of the various colonies are very fairly treated. I know of no instance of the governor of a colony being a colored man; but short of that colored men are to be found occupying good positions in all branches of the colonial service, as magistrates, medical officers, custom-house officials, land surveyors, etc. It may be interesting to my

readers, in view of the fact that the United States is now forming a colonial service, to know what salaries are paid to some of the officials in the British tropical colonies. In British Guiana, which contains a population of 300,000, the salaries of some of the higher officials are: Governor, \$24,000; chief justice, \$9,700; attorney-general, \$7,300; colonial secretary, \$7,300; immigration agent-general, \$7,300. In Ceylon the salaries are (calculated at 3 rupees to the dollar): Governor, \$27,000; chief justice, \$8,300; attorney-general, \$6,000, and colonial secretary, \$8,000. It may be thought that these salaries are large, but it should be remembered that smaller salaries would fail to attract to the service men of the high standard so necessary to successful administration. Again, although a high salary will not keep a dishonest man from following his evil inclinations, the Government is enabled by the offer of high salaries to secure a wide field of selection amongst a class of men who are constitutionally high-minded and honest; but even if the matter be placed on the lowest possible ground, that of pure self-interest, it will be readily perceived that the advantages of belonging to the service are so great that few men will be foolish enough to risk their career on the slender chance of their malpractices remaining undiscovered. One can not but be struck in traveling in the British colonies by the absolute confidence placed by all classes in the honesty of the public servants. In most of the colonies, and more especially those enjoying representative institutions, the acts of public servants are subjected to the most detailed criticism; but although I have heard occasional accusations of incompetence or laziness I have not heard, even from the most violent critics, any suggestion that a public servant was corrupt. It seems to me that had England achieved nothing else, she might rest satisfied with having supplied her dependencies with such a class of public servants as have bred the belief in the many races under her flag that the public funds are devoted to public purposes only, and that the most powerful planter, the wealthiest merchant, is no more in the eyes of the law than the humblest cooly or the meanest peasant. It is useless, however, for me to convey any adequate impression of the excellence of the British colonial service. Only those who have lived in contact with these administrative systems can appreciate the sterling qualities of the men who are devoting their lives to the cause of good government."

#### OFFICIAL PATRONAGE IN THE COLONIES.

Mr. C. P. Lucas, in his introduction to the 1891 edition of Lewis's *Government of Dependencies*, says on this subject: "The system of official patronage is year by year contracted rather than extended. The civil service is recruited by open competition in India and some of the large Crown colonies. In the self-governing colonies the governors alone are appointed from England, and the wishes of the colonists, whether well-founded or not, are respected in making the appointments. It can not be seriously maintained that the standard of public life at home suffers from the fact that a certain number of posts in the smaller colonies are still in the gift of the secretary of state. \* \* \* The evil of appointment of natives of the dominant country to offices in the colonies without due regard to their qualifications now exists but only in a very slight degree, and in order to counteract it the principle of open competition has been adopted in regard to India and the eastern colonies. On the other hand, the introduction of this principle has tended to the perpetuation of another of the evils mentioned, namely, the exclusion of natives of the colony from offices in their own country. Most foreign or colonial possessions of European nations have two classes of native-born residents, a colored race and Europeans who have been born and bred in the colony, while a further class is formed by the intermixture of the two. Under the old Spanish system one of the evils most complained of was that Spanish creoles were excluded from offices in favor of Spaniards sent out from Spain. This last-named evil does not exist in the British Empire, for where the English colonial element is strong—that is, in the self-governing colonies—the whole patronage, with the exception of the appointment of the governor, has been taken away from the home Government and handed over to the colonies. In the case of India, on the other hand, it is mainly a question between Indians and Englishmen sent out from England, and here the tendency of open competition which gives no preference to either race is, as a matter of fact, to exclude the native Indian. Earnest attempts have been made to modify the system so as to prevent such exclusion, but the broad fact remains that if the most approved principle for selecting the best men is adopted in its entirety, it results in almost unadulterated European rule."

#### THE PREPARATION OF DUTCH OFFICIALS FOR THEIR WORK.

Java, says M. Le Clercq, "is administered by a hierarchy of officials constituting a select body. Having passed first through the school of Delft or the University of Leyden, which are, so to speak, the nurseries of colonial administrators of the civil branch, they then undergo a special examination either in Holland or Batavia, the programme of which is fixed by the minister of colonies. This programme varies according to the service for which application is made. For the higher posts it is necessary to take the "great examination of functionaries" (*groot ambtenaars examen*), which bears on matters mainly technical and comprises principally the history, geography, and ethnography of the Dutch Indies, the civil and religious laws, the political institutions and the customs of the natives, and the Malayan and Javanese languages. The examination is practically made up of two successive ones separated generally by an interval of two years, the second examination embracing the same subjects as the first, but going deeper and more extensively into the subjects. The candidates for judicial functions must be doctors of law, and, moreover, pass a technical examination in the Malayan and Javanese languages, the Moslem law and the customs of the Dutch Indies, the public law and colonial institutions. The vacancies are annually filled by the minister of colonies, who, after consulting with the government of the colony, publishes in the official gazette the number of candidates who are permitted to report to the governor-general to be appointed either for administrative or judiciary positions. The final choice is then made according to the standing obtained in the examination. The chosen candidates are entitled besides first-class passage to an allowance to cover the cost of equipment, and after their arrival at the Indies to a provisional compensation pending their definite appointment, for they are not immediately given important places, but have first to discharge a preparatory service under a comptroller or assistant resident, who initiates them into the practice of colonial affairs. The salaries of the civil officials are fixed either by the King or the governor-general. These salaries are at least treble the amount paid for positions of similar grade in the mother country and a pension guarantees to them a secure retreat after an assured career. The members of the India council, I think, are paid 36,000 florins (or over \$14,000), the provincial governors, 20,000 florins (over \$8,000); the residents, from 12,000 to 18,000 florins (or from \$4,800 to \$7,200); the assistant residents receive 7,000 florins (or \$2,800); the residential secretaries, 4,000 to 6,000 florins (or from \$1,600 to \$2,400); comptrollers, 3,600 to 4,000 (or \$1,450 to \$1,600). There is not a justice of the peace or court sheriff, however modest, that does not get a better salary than our highest magistrate. In the large cities of the colony, as, for instance, Batavia or Soerabaja, a lawyer of good standing makes at least 50,000 florins (over \$20,000). As is seen, the official body that presides over the destinies of Java is skillfully organized, carefully selected, and liberally compensated. It is constituted, so to say, of the cream of the youth in the motherland. Owing to the severe selection to which it is subject, it is possibly the most perfect colonial service in the world.

## THE CIVIL SERVICE IN INDIA.

Sir John Strachey, in his work, *India, 1894*, already referred to, says: "It was long ago laid down as a maxim in regard to the employment of European officers in the more important branches of the public service in India, that the first selection shall not be made in that country, but shall rest with the authorities in England, while after the first selection those authorities shall exercise no interference. The distribution of offices and all questions of appointment and promotion are left absolutely to the governments in India itself. 'It is a historical fact' (I am quoting from an official paper) 'that the observance of this wholesome rule has more than anything else conduced to the purity of Indian patronage and to its general freedom from party and political bias.' \* \* \* The first appointments to the covenanted service were employed by the directors of the East Indian Company by nomination. In that year the nomination system was abolished and the service thrown open to competition of all British subjects. In 1854 regulations for the competitive examinations were prepared, the main object being to secure for the Indian civil service young men who had received the best, the most liberal, the most finished education that this country affords. The scheme of examination was accordingly made to embrace most of the subjects of the honor schools of the universities of Great Britain and Ireland. The limits of age for candidates have varied. Since 1892 they have been from 21 to 23. Successful candidates remain for one year on probation, at the end of which time they have to pass a special examination on subjects connected with the duties they will have to perform in India. Candidates who are found to have a competent knowledge of these subjects then receive their appointments to the civil service in India; candidates are encouraged by the grant of a special allowance of £100 to pass their year of probation at one of the universities or colleges approved by the secretary of state. No one now doubts that this competitive system has been successful in its results. No country has ever possessed a more admirable body of public servants than the civil service of India, and in this term I must include not only its covenanted member, but those of its other branches. Although the competitive examinations are open to all classes of British subjects, the number of natives of India who have been successful in obtaining appointments has been small.

## ONE BRITISH OFFICER TO EACH 300,000 OF NATIVE POPULATION.

"It is a common but complete mistake to suppose that the greater part of the civil administration in India is maintained in the hands of Englishmen and that natives are excluded from important posts. Nothing could be farther from the truth. The number of Englishmen in the civil service is so small that it is not the least extraordinary fact connected with our Indian dominion that we should be able with such a handful of men to control the administration of so vast an empire. Roughly speaking, it may be said that including military officers and others, less than 1,000 Englishmen are employed in the government of 221,000,000 people and in the partial control of 67,000,000 more. In British India there is about one English civil officer to every 300,000 of native population and every 1,200 square miles. Although the highest offices of control are necessarily held by Englishmen, by far the greater part of the administration is in native hands. Excluding the 765 offices held by members of the covenanted service and excluding also all posts of minor importance, nearly all of which are held by natives, there are about 2,600 persons in the superior branches of the executive and judicial services, and among them there are only about thirty Europeans. Notwithstanding the constantly increasing demand for improved administration the strength of the covenanted service recruited in England has been reduced in the last thirty years by more than 22 per cent, and further gradual reduction is in progress. During the same period the number of natives employed in the executive and judicial services has gone on constantly increasing, and with exceptions so rare that they deserve no consideration they now hold all offices other than those held by the comparatively small body of men appointed in England. Native officers manage most of the business connected with all branches of the revenue and with the multifarious interests in land; natives dispose of the greater part of the magisterial work; the duties of the civil courts, excepting the courts of appeal, are almost entirely intrusted to native judges; a native judge sits on the bench in each of the high courts, and for many years past native judges have exercised jurisdiction in all classes of civil cases over natives and Europeans alike. Nothing in the recent history of England has been more remarkable than the improvement in the standard of morality in the higher classes of native officials, much of which has been due to the fact that their position and salaries are far better than they were and that temptations to corruption have been removed.

## SALARIES PAID IN THE INDIAN CIVIL SERVICE.

"The salaries given to natives in posts of importance are very liberal, and with possibly the exception of England there is no country in Europe in which judicial and executive officers receive salaries equal to those given in the native civil service of India. In Bengal a native high court judge receives 50,000 rupees a year (value of rupee about 33 cents). The salaries of native subordinate judges range from 7,200 to 12,000 rupees and those of the munsifs, the lowest class of judges, from 3,000 to 4,800. In France the salaries of the higher judicial and executive officers are smaller than those given to natives in India. A great majority of the prefects in France who hold offices second in importance to hardly any in the country receive less than deputy magistrates of higher grades in Bengal."

## SHARE OF NATIVES IN THE INDIAN CIVIL SERVICE.

Sir George Chesney, in his *Indian Polity*, describing the share of the natives in the civil service of India, especially in its higher grades, says: "The development of the native civil service to its present position has taken place in comparatively recent times. The great increase in the cost of the civil administration which has occurred during this period is due mainly to the creation of new offices required by the needs of improved administration, to be held by Indians only, and to an advance in the rates of salary paid to the Indian members of the service, which are now sensibly higher than the rates obtaining in the indigenous civil services of France, Germany, and other European countries. \* \* \*

## NO MONOPOLY FOR BRITISH ASPIRANTS.

"The monopoly, not of the civil service, but of Englishmen to appointments in that service, was put an end to by the introduction in 1854 of the competitive test for admission. That test, however, was imposed wholly in view of its substitution for nomination as the means of maintaining the supply of Englishmen. That Indians would come to England in large numbers to take part in the competition appears not to have been contemplated by the authors of the scheme. At any rate the opening has in fact been taken advantage of to

only a very limited extent, and so far as it has occurred the result has been to substitute for those whom it was designed to secure, young Englishmen of superior ability and education, a class of Indians having these qualifications also, but drawn mainly from one country of India and from one class of that country, and in no proper sense representative of the people of India generally. \* \* \*

"In 1886 the whole subject of the constitution of the civil service, outside the covenanted service, was referred to a strong commission presided over by a distinguished public servant, Sir Charles Atchison, then lieutenant-governor of the Punjab, and composed of fifteen members, English and Indian, representing many phases of opinion and much diversity of interests. The commission, after visiting various parts of India and taking a great quantity of evidence, submitted their report in the spring of 1888, which was referred to the secretary of state with the opinions and recommendations on it of Lord Dufferin's government in the autumn of that year. The final conclusions and orders of the secretary of state in council on the whole case were embodied in a dispatch to the government of Lord Lansdowne, of September, 1889, to the following effect:

"Heretofore, as has been explained, the administrative and judicial staff of the public service (omitting the special and technical branches, public works, telegraph, education, etc.) had been divided into two parts; one the small covenanted civil service, the other the whole body of public servants, who, down to the humblest clerk, were dealt with under the general title of the uncovenanted service. The salaries of these, who outnumber the covenanted service in the proportion of some hundreds to one, were determined by the office held in each case, but they were all placed under the same conditions as to leave, length of service for pension, and other general regulations. This organization, if such it could be called, was altogether anomalous and out of date, and is to be replaced by a new system. In every province the civil employees are to be divided into two bodies, a subordinate civil service, comprising the holders of clerical and minor offices, and a provincial civil service, to embrace the class engaged on executive and administrative duties. To these last, to be styled the Bengal civil service, Madras civil service, and so on, admission will be obtained under tests to be laid down by the government of the province (subject to confirmation by the higher authorities) and also by promotions of deserving members of the subordinate civil service. Further, which is the important point in this connection, the members of these provincial services are to be eligible for any of the offices heretofore reserved for the covenanted service. The advancement will be gradual. The secretary of state anticipates, and the opinion will be shared by everyone acquainted with India, that while men fit for promotion to the higher judicial posts will soon be forthcoming to the extent required, the development in any considerable number of Indian officials qualified to take executive charge of districts can be looked for only by degrees. Meanwhile the recruitment of the civil service in England is to be so regulated that it may suffice eventually to fill only five-sixths the posts now held by it.' \* \* \* With that change it may be said that the road is now fully open to the Indian which leads to the highest offices of state."

#### REQUIREMENTS FOR ENTERING THE CIVIL SERVICE IN INDIA.

The following official announcement for an open competitive examination for admission to the civil service of India in August, 1901, with the regulations attached thereto, indicates the high training required of those entering or proposing to enter the Indian civil service:

##### EXAMINATIONS FOR THE CIVIL SERVICE OF INDIA.

An open competitive examination for admission to the civil service of India will be held in London, under the subjoined regulations, commencing on the 1st of August, 1901.

The number of persons to be selected at this examination will be announced hereafter.

No person will be admitted to compete from whom the secretary, civil service commission, has not received, on or before the 1st of July, 1901, an application on the prescribed form, accompanied by a list of the subjects in which the candidate desires to be examined.

The order for admission to the examination will be posted on the 18th of July, 1901, to the address given on the form of application. It will contain instructions as to the time and place at which candidates will be required to attend and as to the manner in which the fee (£6 sterling) is to be paid. (Civil service commission, August, 1900.)

##### REGULATIONS.

The following regulations, made by the secretary of state for India in council, are liable to alterations from year to year:

1. An examination for admission to the civil service of India, open to all qualified persons, will be held in London in August of each year. The date of the examination and the number of appointments to be made for each province will be announced beforehand by the civil service commissioners.

2. No person will be deemed qualified who shall not satisfy the civil service commissioners—

(a) That he is a natural-born subject of Her Majesty.

(b) That he had attained the age of 21 and had not attained the age of 23 on the first day of the year in which the examination is held. (N. B.—In the case of natives of India it will be necessary for a candidate to obtain a certificate of age and nationality signed, should he be a resident in British India, by the secretary to government of the province or the commissioner of the division within which his family resides, or, should he reside in a Native State, by the highest political officer credited to the State in which his family resides.)

(c) That he has no disease, constitutional affection, or bodily infirmity unfitting him, or likely to unfit him, for the civil service of India.

(d) That he is of good moral character.

3. Should the evidence upon the above points be prima facie satisfactory to the civil service commissioners, the candidate, on payment of the prescribed fee, will be admitted to the examination. The commissioners may, however, in their discretion, at any time prior to the grant of the certificate of qualification hereinafter referred to, institute such further inquiries as they may deem necessary, and if the result of such inquiries in the case of any candidate should be unsatisfactory to them in any of the above respects he will be ineligible for admission to the civil service of India, and if already selected, will be removed from the position of a probationer.

4. The open competitive examination will take place only in the following branches of knowledge:

	Marks.
English composition.....	500
Sanskrit language and literature.....	500
Arabic language and literature.....	500
Greek language and literature.....	750
Latin language and literature.....	750
English language and literature (including special period named by the commissioners) <sup>1</sup> .....	500

<sup>1</sup> Candidates are at liberty to name any or all of these branches of knowledge. None is obligatory.

	Marks.
French language and literature (including special period named by the commissioners) <sup>1</sup> .....	500
German language and literature (including special period named by the commissioners) <sup>1</sup> .....	500
Mathematics (pure and applied) .....	900
Advanced mathematical subjects (pure and applied) .....	900
Natural science, i. e., any number not exceeding three of the following subjects:	
(N. B.—Some changes may possibly be made under this head (natural science) for the examination to be held in 1902.)	
Elementary chemistry and elementary physics .....	600
(N. B.—This subject may not be taken up by those who offer either higher chemistry or higher physics.)	
Higher chemistry .....	600
Higher physics .....	600
Geology .....	600
Botany .....	600
Zoology .....	600
Greek history (ancient, including constitution) .....	400
Roman history (ancient, including constitution) .....	400
English history .....	500
General modern history (one of the periods specified in the syllabus issued by the commissioners) <sup>1</sup> .....	500
Logic and mental philosophy (ancient and modern) .....	400
Moral philosophy (ancient and modern) .....	400
Political economy and economic history .....	500
Political science (including analytical jurisprudence, the early history of institutions, and theory of legislation) .....	500
Roman law .....	500
English law. (Under the head of "English law" shall be included the following subjects, viz: (1) Law of contracts; (2) law of evidence; (3) law of the constitution; (4) criminal law; (5) law of real property; and of these five subjects, candidates shall be at liberty to offer any four, but not more than four) .....	500

5. The merit of the persons examined will be estimated by marks; and the number set opposite to each branch in the preceding regulation denotes the greatest number of marks that can be obtained in respect of it.

6. The marks assigned to candidates in each branch will be subject to such deduction as the civil service commissioners may deem necessary in order to secure that no credit be allowed for merely superficial knowledge.

7. The examination will be conducted on paper and viva voce, as may be deemed necessary.

8. The marks obtained by each candidate, in respect of each of the branches in which he shall have been examined, will be added up and the names of the several candidates who shall have obtained, after the deduction above mentioned, a greater aggregate number of marks than any of the remaining candidates will be set forth in order of merit, and such candidates shall be deemed to be selected candidates for the civil service of India, provided they appear to be in other respects duly qualified. Should any of the selected candidates become disqualified, the secretary of state for India will determine whether the vacancy thus created shall be filled up or not. In the former case the candidate next in order of merit and in other respects duly qualified shall be deemed to be a selected candidate. A candidate entitled to be deemed a selected candidate, but declining to accept the nomination as such which may be offered to him, will be disqualified for any subsequent competition.

9. Selected candidates, before proceeding to India, will be on probation for one year, at the end of which time they will be examined, with a view of testing their progress in the following subjects:

Compulsory:	Marks.
1. Indian penal code .....	250
2. Code of criminal procedure .....	250
3. The Indian evidence act .....	250
4. The principal vernacular language of the province to which the candidate is assigned .....	400
Optional. Not more than two of the following subjects:	
1. The code of civil procedure and the Indian contract act .....	400
2. Hindu and Mohammadan law .....	450
3. Sanskrit .....	400
4. Arabic .....	400
5. Persian .....	400
6. History of British India .....	350
7. Chinese (for candidates assigned to the province of Burma only) .....	400

In this examination, as in the open competition, the merit of the candidates examined will be estimated by marks (which will be subject to deductions in the same way as the marks assigned at the open competition), and the number set opposite to each subject denotes the greatest number of marks that can be obtained in respect of it. The examination will be conducted on paper and viva voce, as may be deemed necessary. This examination will be held at the close of the year of probation, and will be called the "Final examination."

If any candidate is prevented by sickness or any other adequate cause from attending such examination, the commissioners may, with the concurrence of the secretary of state for India, in council, allow him to appear at the final examination to be held in the following year, or at a special examination.

10. The selected candidates will also be tested during their probation as to their proficiency in riding.

The examinations in riding will be held as follows:

(1) Shortly after the result of the open competitive examination has been declared, or at such time or times as the commissioners may appoint during the course of the probationary year.

(2) Again, at the time of the final examination, candidates who may fully satisfy the commissioners of their ability to ride well and to perform journeys on horseback, shall receive a certificate, which shall entitle them to be credited with 200 or 100 marks, according to the degree of proficiency displayed, to be added to their marks in the final examination.

(3) Candidates who fail to obtain this certificate, but who gain a certificate of minimum proficiency in riding, will be allowed to proceed to India, but will be subjected on their arrival to such further tests in riding as may be prescribed by their Government, and shall receive no increase to their initial salary until they have passed such tests to the satisfaction of the Government. A candidate who fails at the end of the year of probation to gain at least the certificate of minimum proficiency in riding will be liable to have his name removed from the list of selected candidates.

11. The selected candidates who, on examination, shall be found to have a competent knowledge of the subjects specified in regulation 9, and who have satisfied the civil service commissioners of their eligibility in respect of nationality, age, health, character, conduct during the period of probation, and ability to ride, shall be certified by the said commissioners to be entitled to be appointed to the civil service of India, provided they shall comply with the regulations in force at the time for that service.

12. Persons desirous to be admitted as candidates must apply on forms, which may be obtained from "The secretary civil service commission, London, S. W.," at any time after the 1st of December in the year previous to that in which the examination is to be held. The forms must be returned so as to be received at the office of the civil service commissioners on or before 1st of July (or, if

<sup>1</sup> Candidates are at liberty to name any or all of these branches of knowledge. None is obligatory.



that date should fall upon a Sunday or public holiday, then on or before the first day thereafter on which their office is open) in the year in which the examination is to be held.

The civil service commissioners are authorized by the secretary of state for India in council to make the following announcements:

(1) Selected candidates will be allotted to the various provinces upon a consideration of all the circumstances, including their own wishes; but the requirements of the public service will rank before every other consideration.

(2) An allowance amounting to £100 will be given to all candidates who pass their probation at one of the universities or colleges which have been approved by the secretary of state, viz, the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, Dublin, Glasgow, Edinburgh, St. Andrews, and Aberdeen; Victoria University, Manchester; University College, London, and King's College, London, provided such candidates shall have passed the final examination to the satisfaction of the civil service commissioners and shall have conducted themselves well and complied with such rules as may be laid down for the guidance of selected candidates. The whole probation must ordinarily be passed at the same institution. Migration will not be permitted except for special reasons approved by the secretary of state.

(3) The allowance of £100 will not be paid to any selected candidate until he has been certified by the civil service commissioners to be entitled to be appointed to the civil service of India, and every certificated candidate must, before receiving his allowance, give a written undertaking to refund the amount in the event of his failing to proceed to India.

(4) All candidates obtaining certificates will be also required to enter into covenants by which, among other things, they will bind themselves to make such payments as, under the rules and regulations for the time being in force, they may be required to make toward their own pensions or for the pensions of their families. The stamps payable on these covenants amount to £1.

(5) The seniority in the civil service of India of the selected candidates will be determined according to the order in which they stand on the list resulting from the combined marks of the open competitive and final examinations.

(6) Selected candidates will be required to report their arrival in India within such period after the grant of their certificate of qualification as the secretary of state may in each case direct.

(7) Candidates rejected at the final examination held in any year will in no case be allowed to present themselves for reexamination.

SYLLABUS SHOWING THE EXTENT OF THE EXAMINATION IN CERTAIN SUBJECTS AT THE OPEN COMPETITION FOR THE CIVIL SERVICE OF INDIA, CLERKSHIPS (CLASS I) IN THE HOME CIVIL SERVICE, AND EASTERN CADETSHIPS.

*English composition.*—An essay to be written on one of several subjects specified by the civil service commissioners on their examination paper.

*English language and literature.*—The examination will be in two parts. In the one the candidates will be expected to show a general acquaintance with the course of English literature, as represented (mainly) by the following writers in verse and prose, between the reign of Edward III and the accession of Queen Victoria:

Verse: Chaucer, Langland, Spenser, Shakespeare, Milton, Dryden, Pope, Gray, Collins, Johnson, Goldsmith, Crabbe, Cowper, Campbell, Wordsworth, Scott, Byron, Coleridge, Shelley, Keats.

Prose: Bacon, Sir Thomas Browne, Milton, Cowley, Bunyan, Dryden, Swift, Defoe, Addison, Johnson, Burke, Scott, Macaulay (essays and biographies).

A minute knowledge of the works of these authors will be looked for in this part of the examination, which will, however, test how far the candidates have studied the chief productions of the greatest English writers in themselves and are acquainted with the leading characteristics of their thought and style, and with the place which each of them occupies in the history of English literature. Candidates will also be expected to show that they have studied in these authors the history of the English language in respect of its vocabulary, syntax, and prosody.

The other part of the examination will relate to one of the periods named below, which will follow each other year by year in the order indicated:

1. (1901), 1600 to 1700 (Shakespeare to Dryden).
2. (1902), 1700 to 1800 (Pope to Cowper).
3. (1903), 1800 to 1832 (nineteenth century writers to the death of Scott).
4. (1904), 1360 to 1600 (Chaucer to Spenser).

The examination in this part will require from candidates a more minute acquaintance with the history of the English language and literature, as illustrated in the chief works produced in each period, and will be based to a considerable extent, but by no means exclusively, on certain books specified each year by the commissioners. The names placed under the dates are intended to suggest the general character of the literary development of the period, and consequently the natural limits of the examination. All the works of Shakespeare, for example, will be regarded as falling within the period 1600 to 1700; all the works of Swift within the period 1700 to 1800; all the works of Scott and Wordsworth and all the works of Macaulay within the period 1800 to 1832.

*French language and literature.*—Translation from French into English, and from English into French; critical questions on the French language and literature.

*German language and literature.*—As in French.

*Latin language and literature.*—Translation from Latin into English. Composition in prose and verse, or (as an alternative for verse composition) a Latin essay or letter. Critical questions on the Latin language (including questions on philology) and literature.

*Greek language and literature.*—Translation from Greek into English. Composition in prose and verse, or (as an alternative for verse composition) a Greek dialogue or oration. Critical questions on the Greek language (including questions on philology) and literature.

*Sanskrit language and literature.*—Translations from Sanskrit into English, and from English into Sanskrit. History of Sanskrit literature (including knowledge of such Indian history as bears upon the subject); Sanskrit grammar; Vedic philology.

*Arabic language and literature.*—Translations as in Sanskrit; history of Arabic literature (including knowledge of such Arabic history as bears upon the subject); Arabic grammar; Arabic prosody.

*English history.*—General questions on English history from A. D. 800 to A. D. 1848; questions on the constitutional history of England from A. D. 800 to A. D. 1848.

*General modern history.*—Candidates may, at their choice, be examined in any one of the following periods: (1) From the accession of Charlemagne to the Third Crusade (800 to 1193); (2) from the Third Crusade to the Diet of Worms (1193 to 1521); (3) from the Diet of Worms to the death of Louis XIV (1521 to 1715); (4) from the accession of Louis XV to the French Revolution of 1848 (1715 to 1848). Periods 3 and 4 will include Indian history.

*Greek history.*—Questions on the general history of Greece to the death of Alexander; questions on the constitutional history of Greece during the same period.

*Roman history.*—Questions on the general history of Rome to the death of Vespasian; questions on the constitutional history of Rome during the same period.

In Greek and Roman history candidates will be expected to show a knowledge of the original authorities.

*Mathematics.*—Pure mathematics: Algebra, geometry (Euclid and geometrical conic sections), plane trigonometry, plane analytical geometry (less advanced portions), differential calculus (elementary), integral calculus (elementary). Applied mathematics: Statics, dynamics of a particle, hydrostatics, geometrical optics; all treated without the aid of the differential or integral calculus.

*Advanced mathematics.*—Pure mathematics: Higher algebra, including theory of equations, plane and spherical trigonometry, differential calculus, integral calculus, differential equations, analytical geometry, plane and solid. Applied mathematics: Statics, including attractions, dynamics of a particle, rigid dynamics, hydrodynamics, the mathematical theory of electricity and magnetism.

*Political economy and economic history.*—Candidates will be expected to possess a knowledge of economic theory as treated in the larger text-books; also a knowledge of the existing economic conditions, and of statistical methods as applied to economic inquiries, together with a general knowledge of the history of industry, land tenure, and economic legislation in the United Kingdom.

*Logic and mental philosophy (ancient and modern).*—Logic will include both deductive and inductive logic. Mental philosophy will include psychology and metaphysics.

*Political science.*—The examinations will not be confined to analytical jurisprudence, early institutions, and theory of legislation, but may embrace comparative politics, the history of political theories, etc.

Candidates will be expected to show a knowledge of original authorities.

#### REGULATIONS FOR ADMISSION TO THE INDIAN POLICE FORCE THROUGH A COMPETITIVE EXAMINATION IN LONDON ON JUNE 25, 1901.

I. *Date of examination.*—The examination will be conducted by the civil service commission. It will be simultaneous with and in the same subjects and papers as the examination for the Indian forest department, except that in the police examination German is not an obligatory subject, and botany is no longer included in the list of subjects.

*Place of examination.*—Candidates may undergo the written part of their examination in London, Edinburgh, or Dublin, or at any of the provincial centers at which the simultaneous examination of candidates for admission to the Royal Military College, Sandhurst, is to be held. A list of the probable centers may be obtained from the civil service commissioners at any time after January, 1901. The oral and practical parts of the examination will be held in London only.

*Examination fee.*—A fee of £2 is required from candidates examined in London, but when the written examination is conducted elsewhere than in London, the fee is £3. Candidates examined at a college or school will probably be required to pay a local fee (in order to defray the expenses of superintendence), as to which they should obtain early information from the college or school authorities. The fee payable to the civil service commissioners must be paid by means of stamps of the specified amount. Instructions on this point will be issued to candidates about ten days before the examination.

II. *Number of appointments.*—The number of candidates to be selected will be 17, viz: For Madras 4, Bombay 4, Bengal 2, Northwestern Provinces and Oudh 4, Punjab 2, and Central Provinces 1.

III. *Conditions of eligibility.*—Candidates must be British born or naturalized British subjects. They must, without exception on any ground, be above 19 and under 21 years of age on the 1st of June, 1901. They must be unmarried, and if they marry before reaching India they will forfeit their appointments.

IV. *Documents to be furnished by candidates.*—Candidates must notify their wish to compete at the examination to the secretary, judicial and public department, India office, on or before May 1, 1901, sending at the same time—

(a) Information as to their names and parentage, certificates (or other satisfactory evidence) of the date of their birth, and the written consent of parent or guardian to their candidature.

(b) A statement of the places at which they have been educated, accompanied by satisfactory testimonials of good conduct during the last four years.

(c) An intimation of their wishes as to the province or provinces in which they would prefer to serve, and of any special reasons for such preference.

V. *Medical examination.*—Within the five weeks preceding the literary examination candidates will be required to undergo a strict examination by a medical board at the India office as to their physique and capacity for active outdoor work in the plains of India. The medical board meets on Tuesdays at 1 o'clock, and candidates are required to give some days' notice of their intention to appear for examination.

VI. *Subjects of examination.*—Those candidates only who are passed by the medical board will be allowed to undergo the literary examination before the civil service commissioners. The subjects as classified and the marks assigned to each are given below.

#### CLASS I.

	Marks.
1. Mathematics (I) including arithmetic .....	3,000
2. French or German (300 for colloquial) .....	2,000
3. English composition .....	1,000
4. Geometrical drawing .....	500
5. Free-hand drawing .....	500
6. Geography .....	500

All the subjects of class I may be taken up.

#### CLASS II.

	Marks.
7. Mathematics (II) .....	2,000
8. German or French .....	2,000
9. Latin .....	2,000
10. Greek .....	2,000
11. English history .....	2,000
12. Chemistry and heat .....	2,000
13. Physics .....	2,000
14. Physiography and geology .....	2,000

Only two of the subjects of Class II may be taken up, and if one of these subjects is a modern language it must be different from the modern language selected in Class I.

Candidates must obtain such an aggregate of marks in the examination as a whole as may indicate, in the judgment of the civil-service commissioners, a competent amount of general proficiency.

VII. *Appointment of probationers.*—The secretary of state will nominate as probationers such competitors as attain the highest aggregate of marks (provided they obtain the minimum aggregate referred to above and satisfy the requisite conditions in other respects).

VIII. *Riding test.*—Selected candidates will be examined by the civil service commissioners as to their ability to ride, and will be required to produce—

(a) A certificate from the civil service commissioners that they are able to ride well and to perform journeys on horseback, or

(b) A certificate from the civil service commissioners of minimum proficiency in riding.

In the latter case they will be subjected, on their arrival in India, to such further tests in riding as may be prescribed by their Government, and will not be appointed assistant superintendents of police until they shall have passed such tests to the satisfaction of their Government.

IX. *Allotment to provinces.*—Selected candidates who have successfully passed the above-mentioned tests will be allotted, as probationers, to the various provinces upon a consideration of all the circumstances, including their own wishes; but the requirements of the public service will rank before every other consideration. The allotment will also be subject to the right of the government of India to make transfers, if necessary.

X. *Departure for India.*—The probationers will be required to start for India not later than October, 1901, so as to arrive in the course of November. Failure to embark in time will, in the absence of satisfactory explanation, lead to forfeiture of appointment. Free passages to India will be provided by the India office.

XI. *Salary during probation.*—On arrival in India probationers will receive an initial salary of Rs. 250 a month during their period of probation.



XII. *Period of probation.*—Probationers will be required to qualify by passing the necessary departmental examinations (as well as the riding test, if necessary, see Rule VIII) within two years of their arrival in India.

XIII. *Liability of probationers to removal.*—Any probationer who may fail to pass the prescribed examinations within two years, or be found unfit for police duties, will be liable to removal from the service. Any probationer so removed from the service will be furnished with a free passage to England, provided he utilizes such passage within three months from the date of such removal.

XIV. *Salary after probation.*—When probationers have passed the qualifying examinations (as well as the riding test) they will, if otherwise approved, be appointed assistant superintendents of police, and their salary will be raised to Rs. 300 a month.

XV. *Leave and pension.*—Officers joining the Indian police under these conditions will find the leave rules which apply to them in Chapter XIII, and the pension rules in Part IV of the "Civil-service regulations." Abstracts of the regulations referred to will be found in the following pages.

XVI. *Articles of agreement.*—Probationers will be required to sign articles of agreement describing the terms and conditions of their appointment prior to embarkation for India.

#### APPENDIX I.—SYLLABUS.

*Mathematics (I).*—The extent of the examination will be as follows: Arithmetic, algebra up to and including the binomial theorem, the theory and use of logarithms; Euclid, Books I to IV and VI; plane trigonometry up to and including solution of triangles and mensuration.

*Mathematics (II).*—Further questions on the syllabus of mathematics (I): Elementary solid geometry, including Euclid, Book XI, propositions 1 to 21, Euclid, Book XII, propositions 1 and 2, geometrical conic sections, the elementary properties common to the ellipse, parabola, and hyperbola; dynamics and statics, uniform and uniformly accelerated rectilinear motion, uniform circular motion, motion of projectiles (not requiring a knowledge of the parabola), equilibrium of forces in one plane and of parallel forces, the center of mass, and the construction and use of the simpler machines.

*Latin.*—Passages selected from the authors usually read in schools will be set for translation into English. Passages from English authors will be given for translation into Latin prose and verse, but candidates will be allowed in the place of verse composition to answer questions of a simple character, which will test whether they possess a fundamental knowledge of the grammar of the language and such elementary acquaintance with Roman history as is required for the intelligent study of the books they have read.

*Greek.*—Passages will be set for translation into English from the authors usually read in schools, and in other respects the examination will proceed on the same lines as in Latin.

*French.*—Translations of unseen passages from French into English, and from English into French; the passages for translation will be taken mainly from standard authors, and a few simple questions may be asked on the passages set, as to the structure and character of the language, and allusions of obvious and general interest. The viva voce examination will include dictation. Three hundred marks will be allotted to colloquial knowledge of the language.

*German.*—The passages for translation will be taken mainly from standard authors, and in other respects the examination will proceed on the same lines as in French.

*English composition.*—Candidates will be tested by precis writing as well as by an essay. The standard of positive merit will be looked for in logical arrangement of thought, and in accuracy and propriety of expression, but large deductions of marks will be made for faults of writing and spelling.

Candidates are also warned that, for similar faults in the use of the English language, similar deductions will be made from the marks obtained in other subjects.

*Geometrical drawing.*—Practical plane geometry; the construction of scales; and the elements of solid geometry, and of simple orthographic projection. Great importance will be attached to neatness and exactness of drawing.

*Geography.*—Simple questions in descriptive and general geography.

*English history.*—The general paper in this subject will be confined to events subsequent to the Norman Conquest. It will test whether the candidates are accurately acquainted with the facts of English history, and also possess an intelligent knowledge of the meaning of the facts. The paper on the special period will be confined to distinctly modern history. It will require from the candidates more minute knowledge than the general paper.

*Natural science subjects.*—The standard of examination in these subjects will be such as may be reasonably expected from the education given at schools possessing appliances for practical instruction, such as a laboratory, etc. A considerable portion of the marks will be given for proficiency shown in the practical part of the examination. A knowledge of the metric system will be expected.

*Chemistry.*—The laws of chemical combination and decomposition, and the preparation, classification, and properties of the principal metallic and nonmetallic elements, and of such of their compounds as are treated of in inorganic chemistry. In the practical part of the examination only the more ordinary apparatus and the less dangerous reagents will be supplied, and no candidate will be allowed to bring his own apparatus or reagents.

*Heat.*—The elementary portion of the subject.

*Physics.*—The elementary properties of electricity, magnetism, light, and sound.

*Geology.*—Chiefly economic, including the recognition of the more familiar minerals and rocks, and their properties and uses.

#### SIR JOHN STRACHEY ON THE INDIAN CIVIL SERVICE.

Sir John Strachey in his work, India, says: "Although the highest offices of control are necessarily held by Englishmen, by far the greater part of the actual administration is in native hands. Excluding the 765 offices held by members of the covenanted service, and excluding also all posts of minor importance, nearly all of which are held by natives, there are about 2,600 persons in the superior branches of the executive and judicial services, and among them are only about 30 Europeans. These are facts which are often ignored in discussing the question of the admission of natives to a larger share of public employment. Notwithstanding the constantly increasing demands for improved administration, the strength of the covenanted service recruited in England has been reduced in the last twenty years by more than 32 per cent, and further gradual reduction is in progress. During the same period the number of natives employed in the executive and judicial services has gone on constantly increasing, and with exceptions so rare that they deserve no consideration they now hold all offices other than those held by the comparatively small body of men appointed in England. Under orders passed in 1879 by the government of Lord Lytton no person other than a native of India can be appointed to any post in the executive or judicial service carrying a salary of 200 rupees a month and upward without the previous sanction of the governor-general in council. These orders are still in force, and how completely they have been carried out is shown by the fact just stated that these branches of the service are practically manned entirely by natives of India.

#### THE NATIVE OFFICERS.

"The organization of our great and highly efficient native civil service is one of the most successful of the achievements of the British Government in India. Native officers manage most of the business connected with all branches of the revenue and with the multifarious interests inland. Natives dispose of the greater part of the magisterial work. The duties of the civil courts, excepting

the courts of appeal, are almost entirely trusted to native judges. A native judge sits on the bench in each of the high courts. For many years past native judges have exercised jurisdiction in all classes of civil cases—over natives and Europeans alike. It is my belief that as a rule their work is quite as good as that of the English judges. Thirty years ago the native civil service was badly paid, comparatively inefficient, and not always trustworthy. In these respects there has been a great change. Nothing in the recent history of India has been more remarkable than the improvement that has taken place in the standard of morality among the higher classes of the native officials. Much of this has certainly been due to the fact that their position and salaries are far better than they were and that temptations to corruption have been removed, but it can not be doubted that much has been due to their better education. Another powerful cause has been in silent and constant operation. The native officials have had before them, through a long course of years, the example of the irreproachable integrity of the Englishman employed in the higher ranks of the public service. Living in an atmosphere of official uprightness has made native judges and magistrates upright also.

#### SALARIES PAID TO NATIVES.

"The salaries given to natives in posts of importance are very liberal, and they certainly do not err on the side of being too small. With possibly the exception of England, there is no country in Europe in which judicial and executive officers receive salaries equal to those given in the native civil service of India.

"Salaries depend upon the service to which a man belongs, and are not affected by questions of nationality. Thus, in the imperial service recruited in England the rules regarding pay, leave, and pension are the same for all members, whether they are European or native. In the provincial services, recruited in India, the conditions of service are fixed on independent grounds. They are regulated in both cases by consideration of the terms necessary to secure the desired qualifications. \* \* \*

#### NO DISTINCTION OF RACE.

"Since 1836 no distinctions of race have been recognized in the civil courts throughout India. At the present time native judges preside over the great majority of the courts; excepting the higher appellate tribunals, almost the whole administration of civil justice is in their hands. They exercise jurisdiction in all classes of civil cases over natives and Europeans alike, and no word of objection on the part of the latter is ever heard. The Lord Chancellor did not give the native judges too high a character when he said in the House of Lords in 1883, as the result of his experience of Indian cases appealed to the Privy Council, that 'in respect of integrity, of learning, of knowledge, of the soundness and satisfactory character of their judgments arrived at, the judgments of the native judges were quite as good as those of the English.' I think that the highest authorities in India would go even further and say that, excepting the high courts, the native judgments are the better of the two. In disposing of business of this sort superior knowledge of the language and habits of the people gives to the native many advantages over the Englishman. \* \* \*"

#### QUALIFICATIONS REQUIRED FOR THE CIVIL SERVICE IN THE DUTCH EAST INDIES.

The care exercised by the Netherlands Government in its colonial civil service is illustrated by the following statement from Ireland's "Tropical Colonization":

"Nowhere, except perhaps in the British Indian civil service, is as much care taken in the selection of officials as in the Dutch East Indies. All appointments to the higher administrative posts in Java follow a rigid examination in the history, geography, and ethnology of the Dutch East Indies, the political and social institutions of the natives, and in the Malay and Javanese languages. The officials who are to be charged with the administration of justice must hold the degree of doctor of laws from one of the Dutch universities, and in addition pass examinations in Mussulman law and local common law. The salaries of these officials are large, ranging from about \$15,000 a year for the directors to about \$6,000 for the residents. Admirable as is the European service in the Dutch East Indies, it is not until we turn to the organization of the native staff that we observe in its highest form the colonizing genius of Holland. When the Dutch occupied Java at the beginning of the seventeenth century they found the island divided up into a number of kingdoms or principalities, each of them governed by a native ruler who held his position as being head of the reigning family. In dividing the island into twenty-two administrative districts the Dutch followed as far as possible the boundaries of the petty native States, and whilst taking away the substance of authority from the native rulers allowed them to retain its outward semblance. Thus the regent who is at the head of each regency is generally the same man who, in the event of the Dutch authority never having been established, would have been the native prince of that district. But he is a paid servant of the Dutch Government and really under the control of the Dutch resident. The natives are not allowed to perceive that such control exists, for the regent maintains great state, and when a resident visits the regency he takes great care to show the greatest deference to the regent. He gives his orders in the forms of recommendations, and this method which would be considered absurd amongst us carries the highest significance among the Javanese, since he is known as the "elder brother," and in the Javanese family the eldest brother is, in the absence of the father, the head of the family and respected as such by the younger brothers. The regent, although he has only the semblance of power, makes up for it by enjoying all those extraordinary forms which catch the crowd, for he retains his rank and can surround himself with all the luxury of an Asiatic court. An important feature of the Dutch rule in the East Indies is that no attempt has been made to force the Dutch language upon the natives. All Dutch officials must be proficient in the native dialects and justice is administered either in Malay or Javanese. If the highest objects of a government is to make a country tranquil and prosperous then the Dutch have governed better than any other European nation which has undertaken the government of tropical dependencies."

#### RULES GOVERNING ADMISSION TO THE CIVIL SERVICE IN JAVA.

The following rules relating to the grand examination for official service in the Dutch East Indies, show the high qualifications and careful preparation required:

ARTICLE 1. The examination for officials is divided into two parts, of which the second is competitive.

An opportunity shall be given, both in Holland and the Dutch Indies, to pass the first part on and after the year 1894, and to pass the second part on and after the year 1896.

ARTICLE 2. The first part of the examination for officials shall cover the following subjects:

1. The geography of the Dutch Indies.

2. The Dutch Indian codes of law.
3. The introduction to the religious laws, institutions, and customs of the Dutch Indies.
4. The elements of the Malay language.
5. The elements of the Javanese language.

Only those persons shall be admitted to this part of the grand examination for officials who have passed one of the following examinations:

- (a) One of the examinations for obtaining a certificate of fitness to pursue the studies of a university, or one of the examinations held by the faculties of a Dutch university.
- (b) The final examination of one of the high schools with a five years' course, or of the State Agricultural School, or of the Polytechnic School, as provided in the law on secondary education.
- (c) The examination taken by persons who have followed the preparatory course at the State Agricultural School, as provided by the royal ordinance of January 9, 1891, No. 10 (Indisch Staatsblad, No. 104).
- (d) The final examination of a high school, with a five years' course in the Dutch Indies.
- (e) The final examination of the Royal Institute for the Navy, or a final examination at the Royal Military Academy.

Any person who shall have already offered himself twice for this part of the examination and has been rejected, or for any reason except grounds deemed legitimate by the Government has failed to appear or has withdrawn himself, shall not be admitted to it again.

Those who have already offered themselves for the first part of the grand examinations for officials more than once without obtaining a diploma, before this ordinance goes into effect, shall be admitted once more to this part of the examination.

ARTICLE 3. The second part of the grand examination for officials shall cover, in every case, the following six subjects, which are therefore termed "required subjects:"

1. The history of the Dutch Indies.
2. The geography and ethnology of the Dutch Indies.
3. The religious laws, institutions, and customs of the Dutch Indies.
4. The public institutions of the Dutch Indies;
5. The Malay language;
6. The Javanese language.

Those who wish to do so can, at the second part of the grand examination for officials, also pass an examination in any other native language of the Dutch Indies in which an examination can, in the opinion of the minister of the colonies or of the governor-general, be given with security.

Each language shall be marked at the examination as a separate subject.

Only those persons shall be admitted to the second part of the grand examination for officials who have passed the first part.

Those persons who have passed one of the examinations mentioned in the second paragraph of article 2, and can prove to the satisfaction of the minister of the colonies in Holland, and of the governor-general in the Dutch Indies, that they prepared themselves for the grand examination for officials for service in the Indies, without having an opportunity to pass it in 1893, shall be admitted to the second half of the said examination.

The grand examination for officials shall begin every year in Holland on the third Monday of the month of June, in the Dutch Indies at a time to be appointed by the governor-general. It shall be announced twice in the official newspaper about two months beforehand.

Within one month after the first announcement all persons who wish to enter the examination must give written notice thereof, in Holland to the department of the colonies, in the Dutch Indies to the secretary-general.

They must state therein which part of the examination they wish to enter, and, if it is the second part of the examination, whether they wish to be examined in any native languages besides Malay and Javanese.

At the same time they must deposit the evidence that they are qualified, in accordance with the provision of articles 2 and 3, to enter that part of the examination for which they offer themselves.

(Those persons who are under any obligations to serve in the navy or in the army in the Netherlands or in the East or West Indies must, in order to be admitted to the second part of the examination, show that they have completed the service or deposit the evidence of an honorable discharge. If they fail to do so, their request to be admitted to the second part of the examination will receive no attention and will not be delivered to the examining commission.)

(The same action will be taken in the case of requests to be admitted to the second part of the examination on the part of persons who, on account of their nationality, can not be appointed to the civil service in the Dutch Indies.)

(These last two paragraphs were repealed by the ordinance of February 3, 1899.)

ARTICLE 7. Both parts of the grand examination for officials shall be held in public, in accordance with a regulation and programme to be made by the minister of the colonies.

Each candidate shall be given a mark for every subject in which he is examined.

The question whether a candidate has or has not passed the second part of the examination shall be determined according to the marks obtained in the required subjects, in the manner provided in the regulation, without taking into account the examination in the subjects not required.

#### REGULATIONS FOR THE GRAND EXAMINATION FOR OFFICIALS FOR SERVICE IN THE INDIES.

ARTICLE 1. The commission for holding the grand examination for officials shall pay careful attention to the provisions made in the rules concerning the said examination, annexed to the Royal Ordinance of July 20, 1893, No. 29.

ARTICLE 2. In a preliminary session the commission shall inquire whether the candidates have furnished the evidence that, having satisfied the requirements of articles 2 and 3 of the rules annexed to the Royal Ordinance of July 20, 1893, No. 29, they can be admitted to the part of the examination for which they have offered themselves.

For this purpose the commission shall receive in due season the documents which have been sent by the candidates to the department of the colonies or to the secretary-general.

In doubtful cases they shall request the decision of the minister of the colonies or of the governor-general.

The commission shall give notice to those who can not be admitted to the part of the grand examination for officials for which they have offered themselves.

ARTICLE 3. In the preliminary session there shall be formed for each part of the examination, from among the members of the commission, as many subcommittees, of at least two members, as there are subjects to be examined; and to each subcommittee shall be assigned a subject in which it shall examine. The president and secretary may be excused from taking part in these subcommittees.

ARTICLE 4. The president, in consultation with the secretary, shall determine the order of business of the whole commission and of the subcommittees, and, as far as possible, in such a way that the examination of each candidate shall be finished in two days in the case of the first part and in three days in the case of the second part of the examination.

ARTICLE 5. The candidates shall be informed by the secretary in due time of the time and place of their examinations.

ARTICLE 6. The first part of the examination shall be oral in every subject, with the exception of the elements of the Malay language and the elements of the Javanese language, in which written examinations shall be given. The oral examination in every subject lasts at most three-quarters of an hour, the written examination two hours.

The second part of the examination shall be oral and written in every subject. The oral examination in every subject lasts at the most half an hour, the written examination two hours.

In each of the subjects, "History of the Dutch Indies," "Geography and ethnology of the Dutch Indies," "Religious laws, institutions, and customs of the Dutch Indies," and "Political institutions of the Dutch Indies," the candidates shall be given in the written examination a choice between two questions.

ARTICLE 7. Written work handed in to a subcommittee shall be examined by each of its members. As far as possible all the members of a subcommittee shall be present at the oral examination. In case of temporary hindrance the president shall appoint another member of the commission to take the place of the absent member of the subcommittee.

ARTICLE 8. To each candidate shall be given in every subject in which he is examined a mark from 0 to 10. The mark 0 means entire ignorance; the marks 1 and 2, betoken bad; 3 and 4, unsatisfactory; 5 and 6, satisfactory; 7 and 8, good; 9 and 10, excellent; always with the understanding that the higher mark indicates a higher degree of knowledge than the lower.

ARTICLE 9. The members of each subcommittee shall try to agree about the marks to be given to the person examined by them. Objections to the mark given can, however, be offered by other members of the commission who have been present at the examination or have looked over the written work.

If the members of a subcommittee can not agree upon a mark to be given, or if a difference of opinion about it exists between them and another member of the commission, the president, after hearing the opinion of the members of the commission who may be supposed to have the best knowledge of the subject, shall endeavor to bring about an agreement of opinion, and if he does not succeed in this he shall decide upon the mark to be given on his own judgment formed upon the opinions given him.

ARTICLE 10. A candidate who has received at the first part of the examination in every subject, or at the second part of the examination in each of the required subjects, the mark 5, or a higher mark, shall be declared, without further discussion, to have passed the examination.

A candidate who has not received at the first part of the examination more than 22 points for all the subjects added together, or a candidate who has not received at the second part more than 27 points for all the required subjects added together, shall be declared not to have passed the examination.

A candidate shall also be rejected who has received in one or more subjects (at the second half required subjects) one of the marks 0, 1, or 2, or in two or more subjects (at the second half required subjects) one of the marks 3 or 4.

(By the original resolution of July 20, 1893, the requirements were for the first part a total of 20 points, for the second a total of 24, and the absence of any marks of 0. The existing requirements were made by a resolution of the minister of the colonies on December 27, 1897.)

In all cases not provided for by the first three paragraphs of this article the commission shall discuss the question whether the candidate can be considered to have passed a satisfactory examination, taking account therein, in the second half of the examination, only of the required subjects. The question shall be decided by vote. In case of a tie the examination shall be considered satisfactory.

ARTICLE 11. The rank list of those who have passed the second half of the examination shall be made up from the result of the examination in the six required subjects, with the understanding that a candidate who has received in one or more voluntary subjects a higher mark than he obtained in the Javanese language shall be credited with the highest of these marks, provided the mark in the voluntary subject is not less than 5.

In case of an equality of marks the commission shall determine the order in which the candidates affected shall stand upon the rank list.

The article was given this form above by a resolution of December 27, 1897. In the original regulations of July 20, 1893, it read as follows:

"For the purpose of making up the rank list of those who have passed the second half of the examination the marks which are not lower than 5, received in the voluntary subjects, shall be added to the candidates' marks in the six required subjects.

"In case of an equality of marks the order of the rank list shall be regulated by the total of the marks obtained in the required subjects. If these total marks are also the same, the commission shall determine the order in which these candidates shall stand upon the rank list."

ARTICLE 12. To the report which it makes to the minister of the colonies or to the governor-general the commission shall append—

1. For each of the parts of the examination a list whereon shall be stated the names of all the persons examined, the marks given to them in the several subjects, and the total of these marks for each candidate.

2. A rank list of those who have passed the second part of the examination, made up in accordance with the foregoing article.

ARTICLE 13. The commission shall present to the minister of the colonies or to the governor-general the certificates of those who have passed the examination, in order that they may be inspected and delivered by him.

All persons examined, even those who have not passed, shall receive from the secretary of the commission as speedily as possible information of the result of their examination in each subject.

#### PROGRAMME FOR THE EXAMINATION.

##### First section.

1. *The geography of the Dutch Indies.*—Knowledge of the situation, the natural features, and the climate of the chief islands and groups of islands of the Indian Archipelago, of the situation of the chief mountains and streams, and of the general lines of the administration subdivisions.

2. *The knowledge of the codes of the Dutch Indies.*—Knowledge of the chief contents of the general principles of legislation and of the civil code; a grasp of the most important institutions governed by the commercial code, and of the forms of European civil and criminal procedure; knowledge of the chief contents of the internal regulations and of the two penal codes of the Indies.

3. *The introduction to the religious laws, institutions, and customs of the Dutch Indies.*—A brief survey of the origin and extension of Islam, especially with regard to the Dutch Indies; a knowledge of the chief sects of Islam; a little knowledge of the dogmas of the present orthodox Mohammedans; a little knowledge of the character and historical growth of the Mohammedan law; a little knowledge of the religious and other laws of the Mohammedans in the Dutch Indies.

4. *The elements of the Malay language.*—The written translation, with the help of a dictionary, of a selection, not difficult, printed in Malay characters.

5. *The elements of the Javanese language.*—The written translation, with the help of a dictionary, of an easy selection printed in Javanese characters.

##### Second section.

1. *The history of the Dutch Indies.*—Knowledge in broad traits of the fortunes of the chief races that dwell in the Indian Archipelago, and the chief facts which relate to the establishment and extension of the Dutch power in the Archipelago, and more especially of the fortunes of the Dutch Indies since the administration of Marshall Daendels.

2. *The geography and ethnology of the Dutch Indies.*—Knowledge of the chief products of the Dutch Indies; knowledge of the principal traits, customs, the social and economic condition, and the degree of civilization of the chief peoples of the Dutch Indies; some knowledge of the religion and institutions of the non-Mohammedan peoples of the Dutch Indies.

3. *The religious laws, institutions, and customs of the Dutch Indies.*—Knowledge of the chief institutions of the followers of Islam in the Dutch Indies, studied in connection with the Mohammedan law.

4. *The political institutions of the Dutch Indies.*—Acquaintance with the chief provisions of the regulations of government and of the other organic laws and general ordinances derived from the constitution and the regulations of the Government; knowledge of the chief provisions relating to administration, justice, accounts, taxes, and the various other branches of the administration; all these, as far as possible, in their origin and development.

5. *The Malay language.*—Readiness in the written translation of a composition from Dutch into Malay, and in oral translation of a piece of prose from Malay into Dutch; knowledge of the fundamental principles of the language, coupled with a good pronunciation and

facility at reading, without special preparation, selections of Malay or letters in different hands; some readiness at expressing one's self also in the common vernacular.

6. *The Javanese language.*—Readiness in the translation of a piece of prose, not difficult, from Javanese into Dutch; some facility in expressing one's self in the Javanese language, shown by the written translation of some easy phrases from Dutch into Javanese; knowledge of the fundamental principles of the language, coupled with a good pronunciation; readiness in reading, without special preparation, written Javanese selections or letters in different hands.

7. *Other native languages of the Dutch Indies.*—The same requirements as those prescribed for Javanese under No. 6.

### THE FRENCH COLONIAL CIVIL SERVICE.

Under the French civil-service system the requirements are less rigid than those of the Dutch or British Governments, and especially than those of British India. The line of studies prescribed in the *École Coloniale* in Paris, in which men are trained for the colonial civil service, is of a high order and the requirements for entrance to the school are also high. But the method of final selection, of assignment to duty, and of retention in a given line of duty has been criticised as less satisfactory than that of England or Netherlands and more affected by political or personal favoritism.

M. de Lanessan, in his *Principes de Colonisation*, discussing the question of appointments to and promotions in the civil service of the French colonies, says:

"All civil servants should be appointed either directly by the governors, in the case of minor positions, or else on his recommendation in the case of the higher positions; this I should regard as an absolute principle. In this respect the decrees of April 21, 1891, for Indo-China, and that of December 11, 1895, for Madagascar, deserve but praise. When I arrived in Indo-China the officials complained unanimously of unfair treatment of which they were made victims. The central administration made wholesale appointments of chancellors, vice-residents or residents, appointing people who had never before seen the colony, did not belong to any branch of service, and had not the slightest idea of what they were to do in their new places. These appointments were unfair toward officials who for many years had rendered useful service and waited for promotion to places which were liberally given to outsiders who had no other title than their connections. Certain officials were boasting, not without reason, of having passed through the lower grades of service in Paris and were making fun of their colleagues not so well connected, who, while working, waited on the spot for promotion which was retarded daily by intrigue. It was not of rare occurrence to see an official previously sent back to France for lack of discipline, poor service, or incompetency come back with a higher grade. The explanation was simply that he had found in the Chamber, the Senate, or in the press a sufficiently influential person in order to have his bad certificates changed to ratings for promotion.

"By leaving to the governors the power of appointing the administrative personnel, the minister of the colonies would give them such authority as is absolutely necessary for them, particularly in view of the large distance which separates them from France; moreover, he would escape all solicitation, annoyances, and bother which fall to his lot, because he has the power of appointment. How could he, indeed, cause the just promotion of a person whom he doesn't know, who lives at a great distance beyond the seas, whom he has never seen at work, and who is performing duties of which the former has not the slightest idea? By arrogating to himself the power of appointment and the initiative in the matter of promoting this personnel he assumes a responsibility which he has not the means of satisfactorily discharging, and he frees the governors of part of the responsibility which logically devolves on them.

"All the above considerations apply with equal force to the European subaltern officers of the military police. In order to render useful service these officers ought to know well the country in which they operate, besides acquiring as fully as possible its language. It is therefore necessary that they should be kept in the same colony during the entire term of their service and that they should be subject as little as possible even to transfer from one region to another.

"To sum up, since the administrators, residents, magistrates, and subaltern officers of the military police represent the principal part of every colonial official organism, it is of the utmost importance that they be completely adapted to the respective colony and altogether in the hands of the governor. Their adaptation could not be complete except when they continue their service in the same colony and when the conditions of promotion are regulated in such a manner as to favor those who have given proof of the most perfect knowledge of the country, its customs, legislation, and language.

"The proper selection of colonial servants is one of the most important subjects requiring the attention both of the home and colonial governments.

"For the preparation of administrators or 'residents' and magistrates, there has been instituted at Paris a 'colonial school' (*École Coloniale*), the students of which are made up from among the graduates of the law school, school of medicine, and those of the *École Centrale*, etc. This school has given very good results. All of its former students whom I had occasion to appoint as members of the administration or judiciary of Indo-China have proven very good officials. I believe that the same holds true in the case of those who were sent to the other colonies. However, the instruction given by the colonial school can be neither sufficiently practical nor extensive in order that the students, when leaving the school, should be able to discharge at once successfully the duties which they are called upon to perform.

"These young men, when arriving in the colony, should at first be considered as administrative aids, doing preparatory service ('stagiaires'), who, having received a sufficient general education, do not, however, yet possess the special knowledge required for the country in which they are going to serve. If they are given an important position from the start, the chances are very great that they will commit all sorts of blunders which could hardly be avoided, and that all the benefits of their education, good in itself, would be lost. I know that similar mistakes have often been committed in a number of colonies, particularly on the western coast of Africa."

### THE FRENCH COLONIAL SCHOOL.

Mr. A. Lawrence Lowell, in his *Colonial Civil Service*, thus summarizes the courses of study in the four administrative sections of the French colonial school:

The decree of July 21, 1898 (article 7), provides as follows:

The students must, at the end of the first year of study, undergo an examination upon the subjects taught at the faculty of law in the second year for the baccalaureate, with the exception of Roman law. If they fail at this examination, they can present themselves

again in the month of November. In case of a second failure, they are not allowed to enter upon the second year. Students who present the diploma of bachelor of law are excused from this examination.

At the end of the second year of study an examination is held under the same conditions upon the subjects required for the licentiate in law. Students who fail in the supplementary examination in the month of November can not obtain a degree from the colonial school.

The courses in law referred to above are not given in the colonial school. Those given in the school itself are described by the Arrêté of July 25, 1898 (amending the Arrêté of March 24, 1897), as follows:

ARTICLE 1. The general studies taught at the colonial school are divided between the two years of study in the following manner:

	LESSONS.
FIRST YEAR.	
Comparative study of the systems of colonization (Africa, Oceania, French colonies in America), economic system of the French colonies (tariffs, banks, mortgages, money, control of sugar).....	55
Colonial hygiene and principals of practical medicine.....	12
Colonial products .....	30

SECOND YEAR.	
Comparative study of the systems of colonization (Indo-China, British Indies, Dutch Indies, Philippines) .....	45
General organization of colonies.....	30
Colonial administrative law.....	10
Course in administrative accounting .....	10

The students receive each week a lesson in living languages. Only one foreign language (English, German, or Spanish, at the option of the student) is required.

The students are given practice in writing administrative documents. A certain number of conferences are held with them for this purpose.

The optional knowledge of another living language, besides the one required, gives the student the advantage of additional marks at his graduation from the school. The languages which can give this advantage are English, German, Spanish, Italian, and Dutch.

The summary or translation which the students must present each year is given out to them in December. A period of five months is allowed them to do the work.<sup>1</sup>

Conferences are given at the school by explorers, colonial officials, etc. After each conference the students are called upon to write abstracts, which are examined by the council of administration, and are the subject of a mark given by the council at graduation from the school.<sup>2</sup>

ARTICLE 3. The special courses for each section are divided in the following manner:

#### SECTION OF THE COMMISSARIAT.<sup>3</sup>

Course of theoretical and practical preparation for the colonial commissariat. Both years.

#### INDO-CHINESE SECTION.<sup>4</sup>

Geography in detail, history and institutions of Indo-China. Both years.

Legislation and administration of Indo-China. Both years.

Anamite language. Both years.

Reading and explanation of ordinary pieces of Chinese and Anamite. Second year.

Voluntary course, giving a chance for a credit of additional marks, Cambodian language. (Course given every other year.)

#### AFRICAN SECTION.<sup>5</sup>

Detailed geography of Africa (including Madagascar). First year.

Organization, legislation, and administration of our African possessions (including Madagascar).

Algeria. First year.

Tunis. First year.

West coast of Africa. First year.

Madagascar. First year.

Mussulman law, comparison with Hindoo law. Second year.

Arabic language. Both years.

Malagasy language. Second year.

#### PENITENTIARY SECTION.<sup>6</sup>

Penal legislature. First year.

Penal systems in use in France and foreign countries. Second year.

The Arrêté then proceeds to give elaborate tables for computing the marks in the different required subjects and, finally, directions for computing those in the voluntary ones.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>1</sup> By the decree of July 21, 1898, article 7, "the students are required each year to present a summary or translation of a work on colonies, published in a foreign language and not yet translated into French."

<sup>2</sup> Physical training is also required, and the mark, of which the maximum is 40, is credited to the student like his mark in any other required subject. Military drill is only compulsory for those who are liable to military service, and it appears to give them no credit in marks. For the others it is optional and gives a credit in marks. (Arrêtés, March 24, 1897, article 2; July 25, 1898, articles 6, 7.)

<sup>3</sup> The maximum marks for the special courses in this section are 360, against a maximum of 700 for the required general work.

<sup>4</sup> The maximum marks for the special courses in this section are 900, against the 700 for the required general work.

<sup>5</sup> The maximum marks for the special courses in this section are 960, of which Arabic counts for 360, against the 700 for the required work.

<sup>6</sup> The maximum marks for the special course in this section are 480, against the 700 for the required general work.

<sup>7</sup> A voluntary European language gives a maximum of 20 marks, a native colonial one a maximum of 60 marks.



### QUESTION III.

#### WHAT STEPS ARE TAKEN AND METHODS APPLIED TO IMPROVE THE MATERIAL, MENTAL, AND MORAL CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE OF THE COLONY?

To answer this question in a single sentence would be: The introduction and extension of modern civilization and enlightenment. To answer it in detail would be to show what the great colonizing countries of the world have done for the advancement of their colonies during the nineteenth century—the introduction of roads, railways, irrigation works, river and harbor improvements, and through them the development of production and thus of material prosperity; the encouragement of commerce and the adoption of improved conditions of life; the establishment of reliable and permanent forms of currency, with proper banking facilities for the encouragement of thrift among the natives; the establishment of postal and telegraph service for the encouragement of intercommunication among the people of the colony and between them and the outside world; the establishment of steamship lines to connect the colony with the home country and the civilized world; the encouragement of education through schools, colleges, newspapers, libraries, and churches; the establishment and proper administration of laws and regulations by which public safety and order are assured.

When it is considered that in India alone, where roads were unknown when the British Government assumed control, there are now 150,000 miles of road, of which over 30,000 are “metalled;” that the railways in the British colonies now aggregate 63,549 miles, against 33,000 in 1885, a growth in fifteen years exceeding the entire distance around the earth; that the irrigating canals and other works of India are 36,000 miles in extent,<sup>1</sup> and the area irrigated by all methods exceeds 30 million acres,<sup>2</sup> and that although they have cost about 400 million rupees, the value of a single year's crop in the irrigated district above that which it could produce in years of drought without irrigation is more than the entire cost of the canals, the importance of these public works for the development of agriculture and commerce will be apparent.

When it is further considered that the commerce of the British colonies alone has grown from over 300 million dollars in 1850 to 2,400 million dollars in 1900, their development under the fostering care of an intelligent method of government and the consequent benefit to the natives as well as the consuming world will be appreciated. The fact that the British colonies were able to import 1,150 million dollars' worth of food, clothing, and the comforts of civilized life from other parts of the world in 1899, against 140 million dollars' worth in 1850; the French colonies 160 million dollars' worth in 1899, against 91 million dollars' worth in 1887, an increase of 72.5 per cent in twelve years, still further emphasizes the increased earning capacity of those colonies and affords some measure of their improved material condition.

When it is further realized that the amount standing to the credit of depositors in savings banks in the British colonies alone, which amounted to 133 million dollars in 1885, had increased to 288 millions in 1899, an additional evidence of the growth of prosperity and thrift among the people of the colonies will be apparent. When it is seen from official reports that in India alone the number of post-offices has grown from 753 in 1856 to 29,122 in 1899, and that the number of pieces received by the post-offices increased from 75,000,000 in 1869 to 489,000,000 in 1899, the development of intercommunication and of mental as well as business activity among the people may be to some extent measured. Still another evidence of the same is seen in the fact that the telegraph lines in the British colonies alone have grown from 115,000 miles in 1889 to over 150,000 miles in 1899, thus increasing their length in a single decade by more than the distance around the earth; and that the telephone lines in those colonies now aggregate more than 50,000 miles in length. When it is further considered that the total number of pupils in the schools of India alone is now nearly 4½ millions, against about 3½ millions in 1888, and that the expenditure for public instruction was, in 1899, 36,215,000 rupees, against 394,000 rupees in 1858, the growth of education and educational facilities will be to some extent realized, while additional evidence of the general intelligence will be found in the fact that the number of vernacular newspapers published in India in 1897 was 758, and the number of books and magazines published in 1898, 7,437, of which 6,236 were in the native language.

The methods by which these and similar improvements in the material, mental, and moral condition of the people of the world's colonies have been effected can perhaps be best shown by separately considering each subject. In many cases, at least, the importance of these subjects in their relation to the question under discussion seems to warrant a detailed study. Such study must necessarily include, as far as practicable, both past and existing conditions of the world's colonies, together with a discussion of the methods by which present conditions have been attained, and necessarily involves the repetition of certain statements made in the general consideration of the subject by great divisions.

#### ROADS AND RAILWAYS.

Roads and railways may properly be considered among the first essentials to the development of a colony. Naturally the products of the forest, the mine, and the soil are those most readily available to be offered in the world's markets, and as these are always in demand in those markets their value is assured when adequate methods of transporting them are provided.

The experience in practically all new colonies is that roads upon which articles of this class can be successfully transported are few, if indeed they are found to exist at all, and such as exist are only available in the area fronting upon or comparatively near to the



ocean or navigable streams. It is only by the aid of railroads, in conjunction with wagon roads leading to them, that satisfactory transportation for these products is afforded to the water's edge, whence they may be in turn conveyed by the less expensive water transportation to markets in all parts of the world. Hence, one of the most important agencies in the development of the colony is the construction of roads, railways, and harbors and the improvement of navigable streams. By this process the products of the forest, the mine, and the field, which are of comparatively small value when considered from the standpoint of local consumption, are multiplied in value when they can be offered in the markets of the world. By thus giving to the residents and natives of the colony an opportunity to convert these products into money with which they can in turn purchase the necessities and comforts of daily life, their facilities for adopting methods of civilization are enlarged, their manner of living improved, and their taste for such improved conditions cultivated; while the area of production is widened, their earnings increased through this enlarged commerce, towns established, and with these better methods of government more schools, newspapers, churches, and a general betterment of the material, mental, and moral conditions. The road, the railway, and the telegraph may be considered among the pioneers of civilization and of general improvements in the condition of the people. The absence of these factors of internal development was among the first important facts noted by officers and other representatives of the United States in taking possession of the islands which it acquired as a result of the war with Spain.

## RAILWAY CONSTRUCTION IN THE COLONIES.

That colonizing nations have recognized the importance of these factors in the development of colonies since railways became available for this important work, is evidenced by a study of present conditions in the leading colonies of the world and a comparison, where practicable, with conditions in earlier years. In order to facilitate this study such facts as are available regarding railway and other transportation facilities in the leading colonies of the world are herewith presented. It will be observed that in the statements which follow a large proportion of the railway and telegraph lines, as well as of the wagon roads, have been constructed by and are maintained at government expense. It does not follow, however, that this has been at the expense of the home Government. On the contrary, nearly all of the roads and railways thus constructed have been built by funds raised through taxation in the colonies or by loans based upon future colonial revenues, while it will be seen that a large proportion of the railways thus created in the colonies are constructed from public (colonial) funds and, therefore, owned and controlled by the colonial government. It may be assumed that this fact of government construction of the railways grows largely out of the custom, which now so generally prevails in Europe, of government ownership of railways rather than through any impracticability of obtaining their construction by private enterprise, as is the custom in the United States.

A table on another page shows the railways of the world's colonies in 1875 and 1900, respectively. It will be seen that the total length of railways in the colonies has increased from 13,996 miles in 1875 to 69,388 in 1900. Of this total of 69,388 miles of railway in the world's colonies in 1900, 63,549 miles were in the British colonies, 3,512 in the French, and 1,272 in the Netherlands colony of Java, while there were 785 miles in the Portuguese colonies, chiefly those of East Africa, and 270 miles in the Kongo Free State, which is under the control of the Belgian Government. Of the 63,549 miles in British colonial territory, all but 17,389 are the property of the respective colonies where the railways exist. Of the 17,389 miles in British colonies owned by railway companies, 15,876 were in Canada, about 1,000 miles in Australia, and 401 miles in Cape Colony. In the French, Netherlands, Portuguese, and Belgian colonies the railroads have been constructed in part through encouragement received from the home Government and in part from colonial aid. In addition to the 69,388 miles actually constructed in the various colonies and in operation, a large number of lines are also under construction or projected. The growth of the Indian railways is at the rate of about 1,000 miles per annum; the total having been, in 1897, 20,290 miles, and in 1901, 25,035 miles.

## THE INDIAN RAILWAYS.

At the end of the fiscal year 1900-1901 the total length of all railway lines open in India was 25,035 miles, and there were 2,019 miles under construction, distributed as follows:

	Open for traffic.	Under con- struction.
	<i>Miles.</i>	<i>Miles.</i>
State.....	19,197	1,458
Guaranteed and assisted .....	2,821	196
Native state .....	2,944	365
Foreign state (French and Portuguese India).....	73	.....

The rate of progress in railway construction will be apparent from the following figures of the average number of miles opened annually in each of the last five quinquennial periods:

	Miles.
1876 to 1880.....	582
1881 to 1885-86.....	622
1886-87 to 1890-91.....	896
1891-92 to 1895-96.....	526
1896-97 to 1900-1901.....	1,157

The capital expenditure at the end of 1900 amounted to Rs. 3,327,510,837, representing, at the exchange of 16d. per rupee, £222,621,000, but a great proportion of the capital was raised and expended when the rupee was worth much more than 16d.

The gross earnings in 1900 were Rs. 315,967,317 and the total expenses Rs. 150,995,867, which made about 48 per cent of the receipts, the excess of receipts being Rs. 164,971,450.<sup>1</sup> Very nearly two-thirds (62 per cent) of the receipts were contributed by five

<sup>1</sup> Present exchange value of the rupee, about 33 cents.

lines, with an aggregate length of 8,360 miles, being one-third of the whole open mileage, namely, the East Indian, the Great Indian Peninsula, the Northwestern, the Bombay-Baroda, the Rajputana-Malwa.

Of the total earnings of the railways, 65 per cent are derived from freights, the receipts from passenger traffic giving the small proportion of 35 per cent. The number of passengers carried on the railways in 1900 was about 175,000,000; the railways carried in the same year over 33,000,000 tons of goods and minerals.

During the last ten years—that is, since 1891—while the number of miles open has increased from 17,576 to 25,035, the increase being at the rate of 42 per cent, the gross earnings have increased from Rs. 240.4 millions to Rs. 315.9 millions, being at the rate of 31 per cent.

The following description of the railway system of India is from the Statesman's Year-Book, 1886:

"In the year 1845 two great private associations were formed for the purpose of constructing lines of railroad in India, but the projectors found it impossible to raise the necessary funds for their schemes without the assistance of the State. It was therefore determined by the Indian government to guarantee to the railway companies for a term of ninety-nine years a rate of interest of 5 per cent upon the capital subscribed for their undertakings; and in order to guard against the consequences of failure on the part of the companies power was reserved by the government to supervise and control their proceedings by means of an official director. The government has the power, at the expiration of a period of twenty-five or fifty years from the date of the contracts, of purchasing the railways at the mean value of the shares for the three previous years, or of paying a proportionate annuity until the end of the ninety-nine years, when the whole of the lands and works will revert from the companies to the government. In 1869 the government of India decided on carrying out new railway extensions by means of direct State agency—that is, without the intervention of guaranteed companies—and in 1879 the East Indian Railway was transferred to the government, though it is still worked by the company. In the same year several minor railways were begun as private enterprises assisted by the government. The guaranteed lines constitute, as a rule, the main arteries of communication, while the State lines serve as feeders to open up the country. The guaranteed lines are (1) the Great Indian Peninsula; (2) the Madras; (3) the Oudh and Rohilkund; (4) the Bombay, Baroda and Central India; (5) the Sind, Punjab and Delhi; (6) the South Indian; (7) the Eastern Bengal. In 1853 the length of line open was 20½ miles; in 1863, 2,519 miles; in 1873, 5,695 miles; in 1875, 6,519 miles. Since then the progress of the various classes of railways has been as follows, stated in miles:

1876.....	6,833	1880.....	9,308	1884.....	10,832	1894.....	18,500
1877.....	7,322	1881.....	9,892	1885.....	12,005	1900.....	23,763
1878.....	8,212	1882.....	10,144	1888.....	14,383	1901.....	25,035
1879.....	8,492	1883.....	10,317				

#### THE SOUTH AFRICAN RAILWAY.

In Cape Colony a number of extensions of existing railway lines have been contracted for and others are under survey. In the British East African Protectorate the Uganda Railway is under construction and, according to the Statesman's Year-Book for 1901, more than 400 miles are now completed and, when entirely completed, will connect Lake Nyanza with the Indian Ocean. In Rhodesia a line from Vryburg to Bulawayo, worked by the Cape railway department, has been open for traffic since November, 1897, and the line from Bulawayo will be continued northward from the Victoria Falls, on the Zambesi, and thence still farther north, across northwestern and northeastern Rhodesia to Lake Tanganyika, whose waters will be utilized as a means of transportation 400 miles northward from that point, while the railway line stretching southward along the Nile Valley is expected, in due time, to reach the northern end of Lake Tanganyika, thus furnishing, through combined water and rail, transportation from Cape to Cairo. A number of branch lines are also under construction or projected in Rhodesia—one from Bulawayo to Gwanda, about 80 miles, while the Beira narrow gauge has been widened to the standard width of the South African lines. In the Transvaal colony 250 additional miles of railway are projected for early construction. In Sierra Leone, where a Government railway has already been opened, extending about 60 miles from Freetown, a farther extension of 80 miles has been begun.

#### CANADIAN RAILWAYS.

The Canadian system is being steadily extended, the growth in the fiscal year 1899 being nearly 500 miles. The total length of the Canadian railways is 17,358 miles, that of the Canadian Pacific alone having 2,906 miles. This line, in conjunction with the Pacific steamers, subsidized by the British and Canadian governments, brings Montreal and Yokohama within fourteen days of each other. The number of electric railways in Canada, according to the latest reports, is 34, with a mileage of 632. In the French colonies, also, much attention is being given to the extension of railways.

#### THE FRENCH COLONIAL RAILWAYS.

The railways of the French colonies have an aggregate length of 3,512 miles. A contract was given in 1900 for the construction of a railway from Turane to Hué, in Anam, and in Cochin China contracts were made in the same year for the construction of railways from Saigon to Tamlinh, and from the latter city to Dji Ring. In Tonkin contracts were made in 1900 for the construction of railways from Hanoi to Viétry, also from Hanoi to Haiphong; from Hanoi to Ninhbinh; from Hanoi to Vinh; and from Viétry to Laokay. In the French Kongo a railway to connect Liberville and the Kongo is in project. In Madagascar a short railway has been constructed from Tamatave to Ivondro and is to be extended so as to connect Tamatave with the capital through the use of already existing canals. In French Guinea the construction of a railway from Konakry to the Niger has been begun.

In German southwest Africa a railway and telegraph line is under construction from Windhoek inland and has already reached about 80 miles in length; in German East Africa a railway from Tango to Pongive is open for traffic and is being extended to Karagwe and Nomba, while surveys are being made for another line from Darassalaam to Norogo. In Germany's new possession in China, Kiauchau, railway construction is in progress to connect that city with the coal fields of the Chinese province of Shantung, in which it is located. In Java the railway system, which is now 1,272 miles in length, is gradually being extended.

## RAILWAY LINES IN THE COLONIES OF THE WORLD IN 1875 AND 1900.

COLONIES.	1875	1900	COLONIES.	1875	1900
<b>BRITISH.</b>			<b>FRENCH.</b>		
Australian Federation <sup>1</sup> .....	<i>Miles.</i> 1,781	<i>Miles.</i> 13,120	Algeria .....	<i>Miles.</i> 340	<i>Miles.</i> 2,156
Barbados .....		24	Cochin China .....		51
Bechuanaland .....		586	Laos .....		4
British East Africa .....		400	Madagascar .....		25
British Guiana .....	21	94	Réunion .....		83
Canada .....	4,443	17,358	Senegal .....		246
Cape Colony .....	147	2,394	Tonkin .....		64
Ceylon .....	91	297	Tunis .....		883
Gold Coast .....		100		340	3,512
India .....	6,519	23,763	<b>PORTUGUESE.</b>		
Jamaica .....	25	185	Angola (Africa) .....		244
Labuan .....		10	Goa (India) .....		51
Lagos .....		100	Portuguese East-Africa .....		490
Malay States .....		225			785
Malta .....		8	<b>NETHERLANDS.</b>		
Mauritius .....	66	106	Java .....		1,272
Natal .....	5	591	<b>BELGIUM.</b>		
New Foundland .....		638	Congo Free State .....		270
New Zealand .....	542	2,271	Aggregate .....	13,996	69,388
Orange River Colony .....		392			
Sierra Leone .....		32			
Transvaal .....		774			
Trinidad and Tobago .....	16	82			
	13,656	263,549			

<sup>1</sup>Includes New South Wales, 2,896 miles; Victoria, 3,143 miles; Queensland, 2,800 miles; Western Australia, 1,850 miles; South Australia, 1,882 miles; and Tasmania, 594 miles. New Zealand, which is not included in the Australian Federation, is stated elsewhere.

<sup>2</sup>Of this total the lines owned by private companies were: In Cape Colony, 401 miles; in Canada, 15,876 miles; in West Australia, 495 miles; in New Zealand, 167 miles; in Tasmania, 108 miles; in New South Wales, 84 miles; in South Australia, 13 miles; in Jamaica, 185 miles; in Barbados, 24 miles; and in British Guiana, 36 miles.

## INVASION OF THE TROPICS BY RAILWAYS.

The invasion of the Tropics by railways is a marked characteristic of the closing decade of the nineteenth century and an additional evidence of the disposition of the temperate zones to extend their influence into the Tropics. Until within the last few years the tendency of all railway lines and systems was from east to west, following climatic lines. Most of the great railway lines in the United States stretched westward from the Atlantic until six distinct transcontinental lines had been formed. In South America the chief railway system has for its ambition the connection of the Atlantic with the Pacific. In Europe the intricate network of railways connects all of its various sections, but the crowning work of the century has been the construction in a single decade of the great east and west line connecting the European system with the Pacific across Siberia. With these great east and west railway lines completed, connecting the various sections of the temperate zone and binding them more surely together, has come as a natural sequence the extension of the railway system toward the Equator, penetrating the tropical regions upon which the temperate zone is becoming constantly more dependent for the raw materials required for manufacturing and food stuffs required for the daily life of its people. Sugar, coffee, cacao, tea, tropical fruits, nuts, and spices for food, tropical woods, hemp, jute, rubber, hides and skins, and certain classes of wool for manufacturing, tobacco, medical plants, and many other articles which enter into the daily life of man are chiefly obtained from the Tropics, and their use is increasing year by year, and in exchange the Tropics are taking more and more of the products of the field and factory in the temperate zone. As a consequence the railroad systems of the temperate zone are now feeling their way toward the Tropics. Within the last few years the great system of the United States has extended lines to Mexico and to the Tropics, and other lines have slowly moved northward from the temperate zone of South America toward the Tropics and will in time meet, and at last realize that long-delayed ambition of Hinton Rowan Helper—a Pan-American railway. In Africa the railway system of the northern section of the continent is moving steadily southward up the Nile, and that of the southern section is moving as persistently northward, and these two sections from the temperate zones promise at an early date to meet at the Equator and realize the ambition of Mr. Rhodes. The great Siberian railway is being constructed southward toward Pekin, from which another line is now under construction still farther south toward Hankow, from which other lines are projected to finally connect with that great system already in existence in tropical Asia—the Indian railway system—aggregating 25,000 miles, and which in time will doubtless be connected with the systems of southern Europe and perhaps cross Arabia to the system of northern Africa. Railway construction developed chiefly in the temperate zones—the seat of man's greatest activity—during the first half century of its existence, but in the second half century will connect those two temperate zone systems by numerous lines crossing the Tropics, and by lateral extensions from those lines will carry the raw materials and foodstuffs of the Tropics to the temperate zone and in their turn redistribute the products of those temperate zones among the people of the Tropics, and in so doing increase wealth, distribute comforts of life, and advance civilization and enlightenment.

## REPORT TO INTERNATIONAL COLONIAL INSTITUTE ON RAILWAYS IN COLONIES.

The following are extracts from *Les Chemins de fer aux Colonies et dans les pays neufs*, a report of a special committee made to the International Colonial Institute in 1899:

"The question of railways is of fundamental interest with regard to the introduction of civilization in primitive countries and their exploitation from the point of view of general interests. \* \* \*

"In all times the occupation, opening, and rational exploitation of a country have had as their chief characteristic feature the development of its means of communication. What holds true of the time of the Roman highways applies still more to the age of the railway, and just as during the heroic age the conquering nations assured their domination in distant countries by the creation of roads, just in the same manner the ultimate occupation of new countries at present is marked by the creation of railways.

"Beside the systems of navigable rivers, which constitute a natural means of communication and invaluable facilities of access, all highways of communication which permit transportation by means other than the back of man, animals of burden, or vehicles on ordinary wheels, constitute the first mechanism for the extension of civilization, the opening and clearing of virgin soil by the activity of the superior races for the local benefit of the native population.

"The railways, which of all means of transportation are the most simple to construct, the most powerful, quickest, and, in the long run, the most economical, are therefore likely to play the most important part during the near future.

"They bring into close contact the most distant territories with the colonizing country, create the means of easy and rapid access, assure through the fact of great mobility an effective policing of the different regions, permit commerce to spring up everywhere, to receive from Europe the commodities which the native may wish to have, and to send in return to the markets of the civilized world the natural products of the colony which constitute the equivalent of the goods received.

"These are the factors which abolish the former isolation of barbarous regions, and it is through them that our civilization, the product of the activity and labor of the higher races during centuries, modified to meet the special conditions, is able to penetrate, and that even the most primitive peoples are enabled to pass from the period of infancy to that of the mature and manly age, and that almost without transition.

"The facts have universally confirmed the principle that civilization follows the locomotive. This statement, moreover, seems to be so well established and universally recognized that it would be tiresome to dwell on it any longer.

"From the hour of the first occupation of the colony care should be taken to furnish it with railways which might give access successively and in proper order to all its regions or at least principal centers.

"A study of the railway question, therefore, is of ever-increasing interest to all those who devote themselves to the study of colonial matters at large. \* \* \*

#### GUARANTEES TO PRIVATE CAPITAL IN THE CONSTRUCTION OF RAILWAYS IN THE NEW COUNTRIES.

"The answers received to inquiries sent out by the committee with regard to the question of interest guarantee do not show any agreement of opinion on this point.

"In the case of certain railways—for example, that of the Usambara and the independent State of Congo—the State has refrained from offering a guarantee to private capital engaged in this matter. This is accounted for by the unsatisfactory financial condition of the young colonies, whose entire resources were hardly sufficient to meet the expenditures of the administration and occupation of the territories in question.

"In these cases, when the interference of the State directly interested can not have a pecuniary character, it should at least by way of compensation accord all the advantages within its power—higher railway tariffs, freedom from taxation during a certain period, facility in the hiring of the necessary labor force, the utilization of the forests, quarries, and waterfalls encountered, etc.; furthermore, the grant in fee simple of lands, mines, quarries, etc., in proportion with the risks incurred by the companies. All these things have been perfectly understood by the German Government and that of the Congo with regard to railways constructed under their jurisdiction. Other railways have been able to obtain an official guarantee on their capital, ranging between 3½ and 4 per cent. The same holds true with respect to most of the railways in India, Algeria, and other countries.

"In the case of these railways no land grants were given, the guarantee of the home Government being deemed sufficient to cover the comparatively lesser risks in these countries with a relatively more advanced economic culture, in which, moreover, vacant lands owned by the State are, as a general rule, wanting.

"Finally, certain railway companies have been able to obtain very high interest guarantees. Among them the more important are the railways in the southwestern part of Brazil, which have a minimum interest guarantee of 6 per cent, and the railway from St. Paul of Loanda to Ambaca, in the Portuguese province of Angola.

"Such guarantees seem to be excessively high, but it should be remembered that they are agreed to only by such governments which are in financial difficulties such as might interfere with the discharge of the obligations assumed by them. The high interest exacted by the companies from them constitutes thus a sort of insurance premium. In such cases the railway companies, as a rule, are not satisfied even with this guarantee, which, moreover, is rarely effective; they obtain, besides, concessions of vacant lands. This has been the case of the railways just mentioned.

"Certain other anomalous examples might be quoted—such, for example, as the railway between Dakar and St. Louis, in the Senegal, to which the French Government guaranteed 6 per cent of interest and advanced in cash about two-thirds of the capital, which was to be repaid out of the net proceeds of the railway. \* \* \*

#### FREE, FORCED, AND MILITARY LABOR AND BOUNTIES.

"The replies received by the committee on the question of the labor force state that by reason of the abundant supply of labor found in the respective places, and the habits of manual work prevailing among the native populations, no particular difficulties were encountered with regard to this matter.

"The only characteristic exception constitutes the railway in the Congo, the administration of which gives an account of the difficulties encountered and formulates its opinion about this matter, based on the experience gained.

"Without dwelling on normal conditions, which are generally of little interest, we shall consider, first of all, the case of the most primitive peoples, for it is the latter who require special attention, owing to the fact that the conditions under which they might be utilized present difficulties particularly peculiar of the new colonies.

"In principle, and aside from any philanthropic preoccupation, which, however, in the present state of civilization can by no means be disregarded, there is perfect unanimity that in the interest of the railways to be constructed the employment of labor should be on a free and voluntary basis, and that the force so employed should be used under conditions similar to those prevailing in the countries of old civilization.

"Exception should be made in the matter of utilizing convict labor—as, for instance, in the case of the construction of the Trans-Siberian Railway, those in Java, and certain others in Algeria. These altogether exceptional conditions, however, do not modify the principle just stated.

"The same principle applies to the employment of military labor, which, as a matter of fact, should be regarded as voluntary labor, merely grouped in military bodies. \* \* \*

"As far, then, as the question of labor is concerned, all replies agree that this labor should be the result of agreements freely made.

"It is, however, indispensable, more than anywhere else (compare the cases of Java and Congo), that the chiefs watch most carefully, and that the workmen be well treated, and paid in an equitable manner. The chiefs should, furthermore, pay attention to the modes of nourishment and even recreation of the workmen. \* \* \*

"There is no doubt whatever that the system of small contracts, as practiced in Java, as well as measures which by a system of bounties enable the workmen to share in the economies which might be effected, are highly commendable.

"We might add, in closing, that whenever works are to be executed in an unhealthy climate the labor force should be recruited as much as possible on the spot or from regions subject to the same climatic conditions. The administration of the French railways in the Soudan expresses this principle quite well, as follows: 'Experience has condemned as an ineffectual and even barbarous means the employment in the terrible Soudanese climate of laborers foreign to the country, such as the Chinese, the Moroccans, or Italians.'

"The same experience was had by the Congo Railway, which had tried to make use of Italians and Chinese, and even negroes from the West Indies, whose forefathers, indeed, had originally come from the very Congo region."

#### WORK OF RAILROADS IN THE LOCAL DEVELOPMENT OF COLONIES.

"The attitude of the central Government toward our colonies," says M. de Lanessan, "has been extremely unfavorable in this field as well as in the one just discussed. The narrow tutelage in which our home Government holds the colonies, the obligation which it puts on them to submit to it all projects of more important works, and the impossibility on the part of the colony of procuring for itself the financial resources required by such works seem to have banished from the minds of the colonial governments even the idea of undertaking them, and instead to have pushed them on the narrow path on which they find themselves. Their only preoccupation seems to be to improve the condition of the administrative personnel, to increase their salaries, to improve their dwellings, and to increase their number within the limits permitted by the budgetary resources.

"The chambers of commerce and the municipal councils might be expected to show some influence, but they are composed chiefly of small traders, grocers, clothing merchants, and dress goods dealers, wine dealers, etc.; that is, people who have to make their living from the officials, and are therefore interested to see the number and salaries of their clients increased.

"Notwithstanding this vicious organization, the colonial government, as well as the colonists themselves, would probably very willingly undertake the work of public improvements if only the colonies enjoyed any sort of independence. The Government would be prompted to undertake such works, for these vast undertakings would increase its financial resources, and the colonists themselves would work in unison with the Government in order to improve the conditions of their existence through greater facility of transportation, traveling, communication, and transportation of things useful and agreeable to life. The budget would soon come to be regarded not as a simple means of maintenance for the class of officials, but as a source of future enjoyment and benefit to be derived from the construction of means of communication, highroads, railways, canals, harbors, etc. Notwithstanding the sort of stupor into which the inhabitants of Cochin-China seem to have fallen, I doubt whether they would not take pleasure in visiting the splendid sites of Anam and Tonkin and enjoying the cool winters of the latter if they were transported to these places rapidly and conveniently in good railway cars. If no desires are expressed on their part for the construction of railroads, the reason is simply that they know too well that between their request and its realization so many difficulties will arise and so much time will elapse that no one of those who made the request will be in the colony at the time when his request would be heeded. Life in the tropical climates is very hard; the number of those who stand it for a number of years is rare; many disappear at the end of five, ten, or fifteen years, either because death carries them off or because sickness compels them to leave the colony or because the attainment of wealth brings them back to the mother country. These people plant but few fruit trees, but consume whatever falls to their lot; they do not think of railways because they do not believe in the possibility of ever making use of them. This would not be so if the extreme centralization to which the colonies are subject were not to make the execution of all public works an unsolvable problem.

"Under existing legislation no public work of any importance can be undertaken in the colony unless previously approved by the committee of public works, having its seat at Paris. The decree of November 22, 1895, which reorganized this committee provides that it is to 'give its opinion on matters concerning the public works in the colonies, and particularly the projects of construction and concessions of railways, improvements of the seashore and river banks, navigation and naval constructions, mines and civil engineering.' In order that no work of this kind might escape these formalities, the decree provides that 'subcommittees instituted by ministerial orders may be empowered to pass, in place of the committee, opinions on matters of minor importance.'

"As regards the financial means, they are subject to the approval of the minister of the colony if they are part of the ordinary annual budget. If a loan becomes necessary, a special act must be passed.

#### TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES.

The importance of intercommunication as a contributing factor to the development of colonies has led all successful colonial managers to encourage, and in many cases directly aid, in the construction of telegraph and telephone lines, as well as railways. As a result the colonies of the world have to-day 180,000 miles of telegraph and about 50,000 miles of telephone, against but 20,000 miles of telegraph in 1875. While of course a large share of these telegraph and telephone lines are in the self-governing and English-speaking colonies of Canada, Australia, and South Africa, an examination of the table which follows will show that in India alone there are over 50,000 miles of telegraph, that French Algeria has more than 7,000 miles, Tunis over 2,000 miles, French Cochin-China nearly 3,000 miles, and the Dutch colony of Java nearly 7,000 miles of telegraph alone, while the telephone is rapidly coming into use in all the colonies, since it forms a much more convenient method of communication in communities in which skilled operators for telegraph lines are more difficult to obtain.

The table which follows shows the telegraph lines in existence in the world's colonies in 1875, 1886, and 1899, thus affording an opportunity to study the growth of these factors of development, while another table shows the telephone lines in operation in the British colonies, except India, for which no accurate data are at present available.

## TELEGRAPH LINES IN THE COLONIES OF THE WORLD IN 1875, 1886, AND 1899.

COLONIES.	1875	1886	1899	COLONIES.	1875	1886	1899
<b>BRITISH.</b>	<i>Miles.</i>	<i>Miles.</i>	<i>Miles.</i>	<b>FRENCH.</b>	<i>Miles.</i>	<i>Miles.</i>	<i>Miles.</i>
Australian Federation.....	1,781	36,635	51,151	Algeria.....	5,850	6,500	17,260
Bahamas.....		32	44	Cochin China.....			2,776
Bermuda.....	21	260	515	Madagascar.....			180
British Guiana.....	4,443	25,336	33,075	Senegal.....			574
Cape of Good Hope.....	147	4,329	7,360	Tunis.....			2,328
Ceylon.....	91	669	1,167				13,118
Gold Coast.....		109	688	<b>PORTUGUESE.</b>			
India.....	6,519	27,510	51,769	Angora.....			635
Jamaica.....	25	519	643	Portuguese East Africa.....			950
Labuan.....			6				1,583
Lagos.....			230	<b>NETHERLANDS.</b>			
Malta.....		65	65	Java.....			6,833
Mauritius.....	66	103	135				
Natal.....	5	465	1,337	Aggregate.....	19,506	108,532	179,372
Newfoundland.....		1,020	1,314				
New Zealand.....	542	4,546	6,910				
Straits Settlements.....		380	1,324				
Trinidad.....	16	54	94				
	13,656	102,032	157,836				

1898.

## TELEPHONE LINES IN THE BRITISH COLONIES IN 1899.

COLONIES.	1899	COLONIES.	1899
	<i>Miles.</i>		<i>Miles.</i>
Antigua.....	100	Lagos.....	17
Australian Federation.....	8,689	Malta.....	393
Bahamas.....	4	Mauritius.....	66
Barbados.....	59	Natal.....	55
Bermuda.....	76	Newfoundland.....	250
British Guiana.....	40	New Zealand.....	487
Canada.....	24,923	St. Christopher.....	52
Cape Colony.....	1,588	St. Lucia.....	120
Ceylon.....	36	St. Vincent.....	77
Falkland Islands.....	7	Straits Settlements.....	756
Grenada.....	106	Trinidad.....	460
Hongkong.....	360		
Jamaica.....	152	Total.....	38,884
Labuan.....	2		

## POSTAL FACILITIES.

Still another method of intercommunication to which colonial managers give great attention is the postal system. In Java—the great island colony of Netherlands, for instance—the number of pieces of mail carried by the postal system of the island was, in 1898, over 17,000,000. In the French colony of Tunis, the number of letters sent through the post-offices in 1898 was over 15,000,000. In India, where the authorities assert with pride that a letter can be sent for a less sum than in any other part of the world, the total number of pieces of mail passing through the post-offices in 1899 was 489,000,000.

In addition to the establishment of postal facilities wherever practicable, careful attention is given, especially in the English and French colonies, to the establishment of frequent mail and steamship communications between the colony and the home country, and the establishment and maintenance of transportation lines between the home country and the colonies is encouraged by liberal subsidies.

The table which follows shows the number of pieces of mail handled in a few of the more important British colonies in 1899, and illustrates the importance attached to, and careful encouragement of, intercommunication, both among the people within the colony and between the people of the colony and those of the mother country.

## POSTAL SERVICE IN PRINCIPAL BRITISH COLONIES.

COLONIES.	Letters and post cards handled.	Newspapers, parcels, etc., handled.	Total pieces handled.
Australian Federation <sup>1</sup> .....	140,683,627	107,003,013	247,686,640
Bahamas.....	222,943	118,018	340,961
Canada.....	177,825,000	113,264,000	291,089,000
Cape of Good Hope.....	23,339,379	13,441,708	36,781,087
Falkland Islands.....	38,000		38,000
Fiji Island.....	421,446	363,571	785,017
India.....			489,076,000
Jamaica.....	5,073,350		5,073,350
Malta.....	6,050,871	2,610,505	8,661,376
Mauritius.....	1,416,676	1,458,584	2,875,260
New Zealand.....	39,127,422	33,600,596	72,728,018
Rhodesia.....	834,357	237,822	1,072,179
Straits Settlements.....			3,845,788

<sup>1</sup> Does not include Victoria, for which no data are available.

## METHODS OF INTERCOMMUNICATION ESTABLISHED IN THE PRINCIPAL COLONIES OF THE WORLD.

Intercommunication among the people of the colony and between them and the mother country is, it will be seen from the above, looked upon by all successful colonizing powers as an extremely important factor in the material, mental, and moral development of the colonies and their inhabitants. By way of detailed illustration of the attention given to the development of methods of communication, the following statement of the condition of facilities for communication in each of the colonies of the world is presented. The statements are from official or semiofficial publications wherever possible, and contain the latest and most reliable data on roads, railways, telegraph, telephone, and postal service, steamship communication, etc., for each of the more important colonies of the world.

*South Australia.*—There are 7,569 miles of roads defined in settled districts, the greater portion of the cost of which has been defrayed from the general revenue, no special toll or rate having been levied. The aggregate number of miles macadamized is 3,678. In addition to the main lines, perhaps as many more miles of district or by roads have been constructed and kept in repair by local municipalities out of rates and grants in aid.

The railways, exclusive of a private line between Adelaide and Glenelg, are all constructed and worked by the Government. The mileage open for traffic in the colony is 1,736, and 146 miles in the Northern Territory. Up to June 30, 1900, the total cost of the railways reached £13,070,087. The receipts in 1899 were £1,166,987 and the expenditures £657,841. Working expenses, 56.37 per cent. Net revenue on cost 3.91 per cent. There is daily railway communication between Adelaide, Melbourne, Sydney, and Brisbane.

At the close of the year 1899 there were 269 stations and 5,738 miles of telegraph lines open throughout the colony. There are 361 miles of telephone line open, 9 light exchanges, 1,314 connections, and 3,296 miles of telephone wire. The number of messages sent in 1898 was 1,237,005, of which 147,249 were international.

*Tasmania.*—All the principal towns are united by telegraph. There are 2,000 miles of telegraph (with 3,252 miles of wire) open in the colony. This excludes 428 miles of cable belonging to the Tasmanian Cable Company. The total cost of telegraph construction up to December 31, 1899, was £287,000, the receipts in 1899 being £31,244. There are also 815 miles of telephone, which yield an annual rental of £4,285.

There is a duplicate electric cable between Tasmania and Victoria, whence land lines extend to Port Darwin, and thence to England via Java. The number of messages sent was 380,687, of which 129,729 were cable.

Steamers run between Melbourne and Launceston twice and sometimes three times a week. Direct mail steamer from Hobart to Sydney every week. Direct mail steamer between Hobart and Melbourne and Hobart and New Zealand twice a month. There are also steamers trading between Launceston and the northwest ports of Tasmania and Melbourne every week; the mail steamer from Melbourne to Colombo and London every week—time thirty-two days via Brindisi; the mail steamer from Sydney to San Francisco and thence to London via New York every four weeks—time about forty days; the mail steamer via Vancouver once a month; the mail steamer via Brisbane, Batavia, Aden, and Brindisi every four weeks—passage from Tasmania about fifty-five days. Direct communication is also afforded by the means of the Shaw, Saville Company and New Zealand Shipping Company, one vessel of each company calling at Hobart every month.

The main road from the port of Hobart to Launceston is 123 miles long, passes through the center of the colony, and is maintained in fair order by the government. All the other main roads are under the control of main road boards and are constructed and maintained by the government. The cross and by roads are under the care of local trustees, and are maintained partly by rates and partly by contribution from the treasury. In 1899 the maintenance of main roads cost £5,028, of cross and by roads £23,025, in all £28,053.

There are now 547½ miles of railway in the colony constructed mainly on the 3-foot 6-inch gauge. Of these 547½ miles, 439½ belong to government, and cost £3,604,222, and 109 miles to private companies, and cost £683,149. The total cost of railway construction up to December 31, 1899, was £4,287,371, the gross receipts in 1899 being £258,548, and the working expenses £187,530, showing a return of 1.65 per cent on the capital.

*Victoria.*—Melbourne, the metropolis of Victoria, is distant from Sydney by sea 650 English miles and by land 577 miles; from Adelaide by sea 560 miles and by land 483 miles. It is now connected with Sydney, Brisbane, and Adelaide by railway. Steam postal communication with England via Ceylon and Suez is maintained weekly by the steamers of the Peninsular and Oriental, alternating with those of the Orient Company. Mails are also carried by the lines of steamers belonging to the Pacific, British India, and Messageries Maritimes (French) companies.

The post-offices in Victoria number about 1,593. The postal and telegraph revenue is not accurately known, but was estimated to have been £555,650 in 1898–99, and the expenditure was £499,686.

There are 3,143 miles of railway completed in Victoria and in full operation. The total cost of construction of lines opened up to June 30, 1899, was £38,974,410. Revenue for 1898–99 was £2,873,729, and the expenditure £1,797,726.

There are 6,747 miles of telegraph lines open (including railway telegraphs), and about 15,125 miles of wire; also about 13,794 miles of telephone wire. The number of telegrams transmitted during 1899 was 1,889,488, of which about 75,500 on Government business were transmitted free.

*Western Australia.*—The colony possesses at present four lines of Government railways in all—1,355 miles of railway open for traffic. Another railway, the Midland (277 miles), constructed on the land-grant system, affords communication between Midland Junction and Walkaway and connects the two Government systems of railways.

There are also several lines constructed by private timber companies in the south of the colony, in extent about 217 miles.

The receipts of the Government railways for the year ended June, 1900, were £1,259,512, and the working expenses £861,470. The total cost of construction was £6,427,370.

Of electric telegraph in 1899 there were 8,749 miles of wire. The number of telegrams forwarded and received during 1899 was 1,136,153, and the revenue received £78,937. (Worked by post-office department.) There is telegraphic communication with Europe via South Australia, and also a direct cable from Java to Roebuck Bay.

*The Bahamas.*—There are no railways or telegraphs in the colony, and but few good roads, except in New Providence. There is regular fortnightly mail communication with New York and Cuba, and frequent vessels to and from Cuba and Key West.

*Barbados.*—A railway from Bridgetown to the parish of St. Andrew (24 miles as surveyed) was commenced in 1880 and completed September 10, 1882. The total cost of construction was £195,284. The receipts for the year 1897 were £5,503, exclusive of Government



subsidy of £6,000, and the expenses £5,952. Of the subsidy of £6,000 per annum granted by the legislature, only a sum of £82 17s. 6d. was paid in 1897, in consequence of the failure of the company to comply with the provisions of act 51 of 1896. It belonged to the Barbados Railway Company, Limited, but was, on June 15, 1898, purchased by the Foreign American and General Trust Company, Limited, for the sum of £50,000. No subsidy was paid during the year 1898. The whole line has been reconstructed.

There is telephonic communication between the police stations by 35 miles of line, which cost £1,465 and is open to public use. The Barbados Telephone Company, Limited, a private company, has a total of 470 services, with a total length of line in use of about 600 miles.

The Royal Mail steamers arrive in and leave Barbados every alternate week from and to England. There is also fortnightly communication with all the West Indies by these steamers. The usual length of the voyage from England to Barbados is eleven days.

*Bermuda.*—There are no railways in the colony. There are 94 miles of colonial and 15 miles of military roads. The telegraphs are worked by the military authorities and comprise 15 miles of cable and 36 miles of land line. The total cost of construction was £4,388. The receipts in 1899 were £22, and the expenditures £291. There is also a private telephone company, which has about 240 subscribers and upward of 700 miles of wire in line.

*British Guiana.*—The three rivers, Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, are navigable for 90, 35, and 150 miles, respectively. Beyond these distances, owing to the nature of the country, they abound in cataracts and waterfalls. There is a good network of roads, and there are small canals in connection with the Demerara River. There is a railway from Georgetown to Rossignol, Berbice, 60½ miles in length, owned by the Demerara Railway Company, Limited. Its receipts for the year ended March 31, 1900, were £33,463, its expenses £22,108. The line was constructed at a total cost of £591,149. A railway 18½ miles in length, connecting the Upper Demerara and Upper Essequibo rivers, leading to the interior and affording access to the gold diggings, has been open since the beginning of 1897, whilst the Demerara Railway Company have constructed a line on the west coast, connecting Vreedenhoop with Greenwich Park, about 15 miles in length. The postal-telegraph system comprises about 476 miles of line, with 17 cables, covering a distance of 89½ miles. It is connected with a cable to Trinidad, and thus with Europe and the United States.

*British Honduras.*—There are no railways or telegraphs in the colony, and the easiest communication is by water along the coast. There is regular communication every seven days by mail steamers with New Orleans and Puerto Cortez, every three weeks with New York and Jamaica, and about every six weeks with Liverpool and Colon.

*Dominion of Canada.*—The length of railways actually constructed in the Dominion aggregated on June 30, 1899, 17,358 miles.

There are 33,074 miles of telegraph line and 81,266 miles of wire in operation in Canada, of which 2,990, including cables, are owned and operated by the Dominion Government; 4,830,501 messages were sent in 1899.

There are six important systems of Government canals, affording, with the St. Lawrence River connections, magnificent inland communications. The total length of canals in operation is 262½ miles, but the aggregate length of inland navigation rendered available by them is 3,000 miles, the St. Lawrence alone having a length of 2,384 miles. The receipts in 1899 were \$369,044, and the working expenses, including repairs, \$482,941. Seventy-six and a half million dollars have been expended on the construction of these canals, including the amount expended on the Sault Ste. Marie Canal to connect Lakes Superior and Huron, which was opened in the season of 1895.

*Cape of Good Hope.*—The railways of the colony consisted originally of three separate systems, the Western, Midland, and Eastern, having their starting points on the seaboard at Cape Town, Port Elizabeth, and East London, respectively. The Western and Midland systems are connected by a junction at De Aar (500 miles from Cape Town and 330 from Port Elizabeth), and are carried forward thence as one trunk line to Kimberley, the center of the diamond fields (647 miles from Cape Town and 486 miles from Port Elizabeth). This line was opened in 1885. From Kimberley the line is now extended northward to Vryburg (127 miles north of Kimberley), where the Cape Government line ends, and is carried on by the Rhodesia Railway Company to Bulawayo, 1,361 miles from Cape Town and 1,199 miles from Port Elizabeth. A further northward extension toward the Zambesia is in progress. From Naauwpoort, 270 miles from Port Elizabeth, on the Port Elizabeth-De Aar line, the Midland system runs via Colesburg to the borders of the Orange River colony (329 miles from Port Elizabeth), at Norvals Point, whence the line is continued through the Orange River colony to Bloemfontein (opened in December, 1890), and on to Johannesburg (714 miles from Port Elizabeth), and Pretoria (741 miles from Port Elizabeth), both in the Transvaal.

The Eastern system extends from East London, through Queen's Town, to Aliwal North, adjacent to the Basutoland and Orange River colony frontiers. It was opened in 1885, and in May, 1892, it was extended to join the railway within the Free State at Springfontein, so forming a direct line to Bloemfontein and Johannesburg.

There is now through railway communication from the railways of the Cape Colony to Durban, Natal, and Lorenzo Marquez (Delagoa Bay), as well as to various important centers in the Transvaal. The line, 334 miles long, through the Free State to the Vaal River, was taken over by the Free State on January 30, 1897, in terms of the convention under which the construction was arranged.

Total railways open June 30, 1900: (a) Belonging to and worked by Government, 1,990 miles; (b) Owned by private companies, but worked by Government, 653 miles; (c) Lines owned and worked by private companies, 224 miles; total, 2,867 miles. There were about 289 miles under construction in the colony for private companies June 30, 1900, including the Somerset East-King William's Town line, which will probably become a Government line.

*Ceylon.*—Great efforts have been made to keep pace with the growing requirements of the colony. The telephone has been introduced in Colombo, and the principal towns are connected by the telegraph, which is connected with the Indian telegraph system; 1,161 miles are open in Ceylon. There are 297 miles of railway, all owned and worked by the government.

The lines of railway are distributed thus: Colombo to Kandy, 74½ miles; Kandy and Matale, 17½ miles; Peradeniya Junction to Banderavela, 91½ miles; Mahara Quarry and Mahara Point, 1½ miles; Fort Junction and Wharf, 1½ miles; Maradana Junction to Galle, 71½ miles; Galle and Matara, 26½ miles; Polgahawelle and Kurunegala, 13 miles. The total cost of construction up to December 31, 1899, charged in accounts was Rs. 57,933,837. The receipts during 1899 were Rs. 7,658,887, and expenditures, Rs. 4,104,354. Of metaled roads there are 2,509 miles; graveled and natural road, 625 and 460 miles, respectively; of canals, 152.27 miles. The maintenance of 3,594 miles of road cost, in 1899, Rs. 1,410,805, or an average of Rs. 393 per mile. This is exclusive of roads within municipal limits, and of minor roads which are not in the charge of the department of public works. Every male between the ages of 18 and 55 is bound

to perform six days' labor in the year on the roads, or to contribute a rupee and a half (2 rupees in the town of Colombo) by way of commutation. The road committees collect the commutation, but the amount derived from this source is inconsiderable as compared with the outlay. Substantial progress has been made in recent years in the restoration of the ancient irrigation tanks and the construction of new waterworks. The amount expended on irrigation in 1898 was Rs. 306,633.

*Cyprus*.—There is no railway or navigable waterway in the island, but roads between all important places are now maintained. Proposals for a railway connecting certain important centers are now, however, under consideration. There are no Government telegraphs, but the Eastern Telegraph Company and the Imperial Ottoman Telegraph Administration work about 240 miles of land line in connection with their cable.

*Hongkong*.—There is telegraphic communication with nearly the whole world by a cable to Shanghai (and thence to Japan and Russia) and two cables to Singapore via Saigon and Hué, respectively; and there is very extensive steam communication with Europe, America, and Australia.

In addition to the regular mail lines of the Peninsular and Orient Steam Navigation Company and the Messageries Maritimes, which convey the European mails weekly, the Pacific Mail Steam Navigation Company have a fortnightly service via Yokohama, Japan, to San Francisco, and the Eastern and Australian Mail Steam Company and the China Navigation Company have a frequent service to the Australian colonies. The Norddeutsche Lloyd and the Austrian Lloyd steamers go to and from Europe monthly, and the Canadian Pacific Mail Company have a three-weekly service to Europe via Vancouver and the Canadian Pacific Railway; also the Portland line of steamers have a monthly service to Portland, Oreg., touching at Japanese ports and Victoria, British Columbia. Letters from England reach Hongkong in about thirty-one days.

There is daily steam communication between Hongkong, Macao, and Canton, and almost daily with Swatow, Amoy, Foo Chow, Shanghai, and other ports on the coast of China. There are no railways but a cable tramway from the city to the higher levels, opened in 1888, and no internal telegraph communication except for police and military purposes.

*Natal*.—There are 1,337½ miles of government telegraphs, constructed at a cost of about £121,754, and the earnings for the year 1899 were £26,623 (exclusive of the value of government messages, £16,366), and the expenses, £30,971.

There are 591½ miles of railway open, all constructed and worked by the government, with the exception of the North Coast Extension beyond Verulam (50 miles), which was constructed by the Natal-Zululand Railway Company, and is worked by the government on behalf of that company in accordance with a working agreement.

*Newfoundland*.—There is a railway from St. Johns to Harbour Grace, 84 miles in length, the property of the government. The total approximate cost of construction was \$2,500,000. A branch line has been constructed by the government connecting with Placentia. Its length is 27 miles, and it was built at a cost of \$525,000. The railway to the Exploits River, a distance of 200 miles, is now complete, at a cost of \$3,120,000. The line from Exploits, via Bay of Islands and Bay St. George to Port aux Basques (a distance of 285 miles, approximately) is also complete, the cost being \$4,446,000. Branch lines to Brigus, Tilton, Carbonear, and Burnt Bay are now completed. The total length of these lines is about 33 miles. The transinsular railway now being completed, regular connection is made with the Continent three times a week, the intervening strait being crossed in the first-class passenger steamer *Bruce*, which makes the passage in six hours. About 750 miles of postal and 1,700 miles of district roads are maintained. There are 1,314 miles of telegraph open, and cables start for Europe (at Hearts Content) and America (at Placentia). There is a fortnightly mail service (except in February, March, and April) with Liverpool by the Allan Line, and at irregular intervals by other steamers.

*New Zealand*.—As in most of the colonies, all the more important public works of New Zealand are in the hands of the government and other public bodies, comparatively few having been undertaken by companies. The initiation of public works in New Zealand is coeval with the founding of the colony. In the early days they simply kept pace with the spread of settlement, but in 1870 a great impetus was given to the progress of the country by the inauguration of the "Public works policy," which provided for carrying out works in advance of settlement, and for immigration.

The first public works initiated were roads, many thousands of miles having been constructed in all directions. Some of the main roads through sparsely settled districts were made and are still maintained by the government, but the ordinary main roads are under the control of the counties, and the district roads under local boards. Nearly all the larger rivers on the main roads in both islands are bridged. A few, however, have ferries worked by the current.

At the end of the last financial year, March 21, 1900, there were 2,104 miles of government and 167 miles of private railways in operation in New Zealand, and 111 miles of government under construction; but 79 miles of private lines have since been taken over by the government.

The expenditure on the 2,104 miles of Government railways has been £16,703,887, or an average of £7,839 a mile. This includes all charges connected with construction and equipment of the lines.

The revenue from the government railways for the years 1899-1900 was £1,623,891, and the working expenses, £1,052,358. The balance of £571,533 is equal to a return of £3 8s. 5d. per cent on the capital invested. The gauge throughout is 3 feet 6 inches. Of telegraphs there are now 6,910 miles of land lines, and 19,228 miles of wire, constructed at a cost of £856,057. The cable tramways are practically on the same system as those in San Francisco.

*Northern Nigeria*.—There are stations at Brass and Bonny, and cable communications with Lagos, and thus with Europe. A telegraph line was constructed in 1897-98 from Lagos to Jebba, and has been extended to Lokoja, from which point it has been carried up the Benue to Ahwaneja. Regular steamers arrive and depart from Liverpool and the west coast of Africa every three weeks. Communication in the Niger Basin is mainly by the steamers of the Niger Company.

*Basutoland*.—There are no navigable waterways, the rivers being low in winter and flooded generally in summer. The usual mode of conveyance is by ox wagon or light cart.

The roads in the country are now in good condition for any kind of transport, but the periodical rains, draining down from the high watersheds, seriously damage them. There are no railways in the country.

*Rhodesia*.—Public roads in Rhodesia have been made to the extent of 2,734 miles, and there were under construction 360 miles of main roads and 500 miles of cross roads in mining districts. Telegraph lines, including police telephone lines, and the African Trans-continental Telegraph line, to the extent of 3,451 miles of line and 5,005 miles of wire, have been erected.

The African Transcontinental Telegraph Company has constructed a telegraph line from Umtali to Mashonaland, to Kituta, at the south end of Lake Tanganyika, the length of the line being 1,225 miles. A branch line, 123 miles long, from Domira Bay, Lake Nyasa, to Fort Jameson, in M'Peseni's country, the headquarters of the administrator of northeastern Rhodesia.

The Bechuanaland Railway reached Bulawayo on October 19, 1897, and was formally opened on November 4. An extension of the Beira Railway from Umtali reached Salisbury on May 1, 1899, and was formally opened on May 22. This places Salisbury in direct communication with the sea, over a line 382 miles in length. On July 8, 1900, the widening of the gauge of the Beira railway to 3 feet 6 inches, the standard gauge of South Africa, was completed. A line is now being built to connect Salisbury with Bulawayo. The first 100 miles from Salisbury will probably be completed by the end of 1900, and the whole of the line in the course of 1901. Its length will be about 290 miles.

Telegraphic communication continues to be rapidly established. On March 31, 1900, 71 telegraph offices were opened.

*Straits Settlements.*—Over 50 lines of seagoing steamers touch at Singapore.

There is telegraphic communication by submarine cables (3) from Penang to Madras, Malacca, and Singapore; and from Singapore (2) to Saigon and Hué, and thence to Hongkong, Japan, and Russia. There is also a government telegraph line from Penang to Province Wellesley, and thence to Perak, Selangor, Sungei Ujong, and Malacca. There are 20 miles of telegraph line in connection with the cables, and there are 722 miles of telephone line. A railway 23 miles long to connect Prai, in Province Wellesley, with the Perak railway system is now in course of construction, of which 7 miles are already open for traffic. This railway is being constructed and worked by the government of the Federated Malay States. A railway 15½ miles long from the town of Singapore to Rianji on the Straits of Johore is being constructed by the colonial government. In Penang there are 9 miles of tramway open, constructed and worked by a private firm; the motive power is steam.

In the Federated Malay States railway construction has made, and is making, rapid progress.

The following lines are open for traffic: In Perak, from Port Weld, via Taiping, the capital, to Ulu, Sa'Petang, 17 miles, and from Teluk, Anson, to Enggor, 50 miles; an extension to Taiping and Prai, and from Tapah to Tanjong, Malim, are under construction. In Selangor, from Kwala Klang, the chief port, to Kwala Lumpor, the capital, 27 miles; and from thence to Kwala Kubu, 38½ miles, with a small branch line from Kwala, Lumpor to Kajang, 9 miles. In Sungai Ujong, from Port Dickson to Seremban, the capital, 21 miles.

The following lines are under construction by Selangor: From Kwala Kubu to Tanjong, Malim, 15 miles; and from Kajang to Seremban.

An important line has been surveyed to connect the east and west States of the peninsula. If constructed it will probably run from Kwala Kubu, via Raub, to Kwala Lipis, in Pahang, a distance of 80 miles. There is, however, no prospect of this work being undertaken in the immediate future. It is estimated that the railway extensions now projected and under course of construction, which will connect Port Dickson, in Negri Sembilan, with Kwala Prai, on the mainland opposite Penang, will be completed by the year 1902. A short section from Bukit, Martajan to Penang is already open for traffic, and connected with Penang by steam ferry.

*Trinidad and Tobago.*—Communication between Port of Spain and San Fernando is maintained by means of the Gulf steamers, which ply three times a week, and by the railway. The Gulf steamers proceed as far as Cedros, in the southwestern part of the island, a total distance of 60 miles from Port of Spain.

The railway from Port of Spain to Arima (16 miles) was opened in 1876.

The total length of line opened is about 80½ miles, all constructed and worked by the government. The total receipts from the railways, tramways, and telegraphs during 1899 were £78,335, and the expenditure was £55,422. This last amount does not include the annual appropriation for interest and sinking fund, which in 1898 amounted to £106,380.

*Turks and Caicos islands.*—There is steamship connection between England and Turks Island once a month, and between New York and Turks Island every two or three weeks. The length of the voyage between England and Turks Island is about fourteen days via New York, and eighteen days via Halifax and Jamaica. There are no railways or telegraph lines in the colony. Cable communication with Bermuda and Jamaica was established by the Direct West India Cable Company in January, 1898, the station being fixed at Grand Turk.

*Cochin China.*—There are in the colony 51 miles of railway (Saigon to Mytho). In 1900 contracts were made for the construction of railways from Saigon to Tam-Linh and from Tam-Linh to Dji-Ring. There are 2,276 miles of telegraph line, with 3,840 miles of wire and 85 telegraph offices. Telegrams (1896), 321,536. There are 95 post-offices.

*Tonkin.*—In 1896 there entered 1,407 vessels of 461,454 tons. The Phulang-Thuong-Langson Railway is 64 miles long. In 1900 contracts were made for the construction of railways from Hanoi to Viétry; from Hanoi to Haiphong; from Hanoi to Ninh-Binh; from Hanoi to Vinh; and from Viétry to Lao-Kay. In Anam and Tonkin in 1896 there were 79 post-offices. For commercial purposes the country is almost inaccessible. It can be entered only by the Mekong, which is barred at Khone by rapids. A railway 4 miles in length has been constructed across that island, and by means of it several steam launches have been transported to the upper waters, where they now ply. A telegraph line connects Hué in Anam with the towns on the Mekong, and these with Saigon.

*Algeria.*—In 1898 there were 1,815 miles of national roads in Algeria.

In 1900 there were 2,156 English miles of railway open for traffic; of this, 325 miles was on Tunisian territory. There were also 99 miles of tramway.

The postal and telegraph revenue for 1898 was 4,725,810 francs and the expenditure 3,326,933 francs. There were 573 post-offices. Other postal statistics are included in those of France.

The telegraph of Algeria consisted in 1898 of 7,260 miles of line and 18,496 miles of wire, with 461 offices. Messages (1898), 2,033,740; of which 1,892,633 were internal, 57,358 international, and 83,748 official.

*French Kongo.*—In 1898 there entered the ports 103 vessels of 250,009 tons (49 of which were French, of 127,667 tons). The development of the resources of the country is hindered by the want of means of communication, but a railway to connect Libreville and the Kongo is in project.

*Madagascar.*—Tamatave, the principal seaport of the island, has a commodious harbor, safe during seven or eight months of the year, visited regularly by the steamers of several shipping companies, chiefly French. In 1898, 6,061 vessels of 879,362 tons entered and cleared the ports of Madagascar. Of the tonnage 734,068 was French, 78,053 British, 39,305 German. There are as yet but few roads in Madagascar, in the European sense of the word, and not many wheeled vehicles are employed. Almost all passengers and goods are carried on the shoulders of bearers, except where the rivers or coast lagoons allow the use of canoes; but wagon roads are

being made from Tamatave to Antananarivo and also between most of the chief military posts. In 1897 the sum of 2,859,406 francs was spent on roadmaking. The canalization of the lagoons on the east coast has been commenced. A short railway has been constructed from Tamatave to Ivondro, and will ultimately be extended so as, with the canal between the Ivondro and Jaroka rivers, to connect Tamatave with the capital.

There is postal communication throughout the island. An electric telegraph, 180 miles in length, connects Tamatave and the capital, and another connects the capital with Majunga, which, by a cable laid in 1895, is in communication with Mozambique and also connects with the Eastern Telegraph Company. Telegraph lines connect Antananarivo and Fianarantsoa in the interior, with Mananjary on the east coast, passing Vatamandry and Mahanoro.

*Réunion.*—The chief port, Pointe-des-Galets, is connected by a railway of 83 miles with St. Benoit and St. Pierre. In 1887 this railway was taken over by the state.

*French West Africa and the Sahara.*—In 1898, 1,011 vessels of 1,372,885 tons visited the ports. In 1898 there were in Senegal 246 miles of railway, 574 miles of telegraph, with 1,022 miles of wire, and 21 telegraph offices. The chief line connects Dakar, St. Louis, and Rufisque (163 miles); that from Kayes to Bafoulabé (82 miles) is being extended to Bamuko, on the Niger. There is a river service from St. Louis into the interior as far as Kayes in the rainy season. Dakar is in regular communication with French ports.

In Dahomey there are few roads. A railway is proposed from Kotonu to the Niger. A telegraph line connects Kotonu with Abomey, the Niger and the Senegal.

*Tunis.*—In the year 1898 there entered the sixteen ports of the regency 11,489 vessels of 2,433,841 tons; of these vessels 1,677 of 1,254,934 tons were French. The merchant shipping of the regency comprises 403 vessels of from 10 to 150 tons.

Length of railways, 883 miles, of which 866 miles belong to the State. The State lines are worked by an Algerian company. The short lines (about 16 miles in all) connecting Tunis with Goletta and other suburbs belong to the Italian Rubattino Company.

There are 2,328 miles of telegraphs and 4,600 miles of wire; 104 telegraph offices; messages (1898), 664,083. In 1898 four urban telephone systems had 112 miles of line and 126 miles of wire; eleven interurban systems had 320 miles of line and 515 miles of wire. The number of conversations during the year was 303,000. There were in 1898, 300 post-offices; letters sent, internal service, 5,122,296; external, 10,292,752.

*Guadeloupe and dependencies.*—Within the islands traffic is carried on by means of roads and navigable rivers.

*Martinique.*—Tonnage entered in 1899, 315,509; cleared, 313,840. The island is visited regularly by the steamers of French, British, and American companies. For internal traffic there are subsidized mail coaches; subsidized steamers ply on the coast, visiting neighboring islands. The colony is in telegraphic communication with the rest of the world by the cables of two telegraph companies.

*Kamerun.*—For the development of the colony a region containing about 34,000 square miles has been conceded to the Northwestern Kamerun Company which has received a charter authorizing it to acquire property, make roads, railways, and canals, and provide steamship lines or other means of communication. The company can promote immigration and prosecute agricultural, mining, industrial, or mercantile enterprises.

*German Southwest Africa.*—A new harbor is being constructed at Swakopmund, whence a railway and telegraph line to Windhoek are partly constructed. The imperial subsidy for 1900–1901 includes 2,300,000 marks for the continuation of this line, which, in October, 1899, had been carried 80 miles inland.

*German East Africa.*—The resources of the region are still undeveloped, but commercial enterprise is being encouraged by the government which grants subsidies for railways and steamers. The chief seaports are Dar-es-Salaam (population 13,000), Bagamoyo (13,000), Saadani, Pangani, Kilwa (10,000), Lindi, Mikindani, and Tanga (5,000), only a few of which are accessible to ocean-going vessels. A railway from Tanga is open for traffic as far as Pongwe, nearly 10 miles, and is being extended to Karagwe and Nomba. Surveys are being made for a railway from Dar-es-Salaam to Norogo, and a telegraph line is being laid from Dar-es-Salaam to Kilossa. There are in the coast towns 9 telegraph stations and a line connects with Zanzibar.

*Kiau-Chau.*—The extensive coal fields of Wiehsien and Pashan are less than 100 miles distant; these, by agreement, are to be worked with German capital; and concessions have by the treaty been granted for the construction of railways, one of which will pass through the coal fields to the boundary of the province, and the other to Chin-chao, with a branch to Tsinan. Railway construction is in progress.

*Dutch East Indies.*—At the end of 1898 the total length of railways (State and private) opened for traffic was about 1,272 English miles; the revenues were 15,759,000 guilders.

There are about 200 post-offices; the number of letters carried in 1898 and 1897 for internal intercourse was 8,672,352 and 7,700,290, while 6,370,780 and 5,359,380 newspapers, samples, etc., for the interior passed through the various post-offices in the Dutch Indies during the same years. In 1898 and 1897, 1,512,289 and 1,495,731 letters were carried for foreign postal intercourse.

There were 6,833 miles of telegraph lines in Dutch India in 1898 with 112 offices; the number of messages was 637,389. In December, 1896, Batavia, Samarang, and Sourabaya were connected by telephone.

#### STEAMSHIP COMMUNICATION BETWEEN THE COLONY AND GOVERNING COUNTRY.

All of the successful colonizing governments foster close intercommunication by steamship lines between the home country and the colony, and this is true in a marked degree of England. Specific statements regarding the direct expenditures for maintenance of communication between the colonies and the home country can not be obtained, since the aid given to steamship lines by the home Government is in such form that statements with reference to the distinct colonies or points touched in the various routes would be impossible. In general terms, however, it may be said that the aid granted by the various governments, and especially the English Government, to steamship lines is so adjusted in the selection of mail routes and the fostering of steamship lines and routes to be followed by them as to furnish frequent steamship communication between the home country and the various colonies, and where practicable among the colonies themselves. This will be seen in the statements given on another page, in which the roads, railways, steamship, and postal service in each of the principal colonies of the world are described.

"Among the public services whose concession in form of monopoly grants or subsidies is customary because of the peculiar conditions in which the colonies find themselves at the beginning of their development," says M. de Lanessan, "I would point out first those relating to the oversea and river transportation. The subsidies granted by the colony to the service of oversea transportation should

not astonish the people in the mother country, since the latter follows the same methods to some extent. In the present stage of civilization there is no country, however distant and primitive it may be, which, while being in the hands of a European nation, could be deprived of regular communication with the rest of the world; which could go without a postal service, enabling it to forward and receive at fixed periods communications, all of which is necessary for the transaction of public and private affairs. Such a regular service is very seldom sufficiently remunerative so that private people would feel induced to install and maintain it at their risk and peril. Hence the necessity for countries which intend to make use of it to cause its establishment and insure its working by privileges and subsidies, which must be the more considerable the less the service itself is profitable.

"It is for this reason that the colony of Indo-China found it necessary for many years to subsidize from its local budget the lines between Saigon and Bangkok; Saigon and Singapore; Saigon and the Philippines, and between the principal ports of Indo-China. Notwithstanding the great sacrifices made for this service, the latter is yet very insufficient and it is owing partly to this insufficiency that the slow progress in the commercial development of our Indo-Chinese possessions is due.

"Cochin-China and Tonkin are even now obliged to subsidize regular river service between the principal localities, for the free, unsubsidized service would not be sufficiently remunerative, at least in some parts of these territories, in order to induce private people to establish independent enterprises, at the same time satisfying all the demands of the administration, the colonies, and the natives.

"Apart from the service rendered in the transportation of mail, passengers, and merchandise, the river traffic in these two countries played an important rôle in their general development. The subsidized companies being assured of certain fixed profits for a sufficiently great number of years, found it advantageous to establish on the spot plants necessary for the repair, partial and total construction, of the vessels. In Tonkin the Société des Correspondances Fluviales succeeded in constructing in its yards at Haiphong, first, its hulls, then its machinery, and has now acquired the outfit to construct, on account of private individuals and the Government, small steam vessels, which were formerly bought at Hongkong. In Cochin-China the Société des Messageries Fluviales has likewise established considerable shipyards. The shipbuilding industry, then, which has been introduced both in Tonkin and Cochin-China, is due to the contracts made with the navigation companies."

#### IRRIGATION IN THE TROPICAL COLONIES.

In a few of the colonies of the world, notably India and Ceylon, irrigation works of great value have been constructed by the colonial governments. While these have been costly, the expense has been entirely borne from colonial funds or from loans which are borne by the colonial government, and the cost has been many times repaid by the increased production of the irrigated areas. It has been estimated that the value of a single year's crop produced in the irrigated sections of India in excess of that which would have been produced without irrigation more than equals the entire cost of the irrigating system.

Sir John Strachey, in his "India," put the cost of the Indian irrigating works up to that time at 320,000,000 rupees (present exchange value of rupee about 33 cents), and adds that the estimated value of the produce of the lands irrigated by works constructed by the government was in 1892 more than 550,000,000 rupees. These works after their construction are not only self-supporting through the charges made for the water distributed, but produce in addition to the annual expenditures a net return of about 5½ per cent on their cost. In Ceylon the colonial government has recently taken up the work of reconstruction of ancient irrigation tanks and the construction of new irrigating works, and by this process it is expected that large additions will be made to the productive area of the island. The irrigating system of India is described by Sir John Strachey as follows:

"In India the very existence of the people depends upon the regular occurrence of the periodical rains, and when they fail through a wide tract of country, and, still worse, when they fail in successive years, the consequences are terrible. The greater part of India is liable periodically to this danger, but the country is so vast that it never happens that all parts of it suffer at the same time. Improvements in the economic condition of the people, and especially more diversity of occupation, can alone bring complete safeguards and render general famine, in its extremest form, through a great tract of country impossible. But this must be a long and gradual process. Meanwhile it has been found by experience that although the entire prevention of famines, the most destructive of all calamities, is beyond the power of any government, we can do much to mitigate them by removing obstacles which hinder commercial intercourse, and which diminish the productiveness of the land. The instruments by which we can do this are roads, railways, and canals. \* \* \*

#### IRRIGATION CONSTANTLY REQUIRED IN PARTS OF INDIA.

"In northern India, even in good seasons, artificial irrigation is a necessity for the successful cultivation of many of the more valuable crops, and when there is a general failure of the periodical rains there is no other means by which drought and scarcity can be prevented. A large portion of northern India is now protected by canals of greater magnitude than exist in any other country of the world. \* \* \*

#### THE OLD IRRIGATION WORKS.

"Little of the old irrigation works of our predecessors is retained in the existing canals. Practically all of these have been made by ourselves, and the often repeated statement, prompted, I believe, by that strange inclination to depreciate their own achievements which often besets Englishmen, that the old canals have been more profitable than those constructed by ourselves has not the least foundation of truth.

#### THE IRRIGATION SYSTEM CREATED UNDER ENGLISH RULE.

"The most important of these works in the northwestern provinces are those which distribute the water of the Ganges and Jumna. In the winter and spring, before the Ganges has been swollen by the melting of snow in the Himalaya, and when water is urgently required for agricultural operations, nearly the whole visible stream of the great river at Hardwar, where it leaves the mountains, is thrown into an artificial channel. The works on the first 20 miles of its course are in a high degree remarkable, for the canal intercepts the drainage of the lower Himalaya, and has to be carried across rivers which often become furious torrents, bringing down enormous floods. These obstacles have been overcome by various methods, with a skill of which our Indian engineers may well be proud. One

torrent flows harmlessly in a broad artificial bed over the canal which runs below; over another, still more formidable, with a bed more than 2 miles wide, the canal, which is virtually the whole Ganges, is carried by an aqueduct. Some 200 miles farther down the Ganges has again become a large river, and nearly all its water is again diverted into a second canal. The two canals together are capable of discharging nearly 10,000 cubic feet of water per second; the ordinary supply of each is more than double the volume of the Thames at Teddington in average weather, and this great body of water is distributed over the country by a number of smaller channels for the irrigation of the land. The length of the main channels exceeds 1,000 miles, and there are more than 5,000 miles of distributaries.

"Three canals of smaller dimensions, but which in any other country would be looked upon as works of great magnitude, distribute in a similar way nearly the whole of the water brought by the Jumna from the Himalaya. In Behar, the border province of the Bengal lieutenant-governorship, which in its physical character closely resembles the adjoining provinces of the northwest, another great canal is taken from the river Son.

"There are other important irrigation canals in Orissa and in Bengal; but in the latter province irrigation is not ordinarily so essential as in countries farther north, where the climate is drier and the seasons are more precarious.

"The following facts, which I take from the report of the Indian famine commissioners, will give some idea of the value of the irrigation works of the northwestern provinces:

"Up to the end of 1877-78 the capital outlay on completed canals had been £4,346,000. The area irrigated in that year was 1,461,000 acres, the value of the crops raised on which was estimated at £6,020,000. Half the irrigated area was occupied by autumn crops, which but for irrigation must have been wholly lost, and it may be safely said that the wealth of these provinces was consequently increased by £3,000,000; so that three-fourths of the entire first cost of the works was thus repaid to the country in that single year.

"In 1891-92 the area irrigated by canals in the northwestern provinces exceeded 2,000,000 acres."

"In the Punjab works of equal importance have been constructed to utilize the waters of the Sutlej, the Ravi, and other rivers, and their value has been as great as in the northwestern provinces.

"During the droughts of 1877-78," Sir Henry Cunningham tells us, "their benefits were extended to 1,333,000 acres, the greater portion of which but for canal irrigation would have been absolutely barren. During this period the land irrigated by the two principal canals produced food grain to the amount of 300,000 tons, worth £2,000,000, and enough to keep 1,800,000 people for a year; while the nonfood crops—sugar, dyes, spices, etc.—were reckoned to be worth another £1,000,000. In other words, the value of the crops saved by the two canals in a single season was more than equal to the entire cost (£2,260,000) of the completed system."

"The benefits described by Sir Henry Cunningham have become far greater since this passage was written. The Sirhind Canal, which distributes the water of the Sutlej throughout not only our own territories but through the native States of Patiala, Nabha, and Jhind, is a work of greater magnitude than either of the canals from the Ganges. It is capable of discharging more than 6,000 cubic feet of water per second; the length of its main channel is 540 miles, and that of its distributaries 4,700 miles, and it can irrigate 1,200,000 acres. Its cost has exceeded Rs. 4,530,000, and the direct returns to the State in 1890-91 amounted to about 4.6 per cent on the capital invested.

"Different systems of irrigation prevail in other parts of India. In central and southern India large tracts of country are dependent for their supply of water on lakes and reservoirs, known by the not very appropriate name of tanks. These are in some cases natural lakes, but oftener they have been formed by the construction of dams of masonry or earth across the outlets of valleys in the hills, and they are fed sometimes by rivers and sometimes by the rainfall of a more or less extensive area. They vary in size from ponds irrigating a few acres to lakes of several miles in circumference. Some of them are works constructed in the times of which we have no historical record.

"These are not the only means of irrigation in southern India. Works hardly inferior in importance to those of the northwestern provinces and Punjab, but on a different system, have been carried out by the British Government in the Madras Presidency for utilizing the waters of the Godavari and Kistna rivers. At the head of each of the deltas which they form before they reach the sea a great weir, or, as it is locally called, an 'anicut,' is thrown across the river, which is diverted into irrigation canals and distributing channels, some of which are also used for navigation. A large area, with a population of nearly 2,000,000, thus obtains complete protection against failure of rain, and these works have not only been in the highest degree beneficial to the people, but very profitable to the State. In the famine of 1876-77 these irrigated tracts produced rice to the value of Rs. 5,000,000, a large part of which was available for the relief of the suffering districts. Without canal irrigation there would have been no crops at all, and the value of the produce in a single year was four times as great as the whole of the capital expended on the canal works by the Government. Farther south, in Tanjore, works of a similar kind provide the means of utilizing through a large tract of country, in the delta of the Kaveri, almost the entire water supply of that river. In northern India the ordinary rental of land is doubled by irrigation, and it is often more than quadrupled in Madras.

"In the province of Sind another system prevails. Little rain falls there, and without irrigation there would be no cultivation. In the same way that agriculture in Egypt depends upon the inundation of the Nile, it depends in Sind on the floods brought down by the Indus in the season of the periodical rains. There is great room for further improvement, but the existing irrigation renders the province fairly prosperous, and gives the means of subsistence to some 2,400,000 people.

#### EXTENT, VALUE, AND COST OF THE IRRIGATING SYSTEM.

"Altogether there are in India, under the management or supervision of the British Government, some 36,000 miles of canals and other works, irrigating nearly 14,000,000 acres, or more than 21,000 square miles. Although some of the canals have been financially unsuccessful and others were incomplete, the irrigation works of India, taken as a whole, yielded in 1891-92 a net return of 5½ per cent on their cost, which amounted to about Rs. 32,300,000. It is a remarkable illustration of their great utility that this sum falls far short of the annual value of the crops they protect. In the single year 1891-92 the estimated value of the produce of the land irrigated by works constructed by the government was more than Rs. 55,000,000.

"No similar works in other countries approach them in magnitude, and it is certain that no public works of nobler utility have ever been undertaken in the world. \* \* \*

"I must briefly explain the system under which the funds for this great expenditure on railways and irrigation works have been supplied.



## HOW FUNDS FOR IRRIGATION AND RAILWAYS WERE RAISED.

"When, after the mutinies of 1857, the obligation of providing numerous works of improvement had been recognized, it became evident that the ordinary revenue could not furnish the means of meeting the necessary outlay. The financial difficulties involved by the suppression of the mutinies were great, and for some years afterwards the necessity of providing barracks and hospitals for the largely increased force of British troops was so urgent that the progress of other works was crippled.

"In 1864 the principle was accepted, that for the construction of works of irrigation it was right to supply by loan the funds which could not be otherwise provided. This conclusion first took a practical shape in 1867-68, during the government of Lord Lawrence, in accordance with a scheme drawn up by Gen. Richard Strachey. It was clear that only a comparatively small amount of the necessary outlay could be met from the revenues; the rest was to be supplied by loans. \* \* \*

"I will not describe the various phases through which this policy has passed. The main principle, that railways and irrigation works in India may wisely and without financial danger be constructed with borrowed money, has been consistently carried out, partly by the government directly and partly through the agency of companies assisted by a guaranty of interest or by subsidies from the State. \* \* \*"

Various irrigation methods are employed in different parts of the world, being governed by physical conditions and circumstances. In Egypt, where a large proportion of the agricultural products are produced from irrigation, a system differing materially from that above described is in operation. In the Hawaiian Islands great additions to the productiveness of the islands have been obtained by irrigating works, large areas which without irrigation were valueless having been brought under cultivation and found extremely productive and valuable. In this case most of the water supply is from artesian wells, the water being distributed by means of powerful pumps.

## HOW THE COST OF COLONIAL DEVELOPMENT IS BORNE.

How has all of this vast improvement been paid for, and how is it now being paid for and sustained? Here are 36,000 miles of irrigating canals, 70,000 miles of railway, 200,000 miles of telegraph and telephone lines, and many hundred thousand miles of wagon roads, and in conjunction with them elaborate postal systems, bringing the people of the colonies into close communication with each other and with the outside world, and thus proving extremely valuable agents in the material, mental, and moral advancement of the people of those colonies. But however valuable they may be they must have cost immense sums of money—hundreds of millions of dollars—for their construction, and many millions for their annual maintenance.

Where does this money come from? How is it obtained? Does the mother country furnish it? If not, do the capitalists of the mother country furnish it as capitalists in our own country are furnishing money for railway and telegraph construction? If not, is the cost divided between the mother country and the colony, or is it borne entirely by the colony?

These are practical questions which naturally arise in considering the enormous investments of capital and the enormous annual cost of these great engines of civilization which the successful colonizing countries establish, and which, under modern conditions, are absolutely essential to success in colonial development.

## THE COST IS BORNE BY THE COLONY.

To answer these questions in detail is more difficult than to ask them, because the conditions and circumstances under which these works have been accomplished vary so greatly. In general terms, however, it may be said that the mother country does not furnish the capital with which the improvements in the colonies are made. This answer could not be strictly applied in every case, since there have been occasional instances in which the Government of the colonizing country had advanced or appropriated sums of money for the construction of telegraphs and railways, and for the establishment of postal service. Necessarily in the initial period of the control of an absolutely new and unorganized country the mother country must advance certain sums, especially for the transportation of mails, the construction of the necessary telegraph wires to keep her representatives in touch with the home Government, and for such railway lines and river and harbor improvements as are necessary at least for military service. But once the country is sufficiently organized to enable the raising of funds through ordinary and accepted methods of taxation, the development of these agencies of civilization are paid for out of the revenues of the colony. In some cases the colonial government raises money by loans advanced by residents of the governing country, just as any other government raises money by the issue of its securities.

## COMMERCIAL COMPANIES.

In the earlier period of colonization the necessary improvements in the colony were made by commercial companies, so called, which were granted certain trade privileges which were of sufficient value to them to justify them in agreeing to make certain improvements, opening roads and facilities for communication, and thus bringing business into their own hands while they were improving the condition of the country and the people. These commercial companies, which were so successful a century ago, were gradually discontinued, but in recent years have been again brought into operation in a more restricted form and have figured prominently in the development of the newer colonies. This is especially true in Africa and in some of the undeveloped islands of the Orient. These companies, such as that in Rhodesia in Africa, others in the German colonies of east and west Africa, and still others in certain of the Pacific islands, are building roads, constructing railways and telegraph lines, and facilitating in every way intercommunication between the Europeans and the natives of the colony, and between the colony and the mother country.

When, however, the colony has reached such stage of organization and financial condition that funds can be raised through the ordinary methods of taxation, it may be said in general terms that the money required for the improvement of means of communication is obtained, either from private sources as railways are built in the United States, or by the levying of taxes within the colony, and not by taxes upon the people of the mother country.

## THE METHODS IN JAVA.

In the case of Java, the early development was made through a commercial company which was granted valuable monopolies of commerce together with the administration of the government, and it advanced a large proportion of the necessary funds for putting into operation the system which has afforded means of communication among the people of the island and between them and the outside



world. A large share of this expense, however, was quickly levied upon the people of the island through the *corvée*, or forced labor system, by which they were compelled to furnish the labor by which the roads were constructed, plantations developed, and production stimulated. When the community reached such a stage that it was practicable to raise money through the machinery of taxation, it not only bore all its own expenses, but turned large sums into the treasuries both of the commercial company and of the mother country; and while there have been years in which the Netherlands have been compelled to pay out of its own funds some of the current expenses of the colony and for the development of its machinery of intercommunication, the sums received from the colony have vastly exceeded those so appropriated.

#### IN THE FRENCH AND GERMAN COLONIES.

In French and German colonial management the rule which requires all expenditures of this kind to be borne by the colony has not been so strictly applied, and this is probably due to the fact that the colonial systems of those countries are of more recent organization, and that their colonies as a class are yet in the stages of early development. This applies to all of the German and many of the French colonies. The proportion of British colonies, however, which have sufficiently advanced to have developed a definite system of taxation for raising the necessary funds for all purposes is large, and it is only in the newer colonies of South Africa and some of the Pacific islands that funds for the development of the colony are obtained by any other process than that of taxation. Even in those cases where developments have been begun prior to the institution of methods of taxation the use of commercial companies has been of late resumed, and their success and satisfactory work have led to a commendation of this revival of the system under more restrictive rules than formerly by the best students of colonial matters to-day.

#### IN THE ENGLISH COLONIES.

This subject of the methods by which the funds necessary for the development of facilities for transportation and intercommunication are obtained is discussed in definite and concise form in a letter recently written by Mr. S. G. Hobson, editor of *The Hardwareman and Hardware Exporter*, of London, in response to a series of inquiries by the chief of the Bureau of Statistics regarding the experience of the British Government along these lines, as follows:

"In reply to your question concerning the relations of the mother country to the colonies:

"You ask:

"1. Whether the home Government expended any considerable sums of money in the earlier history of the colonies?

"2. Whether such expenditures, if made, have been refunded by the colonies?

"3. Whether the large sums which have been expended in permanent improvements, such as railways, telegraph lines, public highways, harbors, etc., have been supplied in part by the home Government; and if so, in about what proportion?

"4. Whether the troops in the colonies are supported by the home Government or by the revenues of the colonies themselves; and

"5. Whether the colonial system is generally looked upon by the people of the home Government as advantageous or otherwise?"

"In reply to the first question: No; the Government has not spent any considerable sum of money in the earlier history of the colonies, so that, secondly, there has been no return of initial outlay by the colonies. It is necessary here to carefully discriminate between colonial expenditure, pure and simple, and home Government expenditure for defense. Wherever public works have been of strategic value, either from a military or naval point of view, the home Government always expends a fair share. For example, the harbor of St. Lucie, in the West Indies, was recently put into condition at a cost of £75,000, to which the Government contributed £25,000; and in like manner many of the harbors throughout our colonies, and particularly in South Australian waters, have been partially subsidized by the home Government.

"But so far as colonization is concerned it has been a natural process, the home Government only taking cognizance of the colony when it has grown sufficiently to warrant self-government.

"Then, again, there are occasionally grants in aid in times of colonial distress. For example, the West Indian sugar plantations have proved unremunerative, a grant in aid is made to them, and it may or may not be repaid, but sometimes the colonies have been unable to meet their liability and the Government wipes out the debt.

"3. With regard to this question, no governmental money is expended on railways, telegraph lines, or public highways, excepting so far as they are covered in my answer to No. 1. But the Government will often meet the case by giving a guaranty. But if the Government guaranty be given in colonial projects of this description capital is always forthcoming, and there is hardly any case on record where the Government has been called upon to make good its guaranty. The only case in my memory is that of the Turkish bonds, but as a general rule it is perfectly accurate to assume that the Government guaranty always meets the financial difficulty. For example, there is an agitation in South Africa for a railway from Cape Colony to Cairo. Mr. Rhodes has been interviewing the home Government, asking not for capital, but for a guaranty. The Government will only guarantee the railway so far as it considers it of commercial value, and has given its guaranty for one section of this project. Mr. Rhodes will now have no difficulty in obtaining money from the nation, for it is covered by the guaranty.

"The troops in the colonies are paid directly by the home Government, but the leading colonies pay the Government a proportion. The amount, however, is proportionately very small and by no means regular; some colonies pay and some do not.

"Cape Colony has recently offered the home Government the price of a first-class battle ship. But the payments on the part of the colonies are entirely voluntary, the general principle being no taxation without representation. There is a movement here for imperial federation, and doubtless in the future this question will be put upon a proper foundation.

"In reply to question 5, the opinion here fluctuates as to the value or otherwise of colonial expansion. Roughly speaking, the average Britisher is ready to accept responsibility, but he is not particularly enthusiastic about it.

"The fact is, we are a colonizing nation, and among the well-to-do classes it is quite the usual thing for the younger sons to try the colonies for a few years. The law of primogeniture is partly responsible for this, while our industrial system is constantly throwing out large bodies of men who at once emigrate.

"Of course the emancipation of the slaves was a capital investment of £33,000,000, which the colonies have never repaid and never will."

## REVENUE COLLECTION IN INDIA.

"The rent from land constitutes the principal source of Indian revenue," says Sir George Chesney in his *Indian Polity*, "and its realization is the subject which principally engages the collector's attention. He is also the fiscal representative of the government for receiving all other descriptions of revenue levied from his district, acting as superintendent of excise and assessor of the income, license, or other personal taxes. Further, he is the government treasurer, as well as the banker for the different public departments, which keep their public moneys in his treasury and make all payments by means of checks on the collector. In addition to these specific duties he has charge of the local funds for public works and other purposes appertaining to the district.

"In his capacity of magistrate the same official is the general representative of the government within his district. With him rests the responsibility for peace and order being maintained, the superintendence of the police, and the management of the jail. It is to him that all classes of the people look for aid in times of disturbance, and by him would be initiated any proposals needful for cases of emergency, as well as, at all times, for the improvement of the well-being of the district. In addition to these general responsibilities, the Indian magistrate has extensive judicial as well as ordinary magisterial functions. As his name imports, his court is the tribunal for first investigation of all criminal cases; but only those involving a heavy punishment are committed to the court of session. The rest he finally disposes of himself, his powers extending to a sentence of two years' imprisonment and fine of 1,000 rupees."

## AN OFFICIAL STATEMENT REGARDING BRITISH METHODS OF DEVELOPMENT IN INDIA.

The following statement regarding the method by which the railways and other public works of India have been constructed was supplied by an officer of the British Government in response to a series of questions by the chief of the Bureau of Statistics:

"1. India's own taxation pays for all costs of her government, her development so far as public money is concerned, her army, her State-constructed railways,<sup>1</sup> and her irrigation. Her railways and her great irrigation works have been mostly constructed with money borrowed, partly by the Indian government, partly on guaranties or subsidies from that government. Indian taxation meets all charges for interest on and repayment of such loans. The British treasury has not given and does not as a rule give any direct contribution or help toward the cost of governing or developing India. During the past fifty years England has twice given contributions toward the cost of Indian army operations outside India. On the first occasion England gave £5,000,000 toward the cost of the second Afghan war (1879-80), and on the second occasion (1882-83) England gave £500,000 toward the expenses of the Indian contingent in the Egyptian campaign. For the rest, India pays and has paid all costs of her troops, British and native.

"2. India's revenues have greatly increased during the past fifty years; measured in rupees, these revenues have been trebled during that period, while her population has probably not increased more than 50 per cent. India's expenditure is also about treble as large as it was in 1850. India's yearly liabilities in England have during the half century increased four and one-half fold as measured in gold, and sevenfold as measured in rupees. These 'home charges' are for interest on loans, for army and other stores, for railway plant and material, for pensions to retired employees, and for the cost of the India office.

"But even with this greatly increased expenditure both in India and in England, it is by no means probable that the burdens on the people are actually heavier in proportion to their means than they were in or about 1850. India's greatest and most valuable asset is her land and her agriculture. During the fifty years the cultivated area of the several great provinces has increased from 20 to 200 per cent, and it has probably increased 60 per cent on the whole.<sup>2</sup> During the same period the average prices realized by the peasant farmers for their produce have risen from 60 to 80 per cent. The rise at the chief seaports has not been so great, but huge tracts, formerly landlocked, have been linked by railway to the seaports, prices have been more or less equalized over all India, and the average rise has been as stated. Now staples of agriculture and commerce, such as jute and tea, have been introduced and have become important. Old staples, such as oil seeds, have greatly extended in response to export demands.

"In illustration of the rise in agricultural values, it may be mentioned that in one province, the Punjab, the registered sales of land show that during the past thirty-seven years the average selling price of land had risen from 7 rupees to 65 rupees per acre, and from nine to sixty-two times the amount of land revenue assessed thereon.

"By the expenditure on irrigation works, both from borrowed money and capital, the area of irrigated land has been greatly increased.<sup>3</sup> The average yield of irrigated land is generally more than twice the value of the yield when the land is unirrigated. Over large areas of rainless country the land can yield no crops whatever without irrigation. The water rent paid by the peasants for canal water, and gladly paid, more than covers the cost of maintaining the canals and paying interest on their capital cost.

"Some industries have waned during the past fifty years, such as the cottage weaving industry and the village iron industry. The products of cottage looms and of rural furnaces have been beaten by machine-made fabrics and imported iron. But on the other hand, a great industry has sprung up in factories for spinning and weaving cotton and jute. Fifty years ago India produced hardly any coal, now she produces seven-eighths of the coal she consumes, and exports a good deal besides.

"Fifty years ago India had no railways, now she has 23,000 miles of open line. During the last three years she has opened on an average 925 miles annually. Her railways earned 275,000,000 rupees<sup>4</sup> last year, and yielded net earnings of 150,000,000, or at the rate of 5.37 per cent upon the capital expended. It is true that mainly owing to the obligation to pay a large amount of guaranteed interest on railway stock in gold, there is, as the result of the railway account, a net annual charge to the Indian treasury of 10,600,000 rupees on the average of the last three years. But it is obvious that the construction of the railways of India must have added enormously to the resources of the population.

"In 1858 India's external trade (export and import) with other countries was valued at 400,000,000 rupees; last year it was worth 2,095,000,000 rupees. India's coasting trade and internal traffic have increased in even greater proportion. This increased traffic certainly has enhanced the power of the people to bear the fiscal burdens lying upon them.

"When it is said that India's revenues have been trebled, rising from 334,000,000 rupees in 1856 to 1,015,000,000 in 1899, it must be recollected that 292,000,000 accrued from services (railways, canals, telegraphs, post-offices) which were neither given nor paid for in the earlier year.

<sup>1</sup> A large proportion of her railway system has been constructed by companies with or without a government guaranty.

<sup>2</sup> All articles of consumption are not, however, dearer. Cotton goods worn by the people are much cheaper. Salt, though subject to taxation, is over the greater part of India very much cheaper than it was forty years ago.

<sup>3</sup> The irrigated area has probably more than doubled, but the precise figures for the earlier year can not be given for all provinces.

<sup>4</sup> The rupee may be taken to be worth one-fifteenth of £1. A million rupees is therefore about equal to £66,000.

"Among the arrangements which enable the Indian people to bear their burdens, the famine relief organization is not the least important. Nothing of the kind was attempted fifty years ago. Now 15,000,000 rupees are paid by the people of India every year as an assurance to provide against the cost of relieving distress and saving life during famine. The periodically recurring famines are met by an elaborately organized system of relief; and in consequence of that relief, the people and the country recovered themselves in 1898 with marvelous rapidity.

"Now, as always in the past, the great majority of the natives of India live poorly and on small means. But it is believed that, notwithstanding the increase of population, the standard of comfort among the people is higher than it was fifty years ago. The people certainly consume a much larger quantity of imported goods; they absorb a larger yearly importation of precious metals; they trade much more, and they travel much more; more of them are educated; and the country yields much more, and more valuable produce than it did fifty years ago.

"It is not possible to prove the position mathematically, but it would seem that good reasons have been shown for the belief that the fiscal burdens on India for the bulk of the population are lighter rather than heavier than they were fifty years ago, due regard being had (1) to the people's power to bear them, and (2) to the benefits which they receive from the State."

(1) The main arterial railways passing on their way across India through native States have been constructed, like the railways in British India, either by companies whose capital is guaranteed by the Indian treasury or directly at the cost of that treasury. But native States have been encouraged to make at their own expense, and have so made branch lines either to their capitals or to other parts of their dominions. As specimens of these branch lines may be mentioned the Gwalior Railway, the Hyderabad Railway, the lines in Jodhpore, and the lines in Kathiawar. In one or two cases these native State lines have been constructed by companies on guaranties from the native State treasuries.

The British Government of India reserves control and supervision over native State railways, as it does over guaranteed companies' lines, and the tariff of rates and the arrangements are much the same as on adjacent lines in British territory. In some few cases, where native State lines have been very cheaply constructed, rates run a little lower than on ordinary British lines.

(2) Imported salt, imported liquors, and other imported goods passing into native States have paid the British import duties at the seaports. No refund is granted on the goods passing into native States, and no duties<sup>1</sup> whatever are levied on goods passing from native States into British territory. Native States used to levy transit duties very freely on goods passing their frontiers in either direction, but for many years the British Government has spared no effort to free the internal trade of India from trammels of this kind, and for the most part transit or other internal duties on traffic within India have ceased, save on such articles as are described in the marginal note above. In some parts of India, British and native, cities and towns raise most of their municipal revenue by octroi duties. But constant effort is devoted to preventing these octroi taxes from operating as transit duties on trade.

#### STATEMENT BY AN OFFICIAL IN INDIA.

On this same subject a distinguished officer of the British Government in India, in a letter addressed to the chief of the Bureau of Statistics, replying to certain questions propounded by him regarding the methods by which the cost of railway construction and other improvements in India are borne, says:

"The whole cost of Indian administration and of public works and improvements is borne exclusively by the Indian taxpayer. Every rupee spent in British India, including the cost of the British army in India and His Majesty's vessels in Indian waters, and every shilling spent in England on account of India (including military and civil charges there and the cost of the India office), is raised from the revenues of India.

"No guaranteed loans, in the ordinary sense of the term, have at any time been raised for railways or other public works. When a railway line is undertaken by a company under a guaranty from the government, the phrase means that the government of India guarantee to shareholders the payment from Indian revenues of a minimum dividend on the capital expenditure on the line.

"The loans raised by the government, a large part of them having been spent in railways and other improvements, are not guaranteed by His Majesty's Government (that is, by the British taxpayer). The public debt of India consists of a sterling (gold) debt raised in London and a rupee (silver) debt raised in India. The interest in both cases is paid from Indian revenues, and they are the sole security for the loans."

#### INDIA'S RAILWAY AND CANAL SYSTEM.

The details of the method by which the vast sums necessary for the construction of the Indian railway system (chiefly owned by the Indian Government) have been raised are given in the India Office List, a semiofficial publication for the year 1901, as follows:

"The three systems on which railways have been constructed and worked in India are the guaranteed, the State, and the assisted, though each of these again admits of subdivision. The original great trunk lines of India are due to the guaranteed companies. The contract between them and the government was as follows: The government gave the land required, free of charge; it also guaranteed interest generally at the rate of 5 per cent on the share capital raised with its consent, and a lower rate upon debenture capital. A general supervision of the working of the railway was also retained, and stores and troops were to be carried on favorable terms. If the net profits in any half year fell below the amount of guaranteed interest the government made up the deficiency. If they exceeded this amount the surplus was equally divided between the government and the company. Moreover, the government had the right of buying the undertaking at specified dates on payment of the value of the stock calculated at its market price on the average of the three preceding years. In this way the East Indian Railway was acquired in 1880, the Eastern Bengal Railway in 1884, the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Company's lines in 1885-86, the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway at the end of 1888, and the South Indian Railway in 1890. In 1870 a new policy of railway development by the direct agency of the State was inaugurated, but in 1880-81 a return was made to the system of encouraging private enterprise by State assistance. Both agencies are now employed side by side. The experience gained of the working of the old guaranty system has, however, suggested various modifications in the relations between the State and the companies which have more recently been formed for the construction and working of railways, and the nature of the assistance granted now varies considerably. In some instances, of which the Bengal and Northwestern Railway is the most important, lines have been constructed

<sup>1</sup> Alcoholic liquors, opium, salt, and one or two other articles on which specially high taxation is levied are the only exceptions to this rule.

without any direct pecuniary assistance; in others a subsidy or limited guaranty has been granted. The agency of private companies has also been employed by the government, both in the construction and working of State lines. In all cases the government has the power of taking over the railway at specified periods on stated terms.

"On December 31, 1899, there were 23,225 miles of open railway in India, of which 1,410 miles were opened during the previous twelve months; 3,414 miles more were under construction or sanctioned for commencement. The chief extensions of the year were on the Bengal-Nagpur, Northwestern, Tapti Valley, Bengal and Northwestern, Godavari Valley, and Gwalior lines. The total capital outlay on railways, up to the end of the year 1899, was £190,684,647, and the cost of the open lines averaged about £8,290 per mile. The gross earnings of all lines for the year 1899 were £19,364,012, or £1,070,563 more than in the previous year; working expenses came to rather less than 48 per cent of the gross earnings; and the net revenue yielded 5.32 per cent as against 5.37 per cent in the previous year on the capital expenditure on the open lines.

"The general results of the working of the various classes of Indian railways up to December 31, 1899, are given in the following table:

CLASS.	Length of line open on December 31, 1899.	Total capital outlay on open lines to December 31, 1899, including steamboat service and suspense.	Total number of passengers carried.	Total weight of goods carried.	Gross earnings, including steamboat service.	Working expenses, including steamboat service.	Net earnings, including steamboat service.
	Miles.	£	Number.	Tons.	£	£	£
State lines worked by companies.....	11,124	85,615,813	70,981,363	20,609,920	9,422,584	4,075,754	5,346,830
State lines worked by the state.....	5,707	55,818,033	88,192,498	9,942,411	4,453,255	2,385,703	2,117,552
Lines worked by guaranteed companies.....	2,592	84,652,616	87,769,551	5,748,501	4,218,158	2,206,333	2,011,825
Assisted companies.....	1,349	6,883,260	6,764,079	1,079,663	464,088	239,223	224,875
Lines owned by native states and worked by companies.....	1,203	6,863,935	3,919,390	1,583,826	435,493	188,243	247,160
Lines owned by native states and worked by State Railway Agency.....	167	681,518	1,094,856	172,376	47,628	25,651	156,647
Lines owned and worked by native states.....	1,092	2,469,467	3,235,625	714,769	322,896	154,982	167,914
Total.....	23,225	190,684,647	161,967,197	39,251,456	19,364,012	9,225,879	10,138,133
Total for 1898.....	21,815	178,898,605	152,285,760	36,297,989	18,293,449	8,686,708	9,606,741

#### THE NECESSITY FOR PUBLIC WORKS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF COLONIES.

"Among the works which young colonies must undertake and complete quickly the most important," says M. de Lanessan, "are the construction of highways and railways. The ways of communication are the most effective means for pacifying and maintaining order in the country; without these convenient means the economic transportation of raw materials, fertilizers, products of agriculture and industry would be impossible and colonization could not go on.

"If at the beginning of our protectorate over Madagascar, we had taken the trouble to construct roads, the utility of which was recognized by all the world, and later on we had built railways over these roads, the military expedition of 1895 might have been avoided; we should have economized more than a hundred millions and the lives of five or six thousand men, and it is probable that we should never have had any need of keeping in the country the six or seven thousand soldiers whose number is no more regarded sufficient and who cost us more than fifteen millions per year.

#### INDISPENSABLE FOR DEVELOPMENT.

"It goes without saying that ways of communication are no less indispensable for the development of colonization itself. How could a colonist start an agricultural or industrial undertaking in a country where there are no means of transporting the materials necessary for his buildings, his outfit, the raw material to be worked, or the products of his field or factory? This, however, is the exact state in which all our establishments of Indo-China, the western coast of Africa, of Madagascar, etc., find themselves. Aside from the railway between Dakar and St. Louis (150 kilometers) and that between Kayes and Bafoulabé (100 kilometers) we have not constructed a single railway in our immense domain on the eastern coast of Africa. As regards roads, they are almost unknown anywhere. In all Indo-China there are 50 kilometers of narrow-gauge railway between Saigon and Mytho, in Cochin China, and 105 kilometers of 60-centimeters gauge between Phu-Lang-Thuong and Langson, in Tonkin, and this in a country which extends along the China Sea, or over 2,000 kilometers in length, measuring from 200 to 400 kilometers in width. In Guiana no roads or railways are to be found, and it is as hard to traverse the country now as it was one hundred years ago. Our old West Indian colonies possess not a single kilometer of railway. In Réunion, about ten years ago, a railway about 60 kilometers in length was constructed, but we ceased building, as if worn-out by this effort. Tunisia had to wait more than ten years for the building of its first railway. At present it has but a few trunk lines. Even Algeria, notwithstanding its twenty-five millions of guaranteed interests which the mother country pays annually for its railways, is far from having all the railways which would be useful in giving value to its different parts.

#### THE BRITISH COVER THEIR COLONIES WITH RAILWAYS.

"While we thus show the most extreme negligence in creating the most indispensable economic instruments of colonization, the English meanwhile cover their colonies with railways. In the extreme Orient they connect by rail India and Afghanistan on the one hand and Burma with China on the other hand. In Australia they push the railways from all parts right into the desert. In Africa they have already constructed in the south more than 2,000 kilometers of railroads which, parting from the Cape, move toward the center of the Dark Continent to meet the Egyptian railways, which, coming down from the north in a southerly direction, measure already about 3,000 kilometers in length. Simultaneously they have begun the construction of a railway which is to connect in Ouganda the western coast of Africa with the region of the great lakes of Victoria and Albert Nyanza, and they announce the building of another road, which, parting from Sierra Leone (Freetown) toward the western coast, would precede the former, etc.

"All these railways are to center at the coast of the great lakes and will place the greater part of the commerce of Africa in the hands of Great Britain even before we shall have traced those lines which we ought to have by this time in the basins of the Senegal, Niger, Gabon, Kongo, etc.

## FRENCH CAPITAL AND THE COLONIES.

"The British Government, by such immense work as outlined above and through the revenues which the capital employed in the undertaking of these works assures to its citizens, interests the English people in the colonies, whereas the French Government shows utter lack of interest in its transoceanic colonies which have become the vantage ground for the officials and the military establishment only.

## DEVELOPMENT AND DIVERSIFICATION OF AGRICULTURE.

The development of agriculture follows immediately and imperatively the development of intercommunication. This is especially important in the development of colonial territory within the Tropics, where soil and climate are very productive, and labor, intelligently applied, produces greater proportionate results than elsewhere.

## AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS OF THE TROPICS REQUIRED IN THE TEMPERATE ZONE.

The fact that each year makes the great manufacturing regions of the temperate zone more and more dependent upon tropical territory for raw materials for manufacture, and for certain lines of foodstuffs, adds to the importance of intelligent agricultural development of the territory which is now attracting most attention from colonizing countries—the Tropics. The importation of tropical and subtropical products into the United States alone, including in the list raw silk, dyestuffs, and many classes of chemicals, now amounts to about \$350,000,000 annually, and similar conditions exist in the other manufacturing and consuming countries of the world. The importance, therefore, of developing and encouraging the production of these agricultural and other natural products is apparent. On the other hand, certain important articles formerly exclusively of tropical origin are now being produced in great quantities in the temperate zone, notably sugar, and thus the former profits of agriculture in the Tropics greatly reduced. This fact increases the importance of a diversification of natural products and intelligent attention to agricultural development in tropical colonial territory.

## DIVERSIFICATION OF PRODUCTS IN THE TROPICS.

In this, as in other matters of this character, it is interesting and instructive to note what has been accomplished in these lines by the various colonizing countries. Of these, England and the Netherlands have been the most active, though in recent years France, Germany, and Belgium have taken steps looking to the development of agricultural industries in the territories governed by them. In the English colonies, the decadence of profitable sugar production in the West Indies, consequent upon the abolition of slavery and the development of beet sugar production in the temperate zone, has led to a very thorough examination of the question of the steps necessary for the protection and improvement of agriculture in those colonies. A commission was appointed by the British Government in 1896 which visited the West India islands and thoroughly studied the subject, taking testimony, listening to the suggestions of all classes of the population, and publishing the results in a large volume of nearly one thousand pages. The commission which authorized this study recited that "Whereas representations have been made by the governors and legislative bodies, and by inhabitants of those of our West India colonies in which the cultivation and production of sugar forms the chief industry, that the sugar industry in those colonies is in a state of extreme depression and can no longer be carried on except at a loss; and whereas it is expedient that full and authentic information should be obtained as to the facts and causes of the alleged depression, we do hereby constitute and appoint you to be our commissioners to make full and diligent inquiry into the condition and prospects of certain of our colonies in the West Indies in which sugar is produced." The result of that inquiry was a recommendation for the diversification of products and for definite and intelligent action by the home Government for the purpose of encouraging such diversification. These recommendations included the encouragement of individual ownership of land in small holdings by the natives, the establishment of central sugar factories, and of botanical stations by which the soil, climate, and conditions in each island could be studied and the intelligent introduction of plants best suited to those conditions encouraged. In several of the West India islands botanical stations have been established, which, in connection with the great Kew Botanical Gardens at London, and under the general direction of the superintendent of those gardens, now make a constant and intelligent study of conditions in those islands, and through cooperation with the natives have already greatly diversified production and laid the foundation for future prosperity. Some of these botanical stations, however, were in existence prior to the visit of the commission to these islands, and it was largely by reason of the benefits which their work had already proven to the agriculture of that island that the recommendations of the commission in favor of the enlargement of this work were made.

## BENEFIT OF SYSTEMATIC STUDY OF PRODUCTIVE POWERS OF THE COLONY.

Examples of the benefits to the colony and to the world at large of this systematic study by the home Government of agricultural possibilities in the colonies and the encouragement of new industries are found in other colonies, especially the history of tea cultivation and production in India and Ceylon and of quinine in India and Java.

## TEA CULTURE IN THE COLONIES AND ITS EFFECT ON SUPPLY AND PRICES.

The cultivation of tea in Java was encouraged by the British Government about the middle of the nineteenth century, and India and Ceylon now rank among the most important tea-producing countries of the world. The development of this industry is illustrated by the fact that India and Ceylon in 1865 supplied but 3.2 per cent of the tea consumed in the United Kingdom, as against 92.2 per cent in 1900. The tea exports of India and Ceylon aggregated in 1899 about \$50,000,000 in value. An indication of the growth in tea production in those countries is also shown in the fact that from India the tea exports have increased from 13,232,232 pounds in 1871 to 175,038,127 pounds in 1900; and from Ceylon they have advanced from 1,802 pounds in 1871 to 129,681,000 pounds in 1899. The tea exportation of the world has increased from 367,000,000 pounds in 1884 to about 555,000,000 pounds in 1899, and that of India and Ceylon from 63,000,000 to 290,000,000 pounds in the same time. Thus the percentage of the world's tea exportation supplied by India and Ceylon has increased from 17 per cent in 1884 to 52 per cent in 1899. Meantime great reductions in prices of tea have occurred, doubtless due not only to the great increase in production in India and Ceylon, but also to the introduction of machinery in curing and handling, by which the cost of production is greatly reduced.

## QUININE CULTURE AND ITS EFFECT ON SUPPLY AND PRICES.

The great reduction in the price of quinine, which has occurred in the knowledge of the present generation despite the enormous increase in its use, is chiefly due to the intelligent development of its production in the colonies under the direction of their respective home Governments. Formerly the cinchona bark from which quinine is produced was obtained only from the dense forests of New Granada (now Colombia), Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia, and could only be obtained by great toil and hardship, as the trees grew isolated or in small clumps, which had to be searched out by the Indian cascarilleros, and the bark after being thus obtained was transported by the most primitive methods. The enormous demand for the product of the cinchona bark led, about the middle of the last century, to experiments in the cultivation of the tree in Java and India. In 1854 the Dutch Government seriously undertook the task of introducing cinchona trees into the island of Java, and the experiment proved so successful that cinchona culture has become a very important and prosperous industry in that colony. A few years later the Indian government sent Mr. Clements R. Markham to South America to obtain young trees and convey them to India for experimental purposes. The enterprise proved immediately successful, and, according to Sir W. W. Hunter, in his *Indian Empire*, 1892, "has proved remunerative from a pecuniary point of view. A cheap febrifuge has been provided for the fever-stricken population of the Indian sufferers, while the surplus bark sold in Europe repays the interest on the capital expended. The headquarters of cinchona cultivation in southern India are on the Nilgiri hills, where the government owns four plantations from which seeds and plants are annually distributed to the public in large quantities, and there are already several private plantations rivaling the government's estates in area, and are understood to be very valuable properties. A "quinologist" department is maintained, and quinine is being manufactured under its superintendence. The total area under cinchona in government and private plantations in India in 1891 was 13,407 acres in the Madras Presidency, while the success of the government plantation in Bengal rivals that of the original plantation on the Nilgiri. In 1891 four plantations on the Nilgiri hills contained 1,762,000 cinchona trees, and the total output of bark was 133,351 pounds. The government plantations in Darjiling contain 4,155,861 cinchona trees, which yield 913,972 pounds of bark, and the revenue derived from the sale of quinine, cinchona, febrifuge, and bark showed a large profit over the expense of the year's working of 17,000,000 rupees. The object of starting the cinchona plantations was not to aim at a profit, but to secure for the people a cheap remedy for fever, the most common of all tropical diseases. The quinine manufactured at the government factory can now be sold at 1 rupee per ounce, while quinine cost a good many rupees per ounce twenty-nine years ago, when the cinchona enterprise was initiated by the governor of Bengal. Hardly any greater blessing to a fever-stricken community can be imagined than cheap quinine. During the years in which cinchona febrifuge was issued the saving by its use in the place of imported quinine has been immense, and quinine and cinchona bark are now becoming an important staple of export trade." The cultivation of cinchona has also been introduced in Ceylon, and proved equally successful. A recent report on Java published by the British Government says that the success in cinchona culture in Java has been very strongly marked, so much so that the Indian government recently sent its director of cinchona plantations to Java to study the cinchona cultivation for the benefit of that industry in India. The growth of this industry in Java is illustrated by the fact that the exportation of cinchona bark from Java to Amsterdam has increased from 7,342,000 pounds in 1893 to 11,221,000 pounds in 1899.

## OTHER SUCCESSFUL EXPERIMENTS IN TROPICAL COLONIAL PRODUCTS.

Other experiments in the diversification of industries and the introduction for cultivation in the tropical colonies of valuable trees and plants, upon the natural productions of which the world has formerly relied, are being steadily and intelligently pursued. The French have introduced jute and manila hemp into Indo-China, the Dutch and English Governments have encouraged the introduction of rubber trees of the best varieties in their various East Indian possessions, the Germans have established botanical and agricultural stations in their several African colonies, the Belgians have established coffee and rubber plantations in the Kongo Free State, and the great botanical gardens of the British and Dutch—the one at London, with numerous branches in the colonies, and the other in Java—attest the intelligent interest which those experienced Governments are manifesting in the diversification and increase of the natural products of their colonies. By way of illustration it may be said that rubber trees of the best quality known in South America, from which the highest grade rubber is now obtained, are being introduced for systematic cultivation in Java, Borneo, the Malayan Peninsula, and other parts of the East Indies, and that experiments in this line are also being encouraged by the Germans and Belgians in Africa. The Belgian Government, in its direction of the Kongo Free State, now requires that a certain number of rubber trees be planted for each tree destroyed, with the purpose of thus assuring the maintenance of the supply in that region. The Kew Gardens, at London, serve as an advanced horticultural school, at which men are trained for intelligent work in the colonies. "Some sixty men, trained at Kew," says the British Colonial Office List of 1901, "are now in official employ in different parts of the Empire. Relations with the botanical institutions are maintained by semiofficial correspondence. With those of colonies more directly under control of the colonial office the communication is closer."

## TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR COLONIAL AGRICULTURE.

British colonial botanical institutions fall roughly into three classes: Those of the first class are usually administered by a scientific director; those of the second class by a skilled superintendent, while the third class consists of botanical stations. These last are small and inexpensive gardens, devised in 1855, in order to afford practical instruction in the cultivation of tropical crops, and were intended to develop the agricultural resources, first of the smaller West Indian Islands, and subsequently of British possessions in tropical Africa. Each is in charge of a secretary, who is a gardener trained at Kew. In 1898, in accordance with the recommendation of the West Indian Royal Commission above referred to, a special department of agriculture, supported by imperial funds, was created for the West Indies, and placed in charge of a commissioner, Dr. D. Morris, C. M. G., with headquarters at Barbados. He is consulting officer to the governors at Jamaica, British Guiana, and Trinidad, and in charge of the botanical gardens or stations for sugar-cane experiments, agricultural schools, and local experiment plots at Tobago, Grenada, St. Vincent, St. Lucia, Barbados, Dominica, Montserrat, Antigua, St. Kitts, and the Virgin Islands. The total appropriation by the British Government in support of the department in 1901-2 is £17,420.

The work of these agricultural and experiment stations in the West Indies is illustrated by some statements made before the royal commission which visited the West Indies in 1898, as above indicated. Mr. W. Fawcett, director of the Jamaica public gardens and plantations, in his testimony before that commission, said:

"The object of maintaining a garden in a colony like Jamaica is for the introduction of new plants, to give information about plants generally to the planters and people of all sorts, and to do what we can in the way of training men and boys in agricultural



pursuits. We have in our work men who have been trained at Kew, practical gardeners, and after some time, with the experience they get in the Tropics, they can instruct the people all over the country. We have just sent the superintendent who was in charge of a part of our gardens to take charge of the botanical station in British Honduras. A short time before we sent the headman, a black man who had been at work in the gardens for a period of twenty-four years, to work in the west coast of Africa, to take charge of the labor in the gardens there under a Kewman. We have also trained two apprentices who were sent by the Government to Lagos for two or three years. A former superintendent here is now in charge of the botanical gardens in Ceylon, and his successor is now in charge of the gardens at Trinidad, while still another is superintendent in Demerara. We have an industrial school to which the waifs and strays and orphans committed by the resident magistrates receive instruction in agriculture in the gardens. All the boys under 12 years of age get a half-hour lecture in the garden daily, have three hours' work in the school and work about the grounds adjoining the school, while those above 12 get two hours in the school and the rest of the time in the gardens. They take a great deal of interest in the lectures, and it is their ambition to go to the higher grades. Part of the work of the gardens is the distribution of plants and trees of various kinds. There were formerly scarcely any nutmeg trees in Jamaica, but we have distributed between 50,000 and 100,000 plants. We started the orange gardens about a year and a half ago, and in one year's time distributed 16,000 plants. We have received and distributed Liberian coffee plants, and have recently received from Kew a still better coffee, which is to be distributed in the form of plants. We are distributing cocoa plants, and greatly improving the grade of production by sending an instructor through the various parishes where there are cocoa lands, and showing the people how to plant and cultivate them. We are also importing tobacco seeds from Habana, and although the tobacco soon degenerates here, if we get fresh seeds every year from Habana it will probably keep up the reputation of the Jamaica tobacco, which is already very good."

#### SMALL HOLDINGS OF LAND AND DIVERSIFIED INDUSTRIES RECOMMENDED FOR THE WEST INDIES ESPECIALLY.

Sir Charles Dilke, in his *Problems of Greater Britain*, 1890, in which discussing conditions in the colonies following several visits to them, takes a decidedly hopeful view of the conditions and prospects in the West Indies, and expresses the belief that the subdivision of the land into small individual holdings for the colored citizens, and coupled with this an enlargement of the powers of self-government, would prove advantageous. He especially calls attention to the diversification of industries which has already begun, and which he says is due in part to the fall in price of sugar and in part to the subdivision of the formerly large estates and their lease or sale to the negro inhabitants. "Although sugar production still constitutes the staple product of several of the British West Indian colonies," he says, "it no longer occupies the position of universal predominance. Cacao competes with sugar in Trinidad, while in Grenada it takes a foremost place; Jamaica and Dominica possess vast resources as yet almost wholly undeveloped, and while coffee cultivation may be extended, there is a possible future in many of the islands for tobacco and tea. As tea has partly replaced coffee in Ceylon, and fiber is making the prosperity of the Bahamas, so in the West Indies a transformation of estates as regards their produce is now in progress. Oranges, bananas, and other fruits, mostly sent to the United States, form the chief articles of export from Jamaica. The rapid increase in the growth of fruit production has been partly caused by the depression of the sugar industry, and in part also the result of the division of property among negro peasant owners, to whom fruit growing presents no difficulties. The fruit trade of Jamaica has given an immense impetus to the prosperity of the small landowners of that colony. The very natural land hunger of the sons of the emancipated slaves has led to the rise of a class of small proprietors whose existence seems likely to become in the British islands, as it is already in the French, the dominant factor of the West Indian problem. The white population of the island, both British and French, is on the decline; the black and colored population is increasing. Sir George Baden-Powell and Sir William Crossman, in the report of the royal commission, estimate that thirty days' labor on an acre of good land in Jamaica will, in addition to providing a family with food for the year, yield a surplus saleable in the market for from £10 to £30. It is no wonder that under such conditions the small holders who own their land and till it by their exertions should thrive, where great proprietors, who have to make use of hired labor, too often fail. It is chiefly to the success of the small holders that must be attributed the remarkable increase in revenues of the West Indian colonies during the last half century, in spite of the losses which the planters have incurred. It has been computed that while the revenue of the slave colonies at the time of emancipation amounted to less than £450,000, it had in 1887 risen to £2,000,000, or more than four times as much as in the days of slavery. The revenue is raised mainly by means of import duties, the burden of which falls upon the masses of the negro people, and were it not for an immense improvement in their condition, consequent upon the firm hold which they have acquired of the land, no such increase would have been possible."

Mr. Hugh Edward Egerton, in his *History of British Colonial Policy*, 1897, commenting upon conditions in the West Indies, says: "To a great extent the burden of the West Indies is not want of development, but overdevelopment in a particular direction. Never, certainly, has the situation of the West Indian sugar grower appeared so serious, since it is now doubtful whether under the most favored conditions of economic production the West Indian grower can hold his own, confronted as he is by hostile European bounties and a public taste which prefers a more attractive looking though less good article. It would seem as though, if the West Indies are ever to prosper, new products and industries will have to supersede over large areas the sugar cultivation which was largely the outcome of negro slavery."

#### EXPERT TESTIMONY FROM THE BRITISH WEST INDIES.

A paper read before the Royal Colonial Institute, London, April 14, 1891, by Dr. D. Morris, director of experimental stations in the British West Indies, has the following:

The production of sugar can by no means occupy all the available lands suitable for cultivation in the West Indies. It is well that it is so. What is wanted is a diversified system of cultural industries, so that there may be no collapse of prosperity as at present on account of fluctuation in the price of any single article. The physical configuration of the West India Islands, where there are all gradations from plains to slopes and mountain sides, point to this conclusion. We can not do better, therefore, than take these as they are, and endeavor to cultivate them in such a skillful and suitable manner as to render them a source of wealth and prosperity to the community.

#### MANY SOURCES OF WEALTH OPEN TO THE NATIVE.

On lands not already occupied with sugar, and where sugar growing does not prove remunerative, there are numerous industries that might be successfully established. What has been accomplished in this respect at Jamaica and other West Indian Islands is a sufficient proof that a system of diversified industries is in the long run the best and most lasting. Besides sugar, then, we should endeavor to

select a number of industries well suited to the soil and climate. Of these none are perhaps more promising at present than coffee. There are two sorts of coffee—the Liberian coffee, for warm, humid valleys, and the Arabian coffee, for hilly slopes up to 2,000 or 3,000 feet. The mountains of Dominica could grow as fine a coffee as any in the world. While people are investigating remote parts of the world for suitable coffee lands, here within easy reach of us are some of the finest coffee lands to be found in any part of the Tropics. At least from 5,000 to 10,000 acres could be established with coffee in this one island. There are, besides, the highlands of Montserrat, of St. Kitts-Nevis, and the hills of Tortola and Virgin Gorda. Cacao is easy of culture, and thrives in the rich soil of humid valleys. These are to be had in Dominica in abundance, and they are not wanting also in Montserrat and St. Kitts. Spices, such as nutmeg and mace, vanilla, black pepper, cubeb pepper, long pepper, cloves, ginger, cinnamon, cardamoms, are already introduced to this part of the world. The demand for spices is increasing, and these islands could grow every one of those mentioned if only the people would give their attention to them and treat them according to their special requirements. A great factor in the future development of these islands is the growing of fruit. They are geographically the Channel Islands of the northern continent, and their manifest destiny is to grow such special products and such fruits and vegetables as the more temperate countries are unable to produce for themselves. Bananas are in great demand in the United States and Canada. The production of these is already large, but evidently the trade is only in its infancy. Jamaica alone exports nearly a quarter of a million sterling worth of bananas every year, but the northern people want more and more. Bananas yield a crop in a year or so. The bunches sell for about £7 to £10 per hundred, for which ready money is paid. The planter can thus clear £15 to £20 per acre for his fruit, while under the shade of the banana plants he is establishing his land with cacao, coffee, spices, or other permanent subjects. Besides bananas there are many fruits in great demand, such as oranges, pineapples, shaddock, forbidden fruit, sapodilla, mango, avocado pear, granadilla, watermelon, tamarind, guava, cocoanut, star apple, papaw, sweet sop, sour sop, sugar apple, mamme apple, Barbados cherry, lime, lemon, grapes, figs, cashew nut, ground nut, loquat, Malay apple, rose apple, pomegranate, almond, genip, damson plum, balata, breadfruit, date, mangosteen, and durian. All these and many more are found in these islands—are found, indeed, in the small island of Dominica, but some are at present practically unknown to northern people. Then besides fruits there are abundant supplies of vegetables, which could be shipped to reach northern markets in the depth of winter and realize good prices. The finest green peas, the best new potatoes, the most luscious tomatoes are obtainable here a fortnight before Christmas, and the supply is limited only by the means at hand for disposing of them and getting them quickly and freshly into the proper market.

The cultivation of the West Indian lime has already been discussed. This is essentially an industry of these islands, and it deserves to be fostered as one of the many elements conducive to their future prosperity.

Of fibers suited for cordage and weaving purposes there are at least a score or two that could be easily grown. I need only give a brief enumeration of them. Sisal hemp (*Agave*) is now being largely taken up in the neighboring Bahamas. If more land is required to grow this fiber there are thousands of acres in Anguilla and the Virgin Islands exactly suited to its requirements. This might be had at possibly one-third or one-half the present price of the Bahamas' lands. Mauritius hemp (*Furcraea*) could be grown at Anguilla and elsewhere, and there are cheap machines manufactured in Mauritius that will clean it. Bowstring hemp plants of a special kind are found growing wild in parts of Antigua. The fiber is excellent, and as it is suitable for weaving purposes the demand for it is not likely to be influenced in any way by the production, however large, of sisal or Mauritius hems. There is Egyptian cotton and ordinary cotton to be tried at Antigua, St. Kitts, and Anguilla; tobacco at St. Kitts, where long ago it was a staple industry; cocoanuts for fresh nuts, for oil, for fiber, and for cocoanut butter in all islands possessing sandy beaches. And besides these there are industries in arrowroot, in cola nut, in fruit syrups, in preserved and dried fruits, in silk raising, in resins, gums, india rubber, scent plants, and numerous medicinal plants. A promising new industry for the West Indies is that of gambier. This, as already mentioned, is an extract from the leaves of a plant (*Uncaria gambier*), and since the people of the United States have taken to using it for tanning purposes the price has gone up considerably. Plants of gambier were forwarded from Kew to the West Indies last November. They arrived there safely, and are now in course of being propagated for general distribution.

#### THE DUTY OF THE COLONIAL GOVERNMENT IS TO AID DIVERSIFIED INDUSTRIES.

This is a sketch only of what may be done in these islands. What is necessary is to select some half a dozen of the most promising industries and prosecute them with energy and enterprise. A few years ago there were only two botanical establishments in the West Indies; now there are eleven. The new additions consist of a series of botanical stations, which may be described as botanical institutions of a simple and unassuming character, whose functions are useful rather than ornamental. They are specially charged with the work of growing and distributing economic plants and giving practical information respecting their growth and treatment. This information is put forth in the form of bulletins, which are widely and regularly disseminated among the people. The curators also, by precept and example, diffuse a thorough knowledge of horticultural methods as applied to tropical plants. This scheme of botanical stations has been assiduously fostered at Kew for many years, and it was in connection with the final organization of it I was invited to visit the West Indies during the winter. There are botanical stations in the Leeward Islands at Dominica, Montserrat, Antigua, and St. Kitts-Nevis. Already there are thousands of valuable economic plants ready for distribution at these stations, and the men in charge (mostly trained at Kew) are capable of giving information and assistance respecting the special industries suited to each island.

#### NATIVE LABOR IS SUFFICIENT IF PROPERLY ENCOURAGED.

As regards labor, I am satisfied that there is enough already in the islands to start many new industries. It can, I believe, be shown that the labor is in excess of the demand, or at least in excess of the capital, when, as in Dominica, the value of the yearly exports falls so low as £1.6 per head of population. In Montserrat it is only £2.5 per head, while in Antigua and St. Kitts-Nevis, where more systematic industries are pursued, it rises, respectively, to £7.6 and £7.8 per head. In both these cases, however, it is far below what it is at Trinidad. There the value of the annual exports reach the high rate of £11.7 per head of population. These figures are more clearly set forth in the following table, compiled from the Colonial Office List for the current year:

PRESIDENCY.	Area (square miles).	Estimated population.	Population (per square mile).	Value of ex- ports, 1889.	Value of exports per head of population.
Antigua <sup>1</sup> .....	108	85,000	824	266,521	7.6
Montserrat.....	32½	11,000	338	28,392	2.5
St. Kitts-Nevis.....	153	44,100	288	845,172	7.8
Dominica.....	291	29,500	101	47,825	1.6
Virgin Islands.....	58	5,000	86	4,841	.8
Trinidad.....	1,754	196,172	112	2,308,832	11.7

<sup>1</sup> Excluding Barbuda and Redonda.

It is the opinion of some that a system of negro peasant proprietors is best suited to the requirements of the West Indies. I am strongly of opinion that such a system universally applied would be very injurious to the negroes themselves and most detrimental to the future of the islands. It will be noticed that in the islands above mentioned, such as the Virgin Islands, Dominica, and Montserrat, where there are most peasant proprietors or freeholders, there the value of exports is lowest.

Peasant proprietors, consisting entirely of negroes, when removed from the influence and example of Europeans, quickly lose heart. They gradually exhaust their land and grow little beyond what will supply them with the bare necessities of life. If peasant proprietors become the rule, the European must perforce retire. He can only exist where the land is laid out in large and systematic plantations and where labor is available for their maintenance and support.

The people mostly wanted in the West Indies are Europeans with capital who will work hard themselves and supervise the labor of the people. I do not recommend white settlers with little or no capital to go out to these islands. The experiment has been tried more than once, and it has signally failed. The European should bring his capital and be the employer and controller of the labor and not be a laborer himself, even on his own allotment. The climate and circumstances of tropical life are all against him.

As regards the negroes, much could be done to teach and train them in cultural pursuits. At present the education they receive tends, I fear, to take them away from the land and to crowd them into towns to become needy clerks and shopmen instead of prosperous and contented cultivators.

Efforts are being made to start industrial schools and to train negro boys as gardeners at the botanical stations. Such efforts in time must produce a change, but meantime the present labor supply must be judiciously utilized and the land so cultivated as to be retained in a continual state of fertility.

More labor will probably be required in time, and there are means for obtaining this labor for the Leeward Islands as it is obtained for Trinidad, British Guiana, or any other West Indian colony.

Dr. Morris, in a paper read before the Royal Colonial Institute at London in 1887, said on this subject:

From the eastern tropics I would ask you to go with me to the western tropics, and especially to those beautiful islands dotted over the Caribbean Sea. While the west has given to the east the pineapple, the banana, and the guava, it has received in return the orange, lime, shaddock, and mango, and its fertile soils and sunny climates have greatly improved them. The Bahamas were the first of the West India Islands to give attention to the cultivation and export of fruit. The first cargo of pineapples was shipped to England in 1842. In 1855 the shipments consisted of 16,469 dozens, of the value of £3,415; in 1864, of 61,500 dozens, and of the value of £8,516. To keep the fruit for a voyage of almost twenty-eight days by sailing vessels the whole plant was taken up and shipped. This was rather an expensive system, as the planters lost the suckers or shoots for replenishing their fields, and the quantity taken at one shipment was necessarily small.

Of late years the bulk of the Bahamas fruit is shipped to the United States, and in 1885 the statistics as regards pineapples stood as follows: To Great Britain, 31,900 dozen, valued at £4,785; to the United States, 424,065 dozen, valued at £46,062. The total value of the fruit exports of the Bahamas averages about £54,000 annually.

These consist of oranges, shaddocks, avocado pears, bananas, cocoanuts, and sapodillas. Canned or preserved pineapples are also exported, but it would appear that much more might be done in this direction. From a letter received recently from a correspondent at the Bahamas I learn that "Eleuthera and Long Island have done very well this year, selling their pines at 2 shillings per dozen. But Cat Island, with a population of 5,000, nearly all engaged in pine growing, has done very badly. The people had plenty of pines, but could not sell them. When I was there in the beginning of August there were several thousand dozens still in the fields, and the people would gladly have sold them at 4½ or 6 pence per dozen, a price which would barely cover their carriage to the beach. But no sale could be made even at that price. The prospects of the orange crop are good, but so long as the fruit is sent to market in bulk in the holds of schooners good prices can not be obtained, and many cargoes are damaged and lost." From another source I learn "that fully one-third of the fruit crop of the Bahamas is lost through want of care in properly picking and shipping the fruit."

The other West Indian islands, with the exception of Jamaica, of which I shall speak presently, have not been able to establish an appreciable fruit industry. The difficulty is not in growing fruit, but in securing regular and suitable means of transit. The inter-colonial steamers of the Royal Mail Company can not be utilized, as they have a purely local itinerary. What are wanted are rapid steamers connecting directly with the United States or Europe, and provided with suitable accommodation for carrying fruit. The fruit trade of the several islands at present is as follows: Trinidad, chiefly cocoanuts, £43,000; Tobago, chiefly cocoanuts, £2,600; Grenada, £390; St. Lucia, £404; Barbados, chiefly tamarinds, £1,305; Dominica, \$3,444; Montserrat, limes and lime juice, £11,000; St. Kitts and Nevis, £1,078; Antigua, chiefly pineapples, £156.

Although Jamaica embarked in the fruit industry much later than most of the others it now occupies the first place as a fruit-exporting country. The value of its shipments are not far short of £250,000 annually, which go principally to the United States. The chief fruit exported is the banana, which in 1885 reached a value of £130,000. Next comes the orange, to the value of £34,000. Other fruits exported are pineapples, limes, mangoes, cocoanuts, shaddocks, and tamarinds. The Jamaica bananas are cultivated by both Europeans and negroes, and, according to the season, sell locally for £7 10s. to £10 per hundred bunches. Small bunches, less than "seven hands," are not saleable. The bulk of the orange crop is yielded by self-sown trees, growing in pastures or native gardens. When the fruit is carefully picked by hand, graded according to size and degree of ripeness, and well packed, it finds a ready market. The demand for Jamaica fruit is necessarily affected by the Florida crop, but latterly the trade is somewhat brisk, and good prices are realized. Even with the trees at present existing, if attention were seriously given to the subject, the exports of oranges from Jamaica might be increased fourfold. It reflects somewhat unfavorably on the West Indian Islands, which can grow this fruit so successfully and readily, that oranges from Sicily are still being imported into New York and New Orleans, and that after crossing the Atlantic they are placed in the market in a better and more acceptable condition for buyers than West Indian fruit. This is a matter which, with a little more experience and knowledge on the part of growers, might be greatly changed. With suitable storage in cool chambers, Jamaica could supply the English market with pineapples, oranges, cherimoyers, watermelons, sweet cups, tree tomatoes, rose apples, limes, mangoes, and many others. As regards mangoes, thousands of tons are produced annually, and I have elsewhere suggested that, after exporting the best in a green state, using other for chutneys, pickles, and preserves, the rest might be utilized in the production of a useful spirit or in the manufacture of glucose.

The rapid rise of the fruit trade in Jamaica is due to the enterprising counsels of the late governor, Sir Anthony Musgrave, who secured regular and rapid communication with the States by subsidized steamers, and connected the fruit ports by telegraph and extended the railways. Much is still needed in the way of roads for opening up fruit districts, and for bringing them into closer communication with the coast. By such means the fruit would be cheaply and expeditiously brought to the port of shipment, and the small settlers encouraged to embark in fruit culture.

What Sir Anthony Musgrave did for Jamaica, Sir Frederick Barlee appears to have done for British Honduras. The establishment of a regular mail service between Belize and New Orleans was the first step in making British Honduras a fruit exporting colony. In 1880 it exported no fruit except cocoanuts. Last year it exported fruits, consisting of bananas, limes, mangoes, oranges, avocado pears, pineapples, and tamarinds, to the value of £14,464.

A very interesting attempt was made last year to import fresh tropical fruit from British Guiana by Messrs. Scrutton & Sons, who had one of their steamers fitted with a cool chamber specially for the purpose. Bananas and many delicate fruits were received from the West Indies during the course of the exhibition in excellent condition. It is to be hoped that all connected with this interesting experiment will resolve to make it a permanent feature in West Indian trade, and induce the English to become as large consumers of bananas and other tropical fruit as the people in the States.

Before closing my remarks upon the West Indian fruit trade, I would mention that the growing of fruit for export has initiated quite a new departure in the methods of local trade. It is true that fruit growing in itself is somewhat uncertain, and apt to suffer sudden reverses, but the fact remains that it enables some thousands of small growers to place land under cultivation and to utilize what otherwise would be simply wasted.

Again, a trade in fruit has introduced a system of cash payments on the spot, with the result that the cultivator is placed at once in possession of means for continuing planting operations and extending them to the fullest extent. As a case in point I might mention that the fruit trade in Jamaica is the means of circulating nearly £250,000 annually among all classes of the community, and this large sum is immediately available, without the vexatious delays formerly experienced in establishing other and more permanent industries.

Bananas, for instance, come into bearing in about fifteen or eighteen months from the time of planting, and as the return is usually from £10 to £20 per acre, the planter is able, with a comparatively small capital, to establish his land in cocoa, coffee, nutmegs, limes, oranges, and coconuts, which, when the bananas are exhausted, will remain a permanent source of revenue. It is on this account that I look upon the fruit trade of the West India Islands, as indeed of many other small industries, as calculated in the aggregate to build up, little by little, an improved condition for the people of these islands—a condition which ultimately will enable them to meet much more successfully than they otherwise would the depression under which they are now suffering.

#### A WEST INDIAN GOVERNOR ON DIVERSIFICATION OF INDUSTRIES IN THE TROPICS.

Diversification of industries in the West Indies and distribution of lands among the natives was earnestly commended by Sir Hubert Jerningham, formerly governor-general of Mauritius and later governor-general of Trinidad, in an address before the Royal Colonial Institute, London, April 16, 1901, in which he said:

The instructions to the royal commissioners in 1896 were primarily to inquire into the condition and prospects of certain West Indian colonies "in which sugar is produced," and, if necessary, "to make suggestions best calculated to restore and maintain the prosperity of those colonies and of their inhabitants."

These instructions were supplemented on January 5, 1897, by a letter containing three direct and pertinent questions:

Is it a fact that the sugar industry in the West Indian colonies is in danger of extinction?

Do the causes of the present depression of that industry include matters independent of the competition of sugar produced under bounty system?

If the production of sugar in these colonies be discontinued, could other industries replace it, and, if so, be established in time to meet any existing crisis?

#### SUGAR INDUSTRY IN DANGER.

The reply was prompt, direct, and exhaustive.

It said in substance: It is a fact that the sugar industry is in danger of extinction; the causes of the present depression do not include matters independent of the competition of sugar produced under the bounty system; and, lastly, "no industry or series of industries can be introduced into the West Indies which will ever completely take the place of sugar, and certainly no such result will be attained within the space of a few years," and they conclude that "it is of the utmost importance that no time should be lost in making a beginning of substituting other industries for the cultivation of the sugar cane."

You will observe that this reply states a fact which, however hideous, must be faced, and, further, makes suggestions which should be adopted without delay if the fact is not itself grappled with.

Up to the present Parliament has ignored the fact, and apparently does not wish, or does not dare, to face it as it should be faced, seeing that it spells want to the laborer, bankruptcy to the colonies which depend on cane, an end of education, and a return to that barbarism from which we pride ourselves in having secured the colored population of those islands.

This is no comment; it is what the commissioners point out.

To use their own words, "There is every reason to believe that a serious condition of things is rapidly approaching your Majesty's West Indian possessions; that the crisis will be reached in a very few years; that the exports of sugar in twelve colonies amount to no less than 55 per cent of the total exports, and are 85 per cent of that total in five colonies; that even if alternative industries succeed in the course of time, it is difficult to believe that they will completely replace cane; that those exports are the only means by which the population can purchase manufactured goods, including clothes, or the local administrations raise a revenue to meet the cost of a civilized government, and that it is an obligation on the part of His Majesty not to abandon the natives." That this solemn warning is rapidly approaching a fulfillment can be read in the statement addressed to the shareholders of the Colonial Bank by their chairman, Mr. Dobree, so recently as the 4th of this month. It is a statement which bears repetition, and I will quote it, because, in measured language, the Houses of Parliament are told what to expect if they do not do their duty, as called forth by the responsibility they undertook when half a century ago they prematurely gave absolute freedom to the black population instead of liberty gradually, conditional on their powers of labor and willingness to work. Mr. Dobree said:

"Their hope that the Imperial Government would deal with this question in a fair and statesmanlike manner had been so far grievously disappointed. The West Indian community commanded no sufficient number of votes to act as an incentive to political wire-pullers, and the whole trend of legislation, so far as sugar was concerned, would seem to be to play into the hands of foreigners, without consideration for British or colonial interests. In spite of the inherent loyalty of the West Indians he found that a strong feeling was growing up among the most thoughtful members of the community that they would be far better under American than under British rule, and he was of opinion that, when it was seen how greatly prosperity was being brought about in Cuba and Porto Rico under American rule, the feeling would grow stronger. He trusted that something might be done by the present Government, but they had been hoping so long that he should not be disappointed if nothing were done. \* \* \*

"I may be over sanguine, but I believe the efforts of the Trinidad planters and those of the local government will succeed in maintaining the sugar industry for yet many years, thanks principally to the impetus given to peasant proprietorship and to the thrift and industrious habits of the imported Indian coolies. In regard to the first the 'Port of Spain Gazette' says:

"It is a fact which is yearly becoming more and more generally recognized by the sugar planters that the advent of the cane farmer, more especially the large cane farmer, into the sugar industry of the colony is an event which must be regarded as a means of the restoration of sugar to its former and rightful place as the premier industry of Trinidad." \* \* \*

#### AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION NEEDED.

"Not only is it imperative to teach the Creole population the usefulness of the soil, the bountiful returns which it gives to all labor bestowed on its culture, and the nobility of the work itself, but it is indispensable to instruct those who are willing to devote themselves to agriculture how to discriminate between remunerative and nonremunerative produce. \* \* \*

"How can these truths be impressed upon the natives of the West Indies unless it be done in the manner now attempted—by educating the more cultivated colored people to a knowledge of agriculture, which they can impart to those below them, and by bringing up the present generation of children to consider gardening and the use of the spade as part of a polite education?"

#### DIVERSIFICATION OF INDUSTRIES NECESSARY AND FEASIBLE.

In Trinidad, thanks to the strenuous and able efforts of Professor Carmody and Mr. Hart, of the Botanical Gardens, great progress is being made in this direction, and public interest is, I think, at the present moment as alive to the necessity of a change in the old modes of education as can be desired.

Trinidadians have every reason to take time by the forelock, for they possess a soil which can grow anything and everything. The cacao trade, which comes next in importance to the sugar trade, is one which, however remunerative, does not give work to many hands, though fortunately it is one in which the native Creoles take an interest, and the coolies are beginning to invest their savings.

It a trade which flourished in Trinidad up to 1827, when, owing to the fall in prices, it gradually dwindled to nothing, until in 1856 there were no more than 7,000 acres under cultivation. As the average yield per acre is 600 pounds, or 2 pounds per tree, some idea of the development it has now reached can be gathered from the fact that there are at the present time nominally 498 cacao estates, yielding 173,000 bags, or 29,000,000 pounds of cacao, hence representing some 48,000 acres under cultivation.

It is estimated that the cost of production of a bag of cacao containing 165 pounds is 34 shillings, while the sale price averaged for the last two years has been 75 shillings a bag, representing a total of more than £600,000, of which half was clear profit and half was expended in the colony.

The demand is so much on the increase that prices maintain themselves in spite of accumulations and of old methods of growth, and the providential dispensation which places Trinidad outside the hurricane zone is also the guaranty of her future prosperity from this one article, if she had no other to rely on; but a great impulse has been given within the last three years to the cultivation of rubber, and this important article of commerce is expected to rank eventually as one of the most remunerative of the colony's resources.

Thanks to a Swedish professor of botany and natural history, Professor Bovallius, of the University of Upsala, who was introduced to me by letter from the secretary of state, I modestly hope that I have had a slight share in the impetus given to this new industry, from which so much is expected.

Professor Bovallius assured me that he had not seen along the Orinoco River any land better suited to the growth of hevea or castilloa than that which Trinidad affords, and he has since proved his confidence in the soil by the purchase of some 4,000 acres of Government land and the launching of the Narva Estates Company, Limited, for the cultivation of rubber, cacao, and indigenous products.

I wish I had the time to explain to you how these estates, situated in, I think, the loveliest parts of the island, and selected with the greatest care and knowledge, are expected to give returns in the eighth year, when the rubber trees yield their milk, which are simply astounding to one who, like myself, has no money to invest.

But as the company is formed on what, I think, is the safest basis of investment in land, when the investor does not reside on the spot, viz, on a syndicate system, in which dividends are paid pro rata of the shares held after a lapse of half the time necessary for the produce plants to bear, it may be useful to point out that in the case of a rubber plantation, which takes eight years, the cocoanut trees, the bearing cacao trees, the hardwood, and the corn are made to pay full interest on the capital for four years and a dividend after. On the Narva estate, for instance, I see by the prospectus that at the start there are 60 acres of bearing cacao, equivalent to £1,200 a year, and cocoanut trees yielding nuts worth £750; while hardwood is expected to realize £400, and 50 acres of corn a further £200, in all £2,550, which is more than necessary to pay 8 per cent on the gross capital of the company in question, viz, £25,000; that this revenue increases to £3,000 the second year, £3,450 the third year, £4,800 the fourth year, and to £7,300 the fifth year, owing to enlarged areas of both bearing cacao and cocoanut trees. In the fifth year it exceeds by £2,500 the cost of working the estate in that year, that cost, inclusive of interest, being estimated at £3,475 the first year, £3,930 the second year, £4,360 the third year, £4,915 the fourth year, and about the same in the fifth.

However correct these figures may be, they are so far reliable that, provided the cacao trees are bearing as well as the cocoanut trees, 8 per cent interest on capital is secure, though a deficit on working expenses, averaging £700 a year for four years, is expected.

But in the fifth year the balance of revenue covers that deficit and a dividend of 9 per cent becomes possible. The prospectus after that becomes aggressively alluring. Before the rubber adds its 100 per cent, the sixth year gives a dividend of 33 per cent, and the seventh year 44 per cent, and although I am not quite capable of understanding such high profits, there is no reason, with the prices which cacao and rubber command, that this should not be realized, seeing especially that cacao is daily becoming more popular throughout the world as a nutritive beverage and the demand for pure rubber is far in excess of the supply; and it will be interesting to note when the time comes how wise they have been who have asked of the soil and vegetation of Trinidad for returns equivalent to those of the best minerals elsewhere.

I have mentioned cocoanuts, and most people do not realize their value in the economy of nature.

In Trinidad these trees thrive particularly well, and especially so in the district of Mayaro, where the finest cocal, or cocoanut walk, has curiously planted itself from nuts originally cast ashore from a wrecked vessel.

These trees bring forth a bunch of nuts every month, and the bunches average nine nuts each. Sixty good nuts go to a gallon of oil, and this gallon averages \$1, or 4s. 2d. The yearly value of a cocoanut tree is therefore roughly set down at \$1, from which it will be seen that 9,600 cocoanut trees are sufficient of themselves to pay £2,000 interest, at 8 per cent, on £25,000.

In 1899 some 13,000,000 nuts were exported, representing 118,000 trees at least, and £45,000. As there are 60 nominal cocoanut estates in Trinidad, each estate exported on an average produce of the value of £740, and this sum, at 8 per cent, is interest on £9,250, a fact not to be despised when a cocoanut walk is advertised for sale.

I will not weary you with indian corn, or maize, which gives two crops a year, and is only inferior to wheat as a nutritive aliment; or with rice, which is imported to the extent of £150,000 a year, and could be raised in the island for more than twice that value were there proper appliances to thrash and clean the grain; or with coffee, every grain of which finds a sale in the local market, as Verdant Vale can testify; or with tobacco, which has been pronounced as good as the Habana leaf—alas! the secret of the curing rests with the Cubans and no one else; nor of the fruit, which is a drug in the markets of the colony, and awaiting the success of Messrs. Elder, Dempster & Co.'s plucky venture in Jamaica; nor, indeed, of the spices, vegetables, and other riches which the marvelous soil offers eagerly to all who seek them. \* \* \*

#### NEW METHODS BEING ADOPTED.

Applying these remarks to the special recommendations of the royal commission in regard to Trinidad and Tobago, which, as they also recommended, is now a ward or district of the colony, it will interest you to recall what they were:

1. The substitution of other agricultural industries for the cane cultivation.

That is in full swing, and has been fully acted on.

2. The settlement of the surplus population on land as peasant proprietors.

Not only have 10-acre plots been reduced to 5, as advised by the commissioners, and have eagerly been bought within the last three years in a manner unknown up to then, but squatting, which was deprecated by them, has become a well-nigh impossible thing since the institution of a central board working in conjunction with the district road boards for the opening out of the whole country, with due regard to prior claims of districts where land is taken up in greater degree. Up to 1898 the average sale of Crown lands had been 7,000 acres a year for eighteen years. I believe I am stating a fact, though speaking in this instance from memory only, that the average in 1898, 1899, and 1900 was over 12,000 acres; but it is also fair to say that this is greatly due to the high prices realized for cacao in these years, which have directed local attention to the great commercial value of that plant, and hence to land suited to its cultivation.

3. Facilitating access to foreign markets.

In the newspapers which arrived by last mail I find that the needed service round the island and Tobago once a week, also recommended by the royal commission, was actually commenced on the 8th of March, and this will bring the produce of all the coast line of both islands to Port of Spain.

The effort of Trinidad by generous offer to increase the subsidy to the Royal Mail Steamship Company, so as to insure twice a month the presence of its ocean-going steamers in the Gulf of Paria, has not yet succeeded, but negotiations are not over, and when it comes to pass the hope of the commissioners of developing a storage of foreign goods in bond, to be afterward exported to Venezuela, will be more fully realized than it is now, though even that of late years has increased steadily.



## DIVERSIFICATION OF PRODUCTS IN ORIENTAL COLONIES.

The work of the Dutch Government in developing and diversifying the productions of Ceylon is indicated by Mr. Basil W. Worsfold in his "A Visit to Java," 1893, in which he describes the great horticultural garden there established by the Dutch Government: "Among the twenty or thirty tropical gardens established in the colonial possessions of the various European powers," he says, "three stand preeminent, those of Calcutta, Ceylon, and the Dutch gardens in Java. It (the latter) contains three separate branches—the botanical gardens, a horticultural garden, and a mountain garden. Of these, the last is situated at some distance from the town and occupies 75 acres of land, with a staff of ten natives working under a European gardener. The horticultural garden adjoins the botanical garden and has for many years enabled the Government to distribute gratuitously the seeds and plants required for various colonial enterprises, including tea and coffee plants, sugar canes, india rubber and gutta percha trees, and trees producing tannin and oils, while various medicinal plants are also found here and others which afford useful nourishment for cattle. Altogether there are 9,000 species of plants contained in the gardens. There is, in addition, a museum containing an expensive herbarium and an extensive library of over 5,000 volumes, numerous laboratories, draftsmen who are competent to employ the methods of photography and lithography in reproducing the forms of plants, and under the direction of this staff are employed a number of natives, including three Malays with special botanical knowledge, a head gardener, nine undergardeners, and about one hundred coolies."

## THE FRUIT INDUSTRY IN THE TROPICS AN IMPORTANT ONE.

In a paper on "Fruit as a Factor in Colonial Commerce," read before the Royal Colonial Institute, London, February 8, 1887, Dr. Morris, the Director of the Experiment Stations, said:

One important result arising from the recent Colonial and Indian Exhibition is the great interest awakened in the possibilities of our colonial empire as a source of a large supply of fruit. In the colonial market attached to the exhibition there was shown a succession of rich and rare fruit from all parts of Her Majesty's possessions. The Dominion of Canada and the West India Islands, Cape of Good Hope and Natal, the Australian colonies and New Zealand, Fiji, Straits Settlements, Mauritius, Cyprus, and Malta, all were represented by produce in fruit, which for diversity of form and of representative character probably surpassed anything previously seen in these islands.

The shipments of fresh fruits from the Southern Hemisphere were in many cases purely of an experimental character, but the results achieved were certainly striking and suggestive, and will doubtless lead to a trade in fruit between the colonies and mother country of benefit alike to both producer and consumer. At the present time we import into this country raw and preserved fruit to a large amount annually. Most of this fruit is supplied to us by foreign countries; but within the area of the British dominions is included a fruit climate as extensive as the world itself. We have all the fruit climates of the north temperate and tropical regions, and we have also the fruit climates of the Southern Hemisphere, which latter can turn winter into summer and supply fruit in abundance just at the time we want it most. \* \* \*

## IN AUSTRALIA.

With the exception of one or two, most of our colonies are separated from the mother country by such "countless miles of ocean" that it was thought impossible to draw from them any appreciable quantity of fresh fruit; but the rapid progress made in the construction of large and swift ocean steamers has brought even our Australian colonies within the compass of a four weeks' voyage; and if we can draw supplies of oranges, apples, and pears from the far-off orchards of Australia and New Zealand what can not be done with the productions of colonies at less than one-half the distance? \* \* \*

## IN THE ORIENT.

The Straits Settlements yield perhaps the richest stores of tropical fruits of any of our dependencies. The mangosteen, durianmango, pineapple, papaw, duku, attap, langsats, plessan, rambustin, pumelo, bananas, blimbing, guava, cherimelia were all shown at the Indian and Colonial Exhibition in a preserved state, and with other better-known tropical fruit, they formed one of the most interesting collections of East Indian fruits seen in this country. Singapore pineapples are largely exported preserved whole in sirup, and the enterprise shown by several firms in popularizing this article will no doubt lead to a considerable trade being established in this country.

## DEVELOPMENT OF COMMERCE IN THE COLONIES.

The development of the earning power of the native and the application of his earnings to the purchase of the necessities, conveniences, and comforts of civilized life is a subject which belongs so clearly to the list of requirements for the material, mental, and moral improvement of the inhabitants of the colony that some consideration of commercial conditions and methods in the colonies is obviously necessary. The mere opportunity to communicate with his neighbor, or with men in other parts of the world, by telephone, telegraph, or by mail, or to come in personal contact with them does not supply all of the requirements for advancement along the lines mentioned. The native of the colony needs the articles which commerce alone can furnish him—the clothing, the manufactures, the books, the writing material, the thousand and one comforts and necessities of civilized life which tend to the improvement, material, mental, and moral, of his condition. These he must obtain through commerce, in exchange for his products, for which a market is furnished him by the roads, railways, and other methods of intercommunication which the colonial government supplies in its development of the territory thus governed.

## INCREASED PURCHASING POWER OF THE COLONIES.

That these improvements in the purchasing power of the people of the colonies have followed such developments is evident from an examination of the imports of the British colonies at intervals during the past half century. In 1850 the total importation of the British colonies amounted to 140 million dollars; by 1860 it had increased to 400 millions; by 1875, to 750 millions; and in 1900 was 1,150 million dollars, or eight times as much as a half century ago. During that same period the total imports of the world increased from 2 billions in 1850 to over 11 billions in 1900, while even in the rapidly developing United States the imports during that period only increased from 173½ millions in 1850 to 850 millions, thus being in 1900 less than five times as much as a half century ago.

The table which follows shows the imports and exports of the British colonies, including India, at decennial periods from 1850 to 1900. In regard to India it should be remembered that the statements of recent years are somewhat misleading when compared with those of the earlier part of the half century by reason of the decline in the exchange value of the rupee. Prior to 1890 the British



statements of the commerce of India were calculated upon the basis of 10 rupees to the pound sterling, while now they are calculated upon the basis of 15 rupees to the pound sterling. The fall of the rupee in India and the decrease in sugar production and consequent earnings in the West Indies account for the fact that the figures of commerce of the British colonies do not show so rapid a growth proportionately in the closing part of the century as in the earlier period.

#### IMPORTS INTO BRITISH COLONIES, 1850-1899.

[Exclusive of bullion and specie.]

YEARS.	Value.	YEARS.	Value.
	<i>Pounds sterling.</i>		<i>Pounds sterling.</i>
1850.....	29,750,000	1880.....	152,300,000
1860.....	80,000,000	1890.....	214,800,000
1870.....	106,100,000	1899.....	232,100,000

#### HOW THE COMMERCE OF THE COLONIES IS DEVELOPED.

As to what has been done by the great colonizing nations to encourage commerce as a necessary factor in the development of the people of the colony, the question is answered by the facts above shown. They have constructed roads, railways, and canals, thus enabling the native to market his products; and the latter has in turn increased his purchases until they are to-day seven times as much as they were a half century ago. The question of the relation of this commerce of the colony to that of the mother country is discussed elsewhere.

#### MONEY AND BANKING IN THE COLONIES.

Currency is naturally the next subject to be considered after commerce. As has already been indicated, the first work which successful governments undertake in their management of colonies is the development of methods of communication—roads, railways, canals, river and harbor improvements, postal and telegraph service—in order, first, to enable the natives to transport their products to market; second, to increase their productive area; and, third, to facilitate communication both among the natives themselves and between them and the outside world. Following this comes the development and diversification of agricultural productions, and this is naturally followed by commerce with the outside world and between the various sections of the colony itself. This requires currency, money of standard and accepted value, which, with the increase of commerce and the establishment of closer relations with the outside world, takes the place of cowry shells and other primitive mediums of exchange.

In this establishment of a recognized and acceptable currency the methods which have been and are employed by the various successful colonizing nations of the world are the object lessons to which students of colonial matters naturally turn.

#### COLONIAL CURRENCY FOLLOWS THE FORM OF THAT OF ADJACENT COUNTRIES.

In general terms, it may be said that colonial currency usually takes a form similar to that of the strong countries in the immediate vicinity with which commercial relations of greater or less extent exists, and with whose people and financial methods the people of the colony come in contact. The currency of the British colony of Canada, for example, is identical with that of the United States, although Canada is closely connected with the mother country in all commercial and financial affairs. The currency of the Hawaiian Islands, whose chief business intercourse is with this country, has been for many years identical with that of the United States. The currency of the smaller British colonies in the Orient, Singapore and the Federated Malay States, is the Mexican and old Spanish pillar dollar. In Hongkong the Mexican dollar is used, and that coin, or the British East Indian dollar, similar in weight and appearance, is an accepted medium of exchange throughout the Orient. The introduction of the Mexican dollar in the Orient, where it is still the favorite currency, was from the Philippines which were in early years attached to Mexico by the Spanish Government and all their commerce required to pass through Mexico on its way to Spain. This established the Mexican dollar in the Philippines, whence its use extended to China and other adjacent countries. India, with its enormous population and well-established currency, which existed when the British took possession, has retained its original form of currency, the rupee, though the fluctuations in its value have been the cause of great inconvenience in commercial matters, and its steady fall a great loss to its people. In Ceylon, although its population is of a race differing from that of India, the general rule by which the currency of a small community is determined by that of the larger adjacent countries obtains, the rupee being the accepted currency. In the British West Indies, owing to a determined effort made for the introduction of British currency in 1825, whereby the shilling was "to circulate wherever the British drum was heard," British coins are the standard, but American gold and paper and Spanish gold coins circulate alongside the British silver and gold. Cyprus, which has been administered by the British Government for more than twenty years under a convention with the Sultan of Turkey, has as its currency English, Turkish, and French gold pieces and Cyprus piasters, of which nine equal one English shilling. In Algeria, a French colony, French coins are the standard, its proximity to France and the large proportion of business which is transacted with that country encouraging the use of that currency. In Madagascar, Italian, Belgian, Greek, and other coins circulate alongside the French silver and the fractional parts of coins which were used for smaller transactions in earlier years, but which are being gradually withdrawn by the French Government. In Tunis the legal coins are similar to those of the French, but specially coined for that colony by the French Government. In the French colony of Dahomey, on the west coast of Africa, English and American, as well as French coins are in circulation, as are also cowry shells in the interior. In the French colonies of Indo-China the accounts of revenue and expenditure are stated in piasters. In the Kongo Free State the legal money is that of Belgium, with which most of the commerce is conducted. In the German colonies of Africa German coins are the standard, the chief money in circulation, the colonies not being sufficiently contiguous to any other great country to be affected by its currency, and this is true of the British colonies in Africa, where British currency is the established medium of exchange. Java appears to be an exception to the general rule by which the currency of a colony is determined by that of adjacent territory, and this is doubtless due to the fact that practically all of the commercial relations

of Java during the last century have been with the Netherlands. Since the entire control of production and the commerce growing therefrom were in the hands of the Dutch Government, which sent all products of the island to the Netherlands to be sold and naturally transmitted in exchange therefor the currency of the mother country, the currency of Java is therefore identical with that of the mother country—the Netherlands.

#### THE DOCTRINE OF "CURRENCY AREAS" RECOGNIZED.

The tendency to accept and adopt for the colony the form of currency prevailing in contiguous countries with which large commercial relations are maintained is pointed out by Prof. Robert Chalmers, of Oriel College, Oxford, also connected with the British treasury, in his "Colonial Currency," 1893, in which he says that "from 1825 onward no doubt had been entertained by the British authorities that sterling (gold) was the best system of currency for all British colonies, irrespective of their geographical positions and trade relations, and the Imperial Government has shown itself anxious to perfect the introduction of sterling currency by imposing in 1852 a limit of 40 shillings on the tender of British silver, not only in Australia, but in such silver-using countries as Ceylon, Mauritius, and Hongkong. This doctrine of the universal applicability of sterling was abandoned, though with reluctance, when it was demonstrated by Sir Hercules Robinson that a gold standard was impracticable and mischievous in colonies such as Hongkong, the Straits Settlements, and Ceylon, where trade relations made the silver standard imperatively necessary. "It was thus the East which taught the lesson of 'currency areas' in colonial currency. Once recognized the new doctrine was warmly espoused, a mint being established at Hongkong in 1864 to coin instead of gold sovereigns silver dollars of the Mexican type. Mauritius was recognized in 1876 as falling, like Ceylon, within the currency area of India, and the rupee was accordingly established as the standard currency for the island. In 1887 the currency of British Honduras was changed by adopting as the standard the silver dollar of Guatemala, on the ground that it was by the neighboring republics that the currency of this British colony was necessarily dominated,<sup>1</sup> and while the doctrine of "currency areas" was recognized by the Imperial Government and applied in the case of these lesser colonies the self-governing Dominion of Canada had in 1871 recognized the same doctrine for itself by assimilating its currency to that of the neighboring United States, a step which has been taken in part, though not in whole, by the Bahamas."

#### THE EXPERIENCES THROUGH WHICH THE CURRENCY SYSTEM OF THE BRITISH COLONIES WAS ESTABLISHED.

Prof. Robert Chalmers, in his History of Currency in the British Colonies, published in 1893, describes the processes of evolution of the currency systems of the British colonies as follows:

In theory currency followed the flag; in practice it was only the denomination, and not the sterling coin, which followed the English settlers of the seventeenth century to the "plantations" of the New World. The only coins they saw were of foreign silver, chiefly Spanish; and these foreign coins they rated in terms of sterling, thus originating the complexities of denominational currency which still survive in the quotation of Halifax exchanges. It was not that the colonists had any quarrel with the monetary system of the mother country; they were only too anxious to see sterling circulating among them. \* \* \*

The chief reason was that the early colonists were poor men, with new countries to develop by the slow processes of agriculture. As a consequence, they required, and received, commodities—not coin—from England in return for such part of their exported produce as was not already hypothecated to duties and other home liabilities. Hence coined money was rare among them; and the flow of such specie as they had was not from but to Europe. Staple commodities formed the normal medium of exchange. Even where coined money was plentiful, it was frequently used for external rather than for domestic payments. \* \* \*

But with growing commerce with the Spanish main, and the rise of the Buccaneers in the West Indies, the plantations naturally and necessarily began to form part of a currency area dominated by the silver "piece of eight" from Spanish America. Spanish coins now began to circulate to a greater or less extent in all the plantations, and the colonists through whose hands they passed proceeded to rate them concurrently with the sterling of which they retained only the denomination.

The sterling value generally accepted in the seventeenth century for the piece of eight was 4s. 6d., the rating subsequently stereotyped by Queen Anne's proclamation of 1704 and by Sir Isaac Newton's tables of 1717. But side by side with this silver parity there was a popular rating of the piece of eight by tale at 5s., partly due to the general resemblance of that coin to an English crown. \* \* \*

Imitating the practices familiar to them in London, dishonest persons traded on the desire of the young communities for a metallic currency, by circulating clipped money at the full rate; and this malpractice was condoned by the colonies when it was found that the light money was more apt to stay with them than the "broad" pieces. Moreover, with silver as the colonial standard of value, while in England the real standard was gold, payment by tale at the English silver parity for the piece of eight entailed a loss on the remittance of these coins to England, a loss which was readily avoided by reducing the weight of pieces of eight to correspond with the dominant European ratio of gold to silver. Further, "the raising of the moneys" was an expedient well known and widely practiced in contemporary Europe, as was the diminution of fine content, and clipping by the subject was the counterpart of the debasement of coins by the sovereign. Hence it came about that by the middle of the seventeenth century clipping was rampant in the West Indies, and light Spanish silver coins became the general standard of value in the British possessions in the New World. \* \* \*

Briefly, therefore, the currency history of the period prior to 1704 is marked (a) by the rise of the "denominational currency" systems as the result of competitive overvaluation of Spanish silver in terms of sterling, and (b) by the final predominance of the clipped piece of eight. But it was not until the close of this period that coin superseded commodities even in prosperous colonies. In the more backward settlements barter continued to dominate the currency. Gold coins were of rare occurrence and were regarded as counters rather than real "money." \* \* \*

#### ATTEMPTS TO INTRODUCE BRITISH CURRENCY IN THE COLONIES.

In 1825 the home Government made its great attempt to introduce British silver into circulation throughout the British colonies. The shilling was to circulate wherever the British drum was heard. The causes of this revolutionary change were twofold, arising from circumstances affected—(1) the Spanish and (2) the British currency.

In the first place, the successful revolution of the Spanish colonies in America had cut off by 1820 the supply of the universal Spanish dollar, while for some half a century there had been a dearth of the fractions of the dollar for subsidiary circulation in the colonies. The home Government was also alive to the prevalence of dishonest paper and of "cut" and "plugged" money, which was the curse of colonial currency in the West Indies.

In the second place, the act of 1816, establishing gold as the sole standard of value in the United Kingdom, had placed the home metallic currency on a sound basis, establishing a token silver coinage, which for the first time in centuries remained in circulation. And, further, the new mint was now in full working order and able to satisfy even greater demands than those made upon its resources for purpose of internal circulation.

<sup>1</sup>Since this was written, British Honduras has adopted the United States gold dollar as her standard of currency.

Consequently the disease seemed almost to suggest its own remedy. The new shilling was a success at home. Why should it not prove as great a success in the colonies, and form a (silver) link between them and the mother country? And, apart from the interests of the colonies, the home Government had interests of its own to consult. The large payments to troops and officials in the colonies, amounting to several millions sterling a year, were made the heavier by the continual shipments of specie, necessitated by the conflicting and unsound systems of colonial currency. If British silver could be substituted once for all as the circulatory medium of the colonies, it would not only save the expense of shipping specie, but also swell the imperial gain by seigniorage on subsidiary silver. On grounds, therefore, of policy and expediency, it seemed desirable to introduce British silver coins into circulation in the colonies. The real justification of the measures of 1825 was one which was only vaguely felt at the time, and which required the subsequent experience of half a century to demonstrate and define. That justification is to be found in the fact that the Spanish dollar, the universal coin of three centuries, had lost its supremacy, and that its universal dominion was in process of disintegration into rival "currency areas," chief among which was destined to be the area dominated by the British sterling.

A beginning was made through the commissariat—the department through which the troops, etc., were paid abroad. As the pay of the troops was fixed in sterling, it was decided to pay them in sterling silver and copper coins, and so to introduce these coins into colonies. In order to keep the money in circulation, an ingenious arrangement was devised. The bills which the commissaries were in the habit of drawing upon the treasury at thirty days sight for raising funds, were to be issued (at £103 per £100 bill) to any person tendering British silver. In this way it was hoped to insure the general use of British tokens as a circulatory medium in the colonies. These proposals, which so far had primary reference, not to the colonial public, but to the imperial troops, etc., were embodied in the treasury minute of February 11, 1825, the substance of which was communicated to the several commissaries by circular letter of February 12. In order to give legal currency to the British coins in the colonies generally, an order in council was passed on March 23, 1825, which proved as mischievous as it was intended to be beneficial. Its fundamental errors, derived from the treasury minute, were (1) its rating of the Spanish dollar for concurrent circulation with British silver, and (2) its omission to rate foreign gold coins.

(1) The treasury minute stated that "as the substitution of British silver and copper currency for the Spanish dollar, even in the payments from the military chests to the troops, can only be gradually effected, and as it may, in many cases, still be expedient to employ that coin as a medium of payment at a fixed rate as compared with British currency, my lords are of the opinion that it should (when necessary) be issued at the rate of 4s. 4d. the dollar, being a fraction only above its intrinsic value at the rate of 6s. 2d. per ounce of standard silver." But as this "mint price," which dated back to 1601, and had reference to a bimetallic standard, was 2d. higher per ounce than the gold price of silver in the open market, the effect of its application to the Spanish dollar was to overrate that coin, as measured by the gold sovereign, to which the shilling was now subsidiary. Had this blunder been confined to the mere rate of issue of the Spanish dollar to the troops in lieu of sterling coins, the evil would not have amounted to more than an unintentional fraud on the troops, etc., but, when the obsolete mint price was made the basis for rating British silver for concurrent circulation with the dollar, the overvaluation of the later coin by  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent was fatal to the imperial scheme. By a familiar law, the overrating of the dollar sufficed to drive out the shilling.

(2) As has been shown above, the indirect effect of the proclamation and act of 1705 had been to establish a gold standard in the West Indies. Here, as in Spain itself, the gold doubloon (with the Portuguese johannes) had practically supplanted the silver dollar. Consequently, if British silver was undervalued  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent, as compared with the dollar, it was still further underrated (by an additional  $4\frac{1}{2}$  to 5 per cent), as compared with the colonial gold standard. In colonies where the doubloon (worth 64s. sterling) passed, as in Spain, for 16 silver dollars, the undervaluation of the shilling by about 8 per cent rendered its circulation hopeless. In Gibraltar, for example, where the doubloon was supreme, the newly arrived boxes of British silver were bought up at the price of 1 doubloon for 69s. 4d., and immediately shipped back to England "unopened and with seals intact."

Accordingly, by order in council of September 7, 1838, the order in council of March 23, 1825, was revoked, so far as respected the colonies in America and the West Indies, and it was ordained that throughout the West India colonies, including British Guiana, the doubloon and dollar should circulate and be received in payment equally with sterling, as being, respectively, of the full value of 64s. and 4s. 2d. Instructions were sent at the same date to the governors of the several colonies in the West Indies directing them to declare by local proclamation the "currency" values of the doubloon, the dollar, and the shilling, according to the relative values assigned to these coins in the royal proclamation. The doubloon being the real standard in the West Indies, was to be taken as the basis of the currency ratings, with a consequent leveling up of the values of the dollar and shilling. The new currency ratings were in most cases inconvenient for the purposes of ordinary life. The Bahamas and Jamaica at once proceeded to dispense with "currency" and adopted sterling denominations. And in this connection it is to be observed that the reign of the Spanish dollar being over, most of the West Indian colonies had come to form part of the rapidly widening "currency area" of Great Britain. Hence, even though in many cases the formal adoption of sterling denominations was postponed (by Montserrat until 1864), sterling coins steadily worked their way into general circulation in the West Indies. The success of the legislation of 1838 in the West Indies led, in 1843-44, to its application to colonies elsewhere—to Mauritius, the west coast of Africa, St. Helena, Malta, Gibraltar, and Hongkong. In the first two cases French and East Indian coins were also admitted to tender; in Malta the doubloon was not allowed to compete with sterling; and in Gibraltar (where only the Spanish doubloon passed current and where the silver dollar was in practice mere bullion), the rating of the dollar, as a denomination, at 4s. 2d. was allowed to be established side by side with the rating of the Spanish doubloon at \$16, or 66s. 8d., instead of 64s.

#### EFFECT OF THE GOLD DISCOVERIES.

The great discoveries of gold in Australia in 1851, following as they did on those of California, profoundly affected the currency of the British colonies in common with the rest of the civilized world. A primary effect was to drive out the now appreciated silver dollar from circulation in places like the West Indies, where nothing but the hitherto steady gold price of silver had retained these coins in circulation side by side with the gold sovereign and its token representatives. Thus the second half of the century saw the banishment of the old silver dollar to the East. But the most notable effect of the Australian gold discoveries was the local demand for the establishment in Australia of branches of the royal mint, the first of which was opened at Sydney on May 14, 1855, whilst the second, at Melbourne, dates only from June 12, 1872. \* \* \*

#### A MEXICAN VIEW OF THE CAUSES OF THE POPULARITY OF THE MEXICAN DOLLAR IN THE ORIENT.

Señor Joaquín D. Casasus, in a series of articles published in *El Economista Mexicano*, in 1901, says: "It is very hard to say at what precise date money coined in Mexico was introduced in the markets of the extreme Orient, though it is quite well known that about the end of the seventeenth century New Spain and the Philippine Islands were maintaining very important commercial relations, since the royal ordinance of April 14, 1579, had authorized the exports of merchandise—the product of the Philippines—to New Spain and Peru."

The government of the Philippine Islands, moreover, maintained friendly relations with China and Japan, and during the seventeenth century the custom became quite general to send to the rulers of Japan, Cambodia, the Tidoro or Molucca Islands, and of China, gifts and presents to continue these friendly relations. There is no doubt that the Mexican pesos penetrated into these vast empires by way, primarily, of the Philippine Islands, because the government of New Spain had to send there each year from 270,000 to 280,000 pesos, the revenue of the insular treasury not being sufficient to meet all the expenditures. The government, then, at an earlier stage than commerce, was instrumental in introducing the Mexican pesos in the markets of the extreme Orient. Chalmers,

in his valuable study entitled, *A History of the Currency in the British Colony*, says the following on this question: "The silver dollar, in the earliest Spanish form, had been familiar at such Chinese ports as Canton, Ningpo, and Amoy since 1571, in connection with Spanish commerce from the Philippines," and in 1596 Linschoten, in his *Itineraire Voyage*, stated that at Goa "there are likewise rialles of eight which are brought from Portugall, and are 'paradawes de reales,' worth, at their first coming out, 436 reyes of Portugall, and after are raised by exchange as they are sought for where men travel for China" (p. 371).

There is good reason to say that, beginning with the seventeenth century, the Mexican peso was a very important civilizing agency and the chief exchange instrument in the international commerce of the peoples in the Orient. When European civilization came to knock at the doors of these great and populated empires, the peso became the tie of union between the Eastern and Western nations, and the only possible basis on which commercial peace might be reestablished.

The product of the Mexican silver mines, after being turned into coin, was distributed all over the world, taking two routes—that of the Orient, and that of the Occident. The commerce which New Spain maintained through the port of Acapulco, in southern Mexico, with the Philippine Islands never attained any real significance—although the merchandise of China passed through Mexico on its way to Europe—by reason of the prohibitory legislation of the kings of Spain in order to keep the commerce already established between the Philippine Islands, Guatemala, and Peru. Nor did the movement of precious metals ever attain any extraordinary importance.

The commerce with Spain was more important for the American colony, and the precious metals extracted from the mines were, as a rule, sent to Spain. Europe, however, did not keep all this gold and silver in circulation. International commerce transmitted part of it to Asia. The European precious metals flowed to the Asiatic continent by three principal routes—first, the commerce with the Levant, Egypt, and the Red Sea; second, the maritime commerce with the East Indies and China; third, the commerce of Russia with China and Tartary. The two trade currents of New Spain, by way of the East and the West, brought the silver and the coined peso pieces of Mexico to the great nations of the Orient. The East Indies and China are the countries which have absorbed the larger part of the silver extracted from the American mines. They are the bottomless pit into which the precious metals have been thrown forever, and the great receptacle of the production of the mines in the New World. China particularly has proved to be the chief consumer of Mexican silver. This country never had a monetary system in the proper sense of the term. As Savary says, in his *Universal Dictionary of Commerce*: "Gold and silver are not turned into coin in China, but are being used according to their weight for business and other purposes." Almost the same expressions are used by Voltaire in his *Essay on the Customs*: "For many years gold has not been a common medium of exchange in China, nor has it been a commodity as in Holland; nor is silver money in the strict sense of the term, its weight and fineness determining its price."

The peso thus found its way into China, not as money, but as simple commodity. Pesos were bought and sold in the market like any other product—for instance, tea and opium. The *Diccionario de Comercio y de Navegacion*, therefore, is quite right in saying: "The peoples of Asia and Africa take the coins, not according to the value affixed to them by the Government which puts them in circulation, but according to the amount of fine silver contained in them. These people regard them merely as pieces of a fixed and constant weight and fineness, and do not cease to test constantly the weight and fineness."

#### CURRENCY AND BANKING SYSTEMS IN THE WORLD'S COLONIES.

The statements which follow show the currency and banking conditions in each of the colonies of the world wherever it is found practicable to state that information in concise terms. The banking system is so closely associated with the currency system that it has seemed proper to combine the two wherever possible in the statements presented. The statements are from the Colonial Office List, the Statesman's Year-Book, and other standard publications.

*Queensland*.—There were on December 31, 1889, 11 banks with 167 branches. The value of the coin and bullion is given as £1,886,258; the deposits, £12,754,708. The government savings bank returns the number of depositors as 78,009, the amount of deposits as £3,171,047.

*South Australia*.—The legal tender and usual currency is exclusively British sterling. Eight banking institutions carry on business within the Province, all of which have establishments in the principal seaports and inland townships, numbering altogether 133 branches and agencies. The total average liabilities of the 8 banks amount to (December 18, 1899) £6,283,735; average note circulation, £397,616, and the total average assets to £6,752,772. The savings bank is managed by a board of trustees appointed by the governor, and has 134 agencies. The number of depositors on December 31, 1899, was 106,122, and the total deposits amounted to £3,489,082; averaged credit of depositor £32 17s. 6d.; rate interest paid to depositor, 3 per cent. One in 3.09 of the population is a depositor in savings banks.

*Tasmania*.—The legal tender and usual currency is British sterling. There are 4 banks established in the colony, viz: The Commercial Bank of Tasmania, the National Bank of Tasmania, the Union Bank of Australia, the Bank of Australasia, with, together, 39 branches. The total assets on December 31, 1898, amounted to £3,341,030; deposits, £3,105,562. The note circulation on same date amounted to £148,319. In addition to the above there are three savings-bank systems, one being located at Hobart, one at Launceston, and one having many branches throughout the colony, established by government in connection with the post-office department, total deposits at the time of last balancing, December 31, 1899, being £915,062.

*Victoria*.—The following banks had branches, numbering about 452 in all, throughout the colony during the last quarter of 1899: The Bank of Australasia, of New South Wales, of New Zealand, of Victoria, Colonial of Australasia, Commercial of Australia, English, Scottish, and Australia, London of Australia, National of Australasia, Royal of Australia, and the Union of Australia. The deposits at that period amounted to £3,050,429, and the value of the notes in circulation to £951,795. There are also more than 329 branches of the savings banks throughout the colony. The number of accounts open on June 30, 1900, was 375,070, and the amount in deposit was £9,110,818. The legal tender and usual currency is exclusively British sterling. A branch of the Imperial mint is established at Melbourne, where gold to the value of over £5,000,000 is coined annually.

*Western Australia*.—The legal tender and usual currency is exclusively British sterling. The following banks have establishments in the colony: The Western Australian Bank, National Bank of Australasia, Union Bank of Australia, Limited, Bank of New South Wales, Commercial Bank, and the Bank of Australasia. The deposits in the banks during the year ended December 31, 1899, averaged £3,808,629.

A government post-office savings bank at Perth, with branch offices, was established in 1863. The deposits during the year

ended June 30, 1896, amounted to £520,016; during the year ended June 30, 1897, to £1,068,322; during the year ended June 30, 1898, to £1,231,638; during the year ended June 30, 1899, to £1,057,023, and during the year ending June 30, 1900, to £1,112,250.

A branch of the royal mint has been erected at Perth.

*Bahamas.*—The legal tender currency is British sterling, United States current coin, silver of the Latin Union, and gold doubloons. Accounts are kept in sterling. There is no colonial currency. A local bank, called the Bank of Nassau, was established on June 1, 1889. It had on December 31, 1899, a note issue of £6,500, and deposits amounting to £52,000. A post-office savings bank was established in January, 1886, and had on December 31, 1899, £13,060 deposited.

*Barbados.*—Accounts are kept in sterling, and British coin is legal tender and the chief medium of circulation. There is no limit to the legal tender of British silver, and there is but little gold in circulation. The only bank doing business in Barbados is the Colonial Bank, capital paid up £600,000. Total number of branches throughout West Indies 13, with deposits of £1,530,000, and a note circulation (\$5 notes) of £350,000. In Barbados the estimated circulation is £30,000. There is a Government savings bank which had on September 30, 1899, 13,313 depositors, and deposits amounting to £226,117.

*Bermuda.*—The coins in circulation are British currency, which are legal tender. There is no limit to the legal tender of British silver. The Bermuda Banking Company has recently established a bank at Hamilton. Messrs. N. T. Butterfield & Son have also a banking establishment at Hamilton, and several of the leading merchants do a considerable amount of business as private bankers and agents. A Government savings bank was established in 1871, and there are branches at Hamilton, St. Georges, and Sandys Parish. The number of depositors at the end of 1899 was 1,333; total amount of deposits, £31,686.

*British Guiana.*—Accounts are kept in dollars and cents. British sterling and United States gold coin are current and legal tender as well as Spanish and Mexican gold. Spanish, Mexican, or Colombian dollars are no longer legal tender under Ordinance No. 1 of 1876. There are also remaining some old silver tokens from one-eighth to 3 guilders (1 guilder being equal to 1s. 4d.). The Colonial and British Guiana banks have establishments at Georgetown, with branches at New Amsterdam. The British Guiana Bank on March 31, 1900, had a note circulation of £57,532, and the Colonial Bank £62,152. The total note circulation in the colony is about £129,684. The first government savings banks were established at Georgetown and New Amsterdam in the year 1836. A branch bank was opened at Suddie, Essequibo, in 1879, at Belfield, on the East Coast, Demerara, in 1884, and another at Fellowship, West Coast, Demerara, in 1887.<sup>1</sup> The total deposits amounted on December 31, 1899, to £248,352 among 12,452 depositors. There are 27 post-office savings banks. At the end of that year these banks had 7,853 depositors, with £43,615 to their credit.

*British Honduras.*—Up to October 14, 1894, the coins in circulation were principally South and Central American silver dollars. There was no paper currency. The standard of value was the Guatemalan dollar, and Chilean and Peruvian silver coins were also current and legal tender as well as the colonial currency of 1-cent pieces at fixed ratings with the Guatemalan dollar. By Ordinance No. 31, of 1894, the currency has been established on a gold basis, the United States gold dollar being adopted as the standard coin. Gold coins of the United States mint are legal tender for the amounts of their respective denominations in silver dollars; also the British sovereign and half sovereign for the amounts of \$4.867 and \$2.433, respectively. There is a local subsidiary currency of 50-cent, 25-cent, 10-cent, and 5-cent silver pieces, and a Government note issue of the following denominations: \$1, \$2, \$5, \$10, \$50, and \$100; a bronze cent piece is also current. The limit of the legal tender in silver is \$10, and in bronze at 50 cents. There are no private banks in the colony. The Government Savings Bank, established in 1846 at Belize (with branches at Corosal, Orange Walk, Stann Creek, Punta Gorda, and the Cayo), had on December 31, 1899, \$31,320 deposited.

*Dominion of Canada.*—There is a uniform currency throughout the Dominion, consisting of dollars, cents, and mills, the same as that of the United States, \$4.86 $\frac{2}{3}$  being equal to £1. In addition to this Canadian coinage the gold coins of the United States are also legal tender.

There are Government savings banks in the maritime provinces and in Manitoba and British Columbia, having 49,320 depositors, with \$15,470,110 on deposit. There are also post-office savings banks in Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Manitoba, and Northwest Territories, and British Columbia, having 142,141 depositors, with \$34,771,605.

The total amount of savings-bank deposits, including two operating under special charters, was \$66,135,282, on June 30, 1899.

The following banks are established in Canada:

*Ontario* (headquarters).—Bank of Toronto, Dominion Bank, Standard Bank, Imperial Bank, Bank of Ottawa, Ontario Bank, Canadian Bank of Commerce, Bank of Hamilton, Western Bank, Traders' Bank.

*Quebec* (headquarters).—Bank of Montreal, Molsons Bank, Banque National, Banque de St. Jean, Banque de Ste. Hyacinthe, Bank of British North America, Banque Jacques Cartier, Banque d'Hochelega, Merchants' Bank of Canada, Quebec Bank, Union Bank of Canada, Eastern Townships Bank.

*Nova Scotia* (headquarters).—Bank of Nova Scotia, People's Bank, Halifax Banking Co., Merchants' Bank, Union Bank, Bank of Yarmouth, Commercial Bank of Windsor, Exchange Bank of Yarmouth.

*Other provinces* (headquarters).—Bank of New Brunswick; People's Bank, New Brunswick; St. Stephen's Bank, New Brunswick; Bank of British Columbia; Summerside Bank of Prince Edward Island; Merchants' Bank of Prince Edward Island.

These banks have in all 641 branches, distributed as follows: Ontario, 306; Quebec, 117; Nova Scotia, 69; New Brunswick, 30; British Columbia, 47; Prince Edward Island, 6; Manitoba, 46; Northwest Territories, 20.

Paid-up banking capital has nearly doubled since 1870. In June of that year it was \$32,050,597, and in June, 1900, it was \$64,735,145. The bank-note circulation on June 30, 1900, was \$45,577,387. In 1887 they held \$69,763,668 of deposits, and in June, 1900, they held \$279,579,150. In addition to the notes issued by the charter banks the government issues notes of various denominations, and the average monthly circulation in 1890 amounted to \$15,501,360, and in 1899, \$25,041,650. The maximum government issue is fixed at \$25,000,000, and the minimum reserve in specie and British Government securities is fixed at 25 per cent, but for all amounts over \$20,000,000, gold must be held dollar for dollar. No notes are issued below \$5 except by the government.

*Cape of Good Hope.*—The legal-tender currency is British sterling, and this is also the money of account. Since the beginning of 1892 the banks having their head offices outside the colony are only allowed to issue notes supplied to them by the government, which holds securities deposited by the institutions for the total supply of such notes given to the banks. The notes are legal tender and guaranteed by the government, the banks having to redeem the notes in gold on demand at their chief places of business.

Banks having their head offices in the colony and having been registered on January 1, 1891, can continue to issue their own notes,

<sup>1</sup> The branch banks at Belfield and Fellowship were closed on March 31, 1895.



which are neither guaranteed nor legal tender. There are 6 banks, with 102 branches. The total amount of notes in circulation on June 30, 1900, was £1,313,905; legal tender, £1,306,820; other, £7,085.

*Ceylon.*—The weights and measures in common use are British.

Accounts are kept in rupees, and the money in circulation is exclusively Indian and Ceylon rupee currency, which is alone legal tender. Ceylon cents take the place of the Indian annas and pice. The notes of the Chartered Mercantile Bank remained in circulation to some extent until 1888, when its charter expired, but since the failure of the Oriental Banking Corporation, in 1884, the government has instituted a note issue, of which the amount in circulation on December 31, 1897, was Rs. 10,008,700. These notes are legal tender, except at the Colombo issue office.

The exchange rates follow those of India, and have of late years somewhat improved. The exchange for remittances to England by a six months' bill was 1s. 4½d. during 1899, while the average rate for demand drafts was 1s. 4d.

The Ceylon government calculates the rupee at 1s. 10½d. for the purpose of the payment in the United Kingdom of half salary or pension in the case of officers appointed before February 19, 1897, and at 1s. 6d. in the case of officers appointed after that date.

The following banks have establishments in the colony: Mercantile Bank of India, Limited; Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China; Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation; Bank of Madras; National Bank of India, Limited. None of these now issue notes in Ceylon. The Chartered Mercantile Bank had Rs. 4,355,600; the Madras Bank, Rs. 6,882,828; and the National Bank, Rs. 1,187,916 deposits in the island on December 31, 1890. The Hongkong and Shanghai Bank had Rs. 1,329,186 in deposit on December 31, 1898. The Ceylon Savings Bank was established in 1832, and post-office savings banks were opened in 1885, and the two together had on December 31, 1898, Rs. 4,473,382 deposited.

*Cyprus.*—Under an order in council which came into operation on January 1, 1901, the following coins are legal-tender currency: Gold, the sovereign; silver, 18, 9, 4½, 3, piaster pieces. Limit of tender, 540 piasters (9 equal to 1s). Bronze, 1 piaster, half piaster, quarter piaster; limit of tender, 27 piasters. (40 paras equal 1 piaster.) The Imperial Ottoman Bank has a branch established at Larnaca, and an agency at Nicosia. There is as yet no government savings bank.

The Turkish weights and measures are in use. The oke equals 2.8 pounds avoirdupois, and the donum equals about one-fourth acre. A law relating to weights and measures was passed in 1890.

*Falkland Islands.*—The legal-tender currency is British sterling and local £5, £1, and 5s. notes. There are no private banks in the colony. On April 1, 1888, a government savings bank of the usual type was established, in which, on September 30, 1899, the deposits were £44,000, belonging to 360 depositors.

*Fiji.*—The legal-tender currency and the only coin in circulation is British sterling. The bank of New Zealand has two branches in Fiji—at Suva and Levuka. Provision is made by ordinance for the establishment of a government saving bank. There is no government note issue.

*The Gambia.*—The legal-tender and usual currency is that of Latin Union; there is no colonial coinage and no note issue. A government savings bank was established in 1886, and had on December 31, 1897, £2,562, deposited by 169 depositors; in 1898, £3,882, deposited by 192 depositors; and in 1899, £5,083, deposited by 203 depositors; but there are no private banks.

*Gold Coast Colony.*—The currency and legal tender is British sterling, with Spanish, American, and French gold coins, as fixed by Ordinance No. 2 of 1880. Gold dust was demonetized by Ordinance No. 9 of 1889, but still remains a medium of exchange in the districts of the interior. A number of United States silver half dollars are in circulation, but are not legal tender. German gold and silver coin circulates in the trans-Volta districts since the Customs Union. Copper coins are little used, owing to the dislike to them entertained by the natives in most places. Cowries are still in use, but only for the purchase of articles of little value. Accounts are kept in sterling. The bank of British Africa has establishments at Accra and Cape Coast.

*Hongkong.*—The currency of Hongkong consists of the following coins (vide order in council February 2, 1895): (1) The silver dollar of Mexico; (2) British dollar; (3) the Hongkong dollar, half dollar, and 20-cent, 10-cent, and 5-cent pieces, issued from the Hongkong mint (1866-1868); (4) half dollars, 20, 10, and 5 cent pieces imported from England and coined at the Royal mint and Birmingham mint; (5) copper coins representing one-hundredth part of the dollar (called 1 cent), and one-thousandth part of the dollar (mil or cash), imported from England.

There were issued from the Hongkong mint 2,108,054 dollars and 58,587 half dollars; and 20, 10, and 5 cent pieces to the nominal value of \$402,671. There have been obtained from England and put into circulation up to December 31, 1898, subsidiary coins (which now include half dollars) to the nominal value of \$21,778,125.

The coins issued from the Hongkong mint are never met with in the colony now, and of the coins imported from England it is estimated that not more than 10 per cent remain in the colony.

There are six principal banks (Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China; Mercantile Bank of India, Limited; China, Hongkong, and Shanghai Bank; National Bank of China; the Bank of China, Japan, and the Straits; and the Yokohama Specie Bank), having a note circulation of \$10,121,597 on December 31, 1898. There is no savings bank under government control, but one conducted by the Hongkong and Shanghai Bank.

*Jamaica.*—British currency, United States gold, and gold doubloons are legal tender. Accounts are kept in sterling, and the coin in circulation is almost exclusively British silver and Jamaica nickel pence. Total estimated coin, £300,000. The Colonial Bank and the Bank of Nova Scotia are the only private banking establishments in the colony. The Colonial Bank has one branch and four agencies; it has a note circulation estimated at £150,000. British silver coins above 6d. are legal tender to any extent; coins of 6d. and less amount to the extent of 40s. in any one payment.

Government savings banks were instituted in all the principal towns in 1871, the rate of interest allowed being at first 4 per cent, but this was reduced in 1881 to 3 per cent, and in 1897 to 2½ per cent. The total deposits on March 31, 1900, were £468,616 7s. 4d.

*Lagos.*—By Ordinance No. 2 of 1880 the legal-tender currency and that generally in use is British sterling, with gold dust and nuggets, and some Spanish, American, and French gold coin; but by Ordinance No. 7 of 1894 gold dust and nuggets were demonetized. Cowries (1,000 equal 3d.) are still occasionally employed for small transactions. Accounts are usually kept in sterling, but occasionally still in gallons of palm oil, or in cowries, by the smaller native traders. A government savings bank was established on January 1, 1887, under the management of the colonial treasurer, and on December 31, 1897, held deposits amounting to £16,553 13s. 1½d.

*Leeward Islands.*—The usual currency is British silver, a few British and United States gold coins being occasionally met with. In addition to these the gold doubloons are legal tender. The Colonial Bank has a branch in Antigua, one in St. Kitts, and one in Dominica.



In the Virgin Islands, Montserrat, and Nevis there are no banks. The notes of the Colonial Bank circulate in Antigua (£3,500) and St. Kitts (£14,000), and those of the Danish Bank of St. Thomas in the Virgin Islands.

There is no limit to silver as the legal tender.

Government savings banks have been established in all the presidencies except the Virgin Islands.

*Malta.*—The legal-tender currency is, under order in council of September 24, 1886, exclusively British. There are two local banks (Banco di Malta and Anglo-Maltese Bank) and a branch of the Anglo-Egyptian Bank. The first two banks have a small note circulation, reported to amount to about £20,000, and the deposits in the three banks are estimated at about £200,000. The Government Savings Bank, established in 1833, had on December 31, 1899, £522,148 deposits.

*Mauritius.*—The Mauritius Commercial Bank has establishments in the colony. The total amount of deposits was Rs. 3,895,578.46. The Bank of Mauritius (limited) was established in October, 1894, with paid-up capital of £125,500, and opened in Mauritius in December, 1894. Total deposits up to the end of 1899, Rs. 1,673,794. A government savings bank was established in 1865. The total deposits on December 31, 1899, amounted to Rs. 2,885,942.

All accounts are now kept in rupees and cents of a rupee, which is the currency of the island. There are about Rs. 9,000,000 (in coin) in circulation. A government note issue was reestablished in 1876, the notes being legal tender, except at the office of issue. The circulation on December 31, 1899, was Rs. 3,606,000.

*Natal.*—The currency is exclusively British sterling. The Natal Bank, the standard bank of South Africa, the Bank of Africa, the African Banking Corporation, and the National Bank of the South African Republic have together 15 establishments, with £3,511,091 deposits. A government savings bank was established in 1868, and had in 1899 (December 31) £301,348 deposits.

*Newfoundland.*—Branch banks of the Bank of Montreal, Bank of Nova Scotia, and Merchants' Bank of Halifax have been opened in St. Johns, and a branch of the Bank of Nova Scotia in Harbor Grace.

The legal tender currency is British sterling, United States gold, and colonial coins. Much of the trade is carried on by barter. Accounts are kept in dollars and cents. Exchange, \$4.86½ to the pound sterling.

*New Zealand.*—The following banks have branches in the colony: Bank of New Zealand, National Bank of New Zealand (limited), Union Bank of Australia (limited), Bank of New South Wales, and Bank of Australasia. The total amount of their deposits in New Zealand on December 31, 1899, was £14,433,638, and of their note circulation £1,195,562. There is also a post-office savings bank established in the colony, having now 427 branches; the amount deposited therein on December 31, 1899, was £5,320,370. The private savings banks number 6, and the total amount to credit of depositors at the end of 1899 was £807,927. The currency and legal tender is exclusively British sterling.

*Sierra Leone.*—Besides British currency, gold doubloons, eagles, and the coins of the Latin Union are current and legal tender. There is no colonial coinage and no note circulation. The British Bank of West Africa has a branch in the colony. A government savings bank was established in 1882 and had, in 1899, £39,529 deposited by 3,324 depositors.

*Basutoland.*—There are no banks in the territory, but a government post-office savings bank has been established. The currency is exclusively British, but exchange, and even the payment of taxes, is still largely conducted by barter.

*Straits Settlements.*—The standard coin of the colony, by an order of the Queen in Council, dated February 2, 1895, is the silver Mexican dollar, but the British dollar and the old Hongkong dollar are also legal tender.

Local silver and copper coins, representing fractional parts of a dollar, are legal tender up to \$1 and \$2, respectively.

The amount of coin in circulation is estimated at \$12,000,000.

The following banks have establishments in the colony: The Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China; the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, the Mercantile Bank of India (limited), the Bank of China and Japan, and the Netherland Trading Society.

The average bank-note issue during 1899 amounted to \$8,082,209. Government currency notes were issued for the first time in 1899, the amount in circulation on December 31 being \$2,173,604.

There is a government savings bank at each settlement. On December 31, 1899, the deposits amounted to \$431,263.

*Trinidad and Tobago.*—The coins in general circulation are British gold, silver, and bronze, United States gold currency, and gold doubloons. These are all legal tender, as is also British gold, which is not often met with. Accounts are kept in sterling by the government, but in dollars by the people. The notes of the Colonial Bank circulate to the extent of £100,000, estimated. There is no colonial coinage or note issue. There is no limit to silver as legal tender.

*Turks and Caicos islands.*—The coins in circulation, all of them being legal tender under Bahama acts 2 Vict. cap. 4, and 8 Vict. cap. 49, also Jamaica law 10 of 1880, consist of British sterling, United States gold and silver, Spanish, Mexican, and Colombian gold doubloons, and Jamaican nickel tokens. There is no limit to the legal tender of silver. There is no paper currency. Commercial accounts are usually kept in dollars and government accounts in sterling. A government savings bank was established on January 1, 1890, and had on December 31, 1899, 186 depositors with £994 deposited.

*Windward Islands, Grenada.*—The legal-tender currency is British sterling, doubloons, and the gold coin of the United States. There is no government note issue, but the Colonial Bank, which has branches in the larger islands, issues \$5 notes. Public accounts are kept in sterling, but banking and private accounts generally in dollars. There is no limit to the legal tender of silver.

*North Borneo.*—The company which controls the territory and administers government under a charter has a copper coinage of one half and 1 cent pieces, and it issues notes expressed in dollars to the extent of \$180,000. American, Mexican, Straits Settlements, Hongkong, and British dollars are treated as currency. There are agencies of the Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China, and the company itself does banking business when required.

Money orders on North Borneo are issued in England, India, the Straits Settlements, Ceylon, Hongkong, and elsewhere, and vice versa.

*Algeria.*—The Bank of Algeria, whose privilege has been extended to the end of 1912 or of 1920, at the will of the government, is a bank of issue, but its note circulation must not in any case exceed 150,000,000 francs. It has undertaken to pay annually to the government, from 1900 to 1905, the sum of 200,000 francs; from 1906 to 1912, 250,000 francs; from 1912 to 1920 (if then in existence), 300,000 francs.

*Madagascar.*—The Comptoir National d'Escompte de Paris has agencies at Antananarivo and Tamatave.

The only legal coin is the silver 5-franc piece, with its silver subdivisions, as well as copper coins of 5 and 10 centimes, but the Italian 5-lire piece and Belgian, Greek, and other coins of equal value are also in circulation. For smaller sums the coin used to be cut up into

fractional parts, and weighed as required; but this is now an illegal practice in the central provinces, and will probably soon be obsolete in other parts of the country. The government is withdrawing this cut money at the rate of 30 grammes of silver for 5 francs, and is to replace it by fractional silver and copper coin.

*French West Africa and the Sahara.*—French, English, and American coins are in circulation, as well as cowrie shells.

*Tunis.*—The legal coinage consists of pieces similar to the French, the pieces being coined in France.

*Guadeloupe and dependencies.*—Silver coin has disappeared from circulation; treasury notes for 2 francs, 1 franc, and 50 centimes are authorized up to a total emission of 800,000 francs.

*Dutch West Indies.*—The Java Bank, established in 1828, has a capital of 6,000,000 guilders and a reserve of about 1,200,000 guilders. The government has a control over the administration. Two-fifths of the amount of the notes, assignats, and credits must be covered by specie or bullion. In March, 1900, the value of the notes in circulation was 60,591,000 guilders, and of the bank operations 32,623,000. There are two other Dutch banks, besides branches of British banks.

In the savings banks, including the postal savings bank, there were 20,632 depositors, with a deposited amount of 10,411,167 guilders.

#### CURRENCY OF THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

The currency of the Straits Settlements is an especially interesting object lesson in considering the requirements of communities of mixed population in the Orient. It is described as follows by Professor Chalmers in his *History of Colonial Currency*:

"With the beginning of the sixteenth century Malacca, in the hands of the Portuguese, rose to be the great entrepôt for European trade in the Far East, a position which half a century later was partly shared by the Philippines. And it is of interest to note that, speaking of 'Melaqua' in 1498, the 'Roteiro da Viagem da Vasco da Gama' records that the native money was composed of the staple commodity of the Straits, namely, tin. With the arrival of the Portuguese, however, and with the discovery of the Philippines by the Spaniards, silver coin—and more particularly the dominant Spanish dollar—established a supremacy in the Straits, which, as the trade moved eastward, has been retained and strengthened by the Mexican dollar, the lineal descendant of the old Spanish dollar.

"The first British possession was not Malacca, but Pulau-Pinang, which was rechristened Prince of Wales Island by the East India Company on its cession in 1786. For this settlement, which soon tendered further to oust Malacca as a commercial entrepôt, the company in 1787 and 1788 struck a silver coinage consisting of rupees, with half and quarter rupees, and copper cents, half-cents, and quarter cents, further issue of which was fruitlessly recommended by Lieutenant-Governor Farquhar in 1805. There were also 'pice,' usually of tin.

"Though the company had established the rupee as the standard coin in Penang, the trade relations of the settlement constrained the mercantile community to adopt as their standard, not the Indian coin, but the universal Spanish dollar, the coin familiar to the conservative races with whom they had commerce. Therefore, from the earliest days of Penang, the dollar, not the rupee, was the recognized standard of value. Writing of this island, Kelly says, in his 'Universal Cambist,' of 1825: 'Accounts are kept in Spanish dollars, copangs, and pice, 10 pice making a copang, and 10 copangs one Spanish dollar. The current pice are coined in the island; they are pieces of tin, 16 of which weigh the catty, or £1½. On the exchange of dollars into pice there is a loss of 2 per cent; on dollars without the King's head, 10 per cent; and from 5 to 10 per cent on all dollars defaced (i. e., chopped).'

"In 1835 the company revised its currency legislation for the whole of its territories, which included the Straits Settlements, and made no exception in favor of the dollar-using colony when enforcing the establishment of the rupee as the standard coin, with pice in subsidiary circulation. The first concession which the company made to the requirements of Straits currency was in 1847, when by act No. VI of that year it was provided that the Indian Regulations 'shall not be deemed to apply to copper currency of the settlements of Penang, Singapore, and Malacca. From and after January 1, 1848, the following copper coins only shall be received at or issued from any government treasury within the said settlements: (1) A cent, weighing 144 grains troy; (2) a half cent, weighing 72 grains; and (3) a quarter cent, weighing 36 grains.' These copper coins were to be legal tender only for fractions of a dollar, and 'the circulation in the said settlements after the said day of all copper coins or tokens, not being the authorized legal coinage of any British or foreign Government, is prohibited,' under penalty of not more than Rs. 10.

"But this concession was withdrawn in 1855. The preamble of act No. XVII of that year reads as follows: 'Whereas the company's rupee is by Act XVII of 1835 a legal tender in the settlements of Prince of Wales Island, Singapore, and Malacca, but no copper coin, except the half pice issued under Act XI of 1854, is now by law legal tender for fractions of a rupee in that settlement; and it is expedient to remedy this defect in the law; and whereas besides the rupee the dollar is by custom current in the said settlement, and it is expedient to provide that the copper currency which shall be legal tender in the said settlement for fractions of a rupee shall also be legal tender in the said settlement for fractions of a dollar,' it was enacted that from July 1, 1855, that a pice should be legal tender in the Straits for  $\frac{1}{16}$  of a dollar, a half pice for  $\frac{1}{8}$  of a dollar, a pice for  $\frac{1}{16}$  of a dollar, a double pice for  $\frac{1}{8}$  of a dollar.

"Commenting on this act in 1863, Sir Hercules Robinson reported to the Imperial Government as follows: 'In 1854, I believe, the government of India adopted measures for forcing the rupee into general circulation in the Straits Settlements, and for making it the only legal tender in all transactions. With this view the copper currency, consisting of cents of a dollar, half cents, and quarter cents, previously supplied under the provisions of the act of 1847, was withheld, and the Indian copper money, which can not be conveniently adapted to a copper currency, was substituted in its place. But great inconvenience having been experienced, and public demonstrations against the change having taken place, the authorities at home were appealed to, and the project was countermanded.' After pointing out that the new Indian currency act, No. 13 of 1862, made the Indian coins legal tender in the Straits, as in all other Indian territories, whereas no measure had ever been passed giving legal currency to the real and sole measure of value in the colony, Sir Hercules Robinson exposed the absurdities of the existing regulations in the following words:

"All accounts throughout the Straits Settlements, except those of the government, are kept in dollars and cents, but the public accounts are kept in the denomination of rupees, annas, and pice, causing thereby much needless labor and confusion in the financial departments. With the exception of the receipts from stamps, which it is optional for the public to pay either in dollars or rupees, the whole of the public revenue is required to be paid in dollars, but it is brought to account in rupees at a par of Rs. 224 8a. 6½p. for every \$100 received at Singapore and Malacca, and at a par of 220 rupees at Penang. All payments from the local treasuries are made in dollars, but disbursements to the public are charged in the public accounts in rupees at a par of Rs. 22 8a. 6½p. in Singapore and Malacca, at a par of 220 rupees at Penang, while the salary of all public servants, civil as well as military, which are fixed in rupees, are paid at all the settlements in dollars at a par of 220 rupees.

"In short, the whole system under which coins not in circulation are declared by law a legal tender, and the public accounts are required to be kept in the denomination of one currency, while the real monetary transactions of both the government and the public are conducted in another, is unsound and productive of nothing but needless labor and confusion."

"For some years the merchants of Singapore had advocated the coinage of a British dollar. The opening of the new mint at Hongkong in 1866 met this demand, and all that was now needed was to make dollars the legal, as they had always been the actual, standard of value in the Straits. This salutary change was effected as part of the transfer of the colony from the Indian to the Imperial Government under the act 29 and 30 Vict., cap. 115, which was brought into operation as from the 1st of April, 1867, by order in council of December 28, 1866. No time was lost by the new local legislature in reforming the currency system. Under date of April 1, 1867, the legal-tender act of 1867 was passed, repealing all laws for making Indian coins legal tender and declaring that from April 1 'the dollar issued from Her Majesty's mint at Hongkong, the silver dollar of Spain, Mexico, Peru, and Bolivia, and any other silver dollar to be specified from time to time by the governor in council, shall be the only legal tender in payment or on account of any engagement whatever, except as is hereinafter mentioned (i. e., as to subsidiary silver coins), within this colony and its dependencies, provided, that no dollar shall be a legal tender unless it be of the same fineness and intrinsic value as the Hongkong dollar, and be not less than 415 grains troy weight, and be not injured or defaced.' The act goes on to place limits of tender of \$2 and \$1, respectively, on 'such copper or bronze coins as may now be current in the colony and its dependencies under act No. 6 of 1847 of the Indian legislature, as well as such copper or bronze coins as may be issued from Her Majesty's mint, or any branch thereof, representing the cent or one-hundredth part, the half cent or two-hundredth part, and the quarter cent or four-hundredth part of the dollar.

"So long as the Hongkong mint was working no question could arise as to the supply of suitable subsidiary coins in silver and copper, provision for the currency of which had been made in the act of 1867. But, as the Hongkong mint was closed in 1868, only two years after its opening, and as the tokens struck at that mint were speedily absorbed, it became necessary for the Straits to provide their own subsidiary coinage. This the colony proceeded to do in 1871, under the provisions of the local act of 1867, this highest denomination for the first fifteen years being the 20-cent piece. On the model of Hongkong, the silver tokens of the Straits were of 800 millesimal fineness. In 1886 a token half dollar was added of the same standard. The details of the coins struck for the Straits from 1871 to 1891 will be found in the twenty-second annual report of the deputy master of the mint, the total being given as \$2,684,850. If the population of the Straits Settlements on December 31, 1891, be taken in round numbers at 513,000, the above total coinage of silver and copper tokens for the colony is equivalent to \$5.23 per head; but this figure represents a maximum rather than an actual circulation, for a considerable number of Straits tokens are carried off (though not to the extent prevailing in Hongkong) for circulation in neighboring countries.

"To revert to the standard coin, it is to be noted that by order of the governor, in council of January 10, 1874 (under the ordinance of 1867), the American trade dollar and the Japanese yen (which was coined on the model of the Hongkong dollar and with the Hongkong machinery) were admitted to unlimited legal tender, equally with the Mexican dollar.

"For some years before 1890 the colony was flooded with the copper coins of the North Borneo Company. As the law on the subject was not deemed sufficiently stringent to deal with the evil, it was decided in 1890 to consolidate and amend the currency legislation of the colony. This was done by the order in council of October 21, 1890, which came into force on January 1, 1891. It left the local system of currency unaltered. By act of 1895 the Mexican silver dollar was made the standard coin for the colony, but the British and Hongkong dollar were also made legal tender.

#### THE CURRENCY OF THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

The British vice-consul at Manila, in a recent report on the currency of the Philippines, makes the following statements:

**GOLD.**—The currency of the Philippine Islands was originally gold, Spanish "onzas" of Charles III and Ferdinand VII predominating. Small gold coins, with "Filipinas" inscribed on them, of \$1, \$2, and \$4 were locally minted at Manila and were not current in Spain. The Manila mint was open to the public until 1868 for the coining of the above three pieces at a small charge. Coined gold (principally American double eagles) was recoined. Very few ingots, if any, were used for this purpose, the operation leaving a clear profit of 18 to 20 per cent. This practice ceased when exchange declined heavily and left no profit.

**SILVER.**—Mexican and old Spanish dollars, with fractions of the latter, constituted the silver currency. These Spanish coins, which comprise the now rare "Dos Mundos" set and specimens of Ysabel II, together with the imported Mexicans, were frequently at a premium over the gold dollar; similar conditions also existing in the island of Cuba. When, however, silver began to depreciate the gold coin was rapidly exported and replaced by Mexican dollars. In 1877 the gold currency was considered a failure, owing to the above reasons. About this time a law was passed by the Spanish Government prohibiting the importation of Mexican dollars, but permitting the circulation of those that were already in the island. Smuggling from China of Mexican dollars (dated previous to 1878) was carried out during the Spanish régime, in many instances with the aid and knowledge of the Spanish customs and other officials. Gold consequently left the island completely. The dollars fluctuated according to the price of silver, and the fluctuation reached sometimes 10 to 15 per cent. The smuggled importation continued until it would drop to par. For instance, during the export season, when money was scarce, Manila rates would rule as high as 10 or 15 per cent over those in Hongkong and China, whence the dollars were smuggled, which attracted contraband, while in the autumn the exchange would fall to par in those places, there being frequently an export of Mexicans at this season, to be again replaced by smuggled coins when required.

The Government at Madrid, it is said, endeavored to alleviate this state of affairs, especially as there was a big depreciation of Philippine as compared with Spanish silver, but could not act for the want of funds.

Several millions of Mexican dollars were recoined in Manila and converted into pieces of 10, 20, and 50 cents—\$35 fineness and 25 grams. The treasury gained 10 per cent on this operation, but was unable to materially decrease the large stock of Mexicans. These locally minted pieces differed from the Spanish, since their value was stated in fractions of a peso; thus the 20-cent piece was inscribed "20 cent. de peso," while of those in Spain the inscription read "una peseta."

In 1897 the money question became serious, and at the commencement of the Philippine insurrection some 6,000,000 of coins of \$1 each, 900 fine, 45 grams, were minted in Spain and sent to the Philippines. They were similar to the Spanish current dollars, but were marked "Islas Filipinas," and bore the head of Alfonso XIII. These dollars were 8 per cent under the value of the Mexicans. Some 7,000,000 or 8,000,000 may be considered as a fair estimate of the number of Mexicans circulating in the Philippines at this period. Besides this, a large number of half dollars was exported for use in Morocco, presumably to pay part of that country's indemnity to Spain, until legislation put an end to the business. On the arrival of the Americans a large amount of United States gold was brought

by the military. Some difficulty was experienced at the beginning, as the natives and Chinamen did not know the values. The exchange of United States gold or silver to the Philippine or Mexican silver is commonly accepted at \$1 United States for \$2 Mexican or Philippine, but the exchange varies at the banks and large commercial houses according to the value of the Mexican dollar in London and San Francisco. Mexican dollars, irrespective of dates, have been recently imported through the banks in large quantities. There is a shortage of subsidiary coinage, no fraction of the Mexican silver dollar having ever been in circulation.

Notes.—Notes of \$5, \$10, \$25, \$50, and \$100, and it is believed some few of \$200, were issued by the Banco Español Filipino, and are still current. The notes of \$200 are now being recalled. This question of notes is problematical. The American authorities may recognize the privileges granted by the Spanish Government to this bank, twenty-one years of which are still unexpired.

## RULES AND REGULATIONS UNDER WHICH BANKS AND BANKING IN THE BRITISH COLONIES ARE CONDUCTED.

Banks and banking methods are necessarily an extremely important feature of the business life and business success of the colony. Naturally supplies of currency are small, especially in the early history of the colony, and supplies of available capital for business enterprises are much more limited than in older countries. Business relations in the colonies, especially those relating to commerce, must necessarily be largely with distant countries, and the importance of banks and exchange facilities is in this case very great. These facts led to careful study by the British financiers and lawmakers of the question of banking in the colonies, and a general banking policy was evolved prior to 1840 which was intended to (1) require notes to be cashed on demand in specie at the place of issue, as well as at the principal establishment of the issuing bank; (2) prohibiting the issue of notes below £1 value; (3) requiring periodical returns of liabilities and assets and their publication; (4) making stockholders liable for twice the amount of their stock. These regulations were in 1846 modified with reference to the colonies so as to provide that (1) notes redeemable in specie on demand must not be of less denomination than £1, and must not exceed the total paid-up capital of the bank; (2) their formal security to consist of the specie reserve, amounting to one-third of the circulation, and the general liability of the stockholders for double the amount of their stock. These provisions relate exclusively to bank paper. The issue of notes by colonial governments has been discouraged by the British Government, though in a few cases, such issues have been made.

The following regulations for banking companies in the colonies are from the British Colonial Office List, 1901:

### REGULATIONS RESPECTING THE INCORPORATION OF BANKING COMPANIES IN THE COLONIES.

In charters or legislative enactments relating to the incorporation of banking companies in the colonies, provision should be made for the observance of the following regulations and conditions:

The amount of the capital of the company and number of shares to be determined, and the whole of such determined amount to be subscribed for within a limited period, not exceeding eighteen months from the date of the charter or act of incorporation.

Shareholders to be declared a body corporate, with common seal and perpetual succession, and other usual corporate powers, and with any requisite proviso that judgment against the corporation shall attach to all additional liability of the shareholders, as well as to paid-up capital and other property of the company.

Provision to be made, either by recital and confirmation of any deed of settlement in these respects or otherwise, for the due management of the company's affairs by appointment of directors, etc., so far as shall seem necessary for the security of the public.

No by-law of the company to be repugnant to the conditions of the charter or act of incorporation, or to the laws of any colony in which the company's establishments may be placed.

The corporate body thus constituted may be specially empowered, subject to the conditions hereafter mentioned, to carry on for a limited term of years (not to exceed twenty-one years unless under particular circumstances), and within the colony or colonies specified in the charter or act of incorporation, but not elsewhere, the business of banker, and for the like term to issue and circulate within the said colony or colonies, but in such manner only as shall not be at variance with any general law of the colony, promissory notes payable in specie on demand.

Such banking business or issue of notes not to commence or take place until the whole of the fixed capital of the company has been subscribed for, and a moiety at least of the subscription paid up. The remaining moiety of the capital to be paid up within a given period from the date of the charter or act of incorporation, such period not in general to exceed two years.

In all cases in which shares in the company's stock are transferred between the period of the grant of the charter or act of incorporation and the actual commencing of business by the bank, the responsibility of the original holder of the transferred shares to continue for six months at least after the date of the transfer.

The company not to advance money on security of lands, or houses, or ships, or on pledge of merchandise, nor to hold land or houses, except for the transaction of its business, nor own ships, or be engaged in trade, except as dealers in bullion or bills of exchange, but to confine its transactions to discounting commercial paper and negotiable securities, and other legitimate banking business. The company may, however, accept lands, or houses, or ships, or shares in its capital stock, or other real or personal property in liquidation of, or as a security for any debt bona fide previously due to the company, or as a security for payment of any sum for which any person may have rendered himself liable to the company, and hold them for such reasonable time as may be necessary to dispose of and convert the same into money.

The company not to hold shares in its own stock, nor to make advances on the security of those shares.

The discounts or advances by the company on securities bearing the name of any director or officer thereof, as drawer, acceptor, or endorser, not to exceed at any time one-third of the total advances and discounts of the bank.

The dividends to shareholders to be made out of profits only, and not out of the subscribed capital of the company.

The total amount of the debts and liabilities of the company, whether upon bonds, bills, promissory notes, or otherwise contracted, over and above the amount of deposits on banking accounts with the company's establishments, not to exceed at any time three times the amount of the capital stock subscribed and actually paid up.

No promissory or other notes to be issued for sums under £1 (or in the North American colonies £1 Halifax currency), or the equivalent thereof in any other local currency, and not for fractional portions of such pound or other equivalent amount.

All promissory notes of the company, whether issued from the principal establishment or from branch banks, to bear date at the place of issue, and to be payable on demand in specie at the place of date.

The total amount of the promissory notes payable on demand, issue, and in circulation not at any time to exceed the amount of the capital stock of the company actually paid up. A reserve of specie always to be maintained equal to one-third of the amount of notes at any time in circulation.

In the event of the assets of the company being insufficient to meet its engagements, the shareholders to be responsible to the extent of twice the amount of their subscribed shares (that is, for the amount subscribed, and for a further and additional amount equal thereto).

Suspension of specie payments on demand at any of the company's banking establishments, for a given number of days (not in any case exceeding sixty) within any one year, either consecutively or at intervals, or other breach of the special conditions upon which the company is empowered to open banking establishments or to issue and circulate promissory notes, to forfeit those privileges, which shall cease and determine upon such forfeiture as if the period for which they had been granted had expired.

The company to make up and publish periodical statements of its assets and liabilities monthly, showing under the heads specified in the form which is inserted in the Appendix No. 12, the average of the amount of its notes in circulation, and other liabilities, at the termination of each week or month, during the period to which the statement refers, and the average amount of specie or other assets that were available to meet the same. Copies of these statements to be submitted to the government of the colony within which the company may be established; and the company to be prepared, if called upon, to verify such statements by the production, as confidential documents, of the weekly or monthly balance sheets from which the same are compiled. And also to be prepared, upon requisition from the lords of the treasury, to furnish, in like manner, such further information respecting the state or proceedings of its banking establishments as their lordships may see fit to call for. The governor to be also empowered to verify the statements of the company of the amount of specie held by them.

The charter or act of incorporation may provide for an addition to the capital of the company within specified limits, with the sanction of the lords of the treasury; such additional capital and the shares and subscriptions which may constitute the same, to be subject in every respect, from and after the date of the signification of such sanction, to conditions and regulations similar to those applying to the original capital.

Applications for charters of incorporation of joint stock companies engaged exclusively or chiefly in colonial undertakings, whether made in this country or in the colonies, can not be granted until the heads of the project shall have been submitted for the consideration of the governor and his executive council.

The governor will furnish the secretary of state with a report stating whether the undertaking is one which, in his opinion, it would be desirable to encourage, with a view to colonial interests, especially as regards the colony under his government.

The governor's report will be taken into consideration by the secretary of state and by the board of trade, or, in cases in which the application relates exclusively to banking companies, by the board of treasury.

His Majesty's Government reserves to itself the power of deciding whether privileges, to be exercised under charters granted for this country, should be extended to companies, approved by the colonial government, for colonial undertakings.

The imperial act 18 and 19 Vict., chap. 133, provides for the limitation of liability of members of certain joint stock companies.

See also circular of March 16, 1874, as to establishment of agencies, and circular of August 18, 1875, by which it is directed that laws relating to banking undertakings and the circulation of notes should contain a suspending clause.

### EMIGRATION OF CAPITAL TO THE COLONIES.

Movements of capital from the governing country to the colony are always a characteristic of the relationship between the mother country and the colony. In the class of colonies in which people of the governing country make permanent homes and form what Sir Charles Dilke very properly terms a "habitation colony," an emigration of capital is in part coincident with the emigration of population and in part the result of the necessity for funds for use in developing the new territory. In the class of colonies in which the governing nation is represented by a small population the emigration of capital to the colonies is more frequently for the purpose of establishing large enterprises, developing great tracts for the production of important staples, or the collection of products of native labor and their transportation to the mother country or the markets of the world. In either case, in all prosperous colonies there is a large emigration of capital from the mother country, whether the emigration of individuals is large or small.

#### FOUR BILLIONS OF BRITISH CAPITAL IN THE BRITISH COLONIES.

Sir Charles Dilke, in his *Problems of Greater Britain*, estimates that about four billions of dollars of British money are invested in the British colonies, largely in the form of loans, and adds that "this vast sum is loaned at a comparatively low rate of interest, largely on account of the political connection that exists, inasmuch as it is lent more freely and in an increasing rate to portions of the Empire as compared with the amounts lent to countries under a different flag. Not only is it the case that the feeling of security produced by the peaceful relations which are involved in the present tie leads the British investor to his present field, but the connection is also to be powerfully supported by other less material arguments. The connection, even though it be little more than nominal, which exists between the United Kingdom and countries like Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa stimulates the energy of the English people, but it also prevents the growth of a hopeless provincialism in the colonies themselves."

#### CAPITAL REQUIRED IN DEVELOPING COLONIAL INDUSTRIES.

The benefit to the industries of the home country consequent upon the introduction of the capital of the colonizing country into the colony, even when unaccompanied by a large element of population from the home country, is too obvious to require detailed discussion. With the development of the colony through the investment of this capital come increased production and sales of raw materials, and with these come increased desires for and importations of manufactures, which are naturally drawn largely from the mother country, especially if the capital has been supplied by that country. This is commented upon by Ricardo, in his *Principles of Political Economy*, in which he says: "Demand is only limited by production. No man produces but with a view to sell, and he never sells but with an intention to purchase some other commodity which may be immediately useful to him or which may contribute to future production. By producing, then, he necessarily becomes either the consumer of his own goods or the purchaser and consumer of the goods of some other person." Merivale, in his sixth lecture on colonization, holds that not only is the investment of capital in commercial enterprises

advantageous to the commerce of the home country, but also that the sums expended by the home government in the establishment and advancement of those colonies is advantageously invested from this standpoint. "The capital spent on colonization by a country exporting manufactures," he says, "is not wasted in productivity or lost to the resources of the parent state. It is spent in founding a fresh market for our goods and in stimulating a new and more intense demand for them. Let the whole of the capital which was expended by England in the foundation of the North American colonies be estimated at its fullest amount, is it credible that the total annual increase of that capital from their first settlement to the era of American independence would amount to the income which England has derived in the last twenty years from the American cotton trade?" In his seventh lecture he also calls attention to the reciprocal advantages of the commerce with the colony growing out of its increased production and increased purchasing power as a result of the investment of capital furnished by the home government. "That the poor man possesses additional articles of food and clothing, and many little comforts or enjoyments which were unknown to his forefathers," he says, and "that members of the richer and middle classes, in return for the outlay of a similar proportion of their income, can indulge in many luxuries which were heretofore denied them, are, after all, the great primary benefits which the discovery of America and the spread of colonization have secured to us. And it is to a similar increase in our physical well being that we ought to look as the chief economical advantage to be derived to us from its further extension. The increase of the demand for our products of national industry is good, not because it enables us to part more readily with these products, but because it increases our means of acquiring articles of necessity, comfort, and luxury in exchange. It is not the export of so many millions worth of cotton goods which benefits England; it is the acquisition of the sugar and coffee, the wines, tea, silk, and other numberless articles of value which we receive in return. Our best customers are, not those who take most of our produce, but those who give the greatest amount of value in exchange for it."

#### VALUABLE RETURNS ON CAPITAL INVESTED IN COLONIES.

While it is not, of course, practicable to cite exact figures as to the amount of capital which has emigrated from the home countries to the colonies, or the net results of such investments, it may be said, in connection with Sir Charles Dilke's estimate that four billions of dollars of British capital have been invested or loaned in the colonies, that these colonies, through their increased producing power, are now annually supplying over five hundred and fifty million dollars worth of the articles which England imports, and taking in return over five hundred million dollars worth of the products of her industry, as against about one-sixth of that sum a half century ago, when their exports to Great Britain aggregated eighty-five million dollars and their purchases from that country were about eighty-seven million dollars in value.

M. Leroy-Beaulieu, commenting upon the movements of capital toward the colonies, first in the possession of emigrants, and second as forwarded to the colonies by capitalists or by individuals making small investments or loans, says, that while many persons themselves find it difficult to emigrate to the colonies, especially to those in which the climate is unsuited for the habitation of Europeans, their capital can, on the contrary, without distinction of locality, seek for the best and most productive fields of investments. Investors, of whatever class, whether banker, the modest employee, the workman, or the widow, may make investments or loans of their capital in the colonies, and while developing those colonies obtain earnings far in excess of that which the capital would produce in the home country. These prove beneficial, not only because of the higher rental which the capitalist investor obtains for his funds, but also by reason of the larger profit which those handling the funds in the newer countries obtain for themselves and the development of the prosperity of the new country, and with that development the increase of commerce between the mother country and the colony.

#### USE OF CHARTERED COMPANIES IN COLONIAL DEVELOPMENT.

The revival of chartered companies by which the first stage of development in absolutely new territory is accomplished is so marked a characteristic of modern colonial enterprise as to justify a description of their methods. The unpopularity of chartered companies of a century ago—the East Indian companies of England, and Netherlands and France, the Hudson's Bay Company, and others—led to their abandonment and to the supposition that they had forever disappeared from the field of colonial development. When, however, the English Government concluded to extend its dominion in Africa in competition largely with other European governments which were parceling out that great continent, the use of chartered companies for obtaining control of territory over which dominion had been merely proclaimed, but not established, was deemed advantageous.

#### RECENT USE OF CHARTERED COMPANIES IN BRITISH AFRICA.

In 1877 Mr. Goldie-Taubman conceived the idea that by uniting the interests of the few British traders located in the great territory of western Africa on the Niger River and vicinity and obtaining concessions from native chiefs a great territory and population might be brought under a distinct form of government, the resources of the country developed, and profitable industries established, and at the same time the condition of the people bettered. He therefore applied in 1879 for a charter for a company for this work, and in 1881 a charter was granted to the National African Company with a capital of £1,000,000, the object being to open up direct relations with the great potentates of the interior of the country mentioned. A river flotilla was constructed and pushed up the Niger and its branches, stations established, and treaties made with over 300 native potentates. Commerce was established, roads and methods of communication created, and a form of government established. Meantime the territory was declared a British protectorate (1884-1887) and in 1900, in pursuance of the terms of the original charter, the government and possession of the territory, having an area of 500,000 square miles and a population numbering probably 30,000,000, were transferred to the British Crown.

In 1888 a charter was issued to the Imperial British East Africa Company, giving it "the entire management of those parts of the islands and mainland of the Zanzibar dominions on the east coast of Africa, between Wanga and Kipani," with full powers of acquiring territory westward as far as the zone of British influence extended, from the eastern coast of Africa to the boundaries of the Kongo Free State. This gave an area estimated at 750,000 square miles. The company organized its government and police force, established lines of communication, and at once entered upon harbor works and other improvements at Mombasa, the principal port; surveyed lines for railways, began the construction of a railroad to the interior, intended to extend finally to Lake Nyanza; established stations in the interior, explored the rivers, established a steamer line running between ports on the coast, established a postal system, became a member of the Postal Union, and, in 1895, transferred its territory to the British Government. In 1889 a charter was granted to the



British South Africa Company, conferring upon it large powers of administration, to develop the country lying north of Cape Colony and to extend northward the railway and telegraph systems of Cape Colony and Bechuanaland, and to encourage immigration and colonization, promote trade and commerce, and to develop and work mineral and other concessions. The term for which the charter was granted was twenty-five years, with provisions for renewal after twenty-five years, if found desirable. The territory administered by this company, whose area has been from time to time extended, is now about 450,000 square miles. About 3,000 miles of roads, post routes, etc., have been established, and are maintained by the company; about 4,000 miles of telegraph line constructed, the railroad extended north from the Cape Colony lines to Bulawayo and now being extended toward Lake Tanganyika. About 10,000,000 acres of land have been surveyed, mining claims and farms sold, towns established, the country policed, agriculture encouraged, agricultural experiment stations established, immigration invited, and commerce greatly stimulated.

#### CHARTERED COMPANIES IN THE ORIENT.

In 1882 an association known as the British North Borneo Company was chartered to assume the government of the northern part of the island of Borneo in the East Indies, which territory had been transferred by the sultans of Brunei and Sulu to a syndicate, which became a part of the company. In 1888 the British Government assumed a formal protectorate over the territory, but the territory continues to be administered by the company, which is developing the country, has established internal communication, chiefly by water, made itself a member of the Postal Union, constructed telegraph and railway lines, organized a police force under European officers, issued a currency, established a tariff, and encouraged but not engaged in commerce.

#### CHARTERED COMPANIES IN THE GERMAN, PORTUGUESE, AND BELGIAN COLONIES.

This return by Great Britain to the use of chartered companies in developing new territory was followed by similar action on the part of the German Government, which organized a series of chartered companies for the development of its African territory; also by Portugal for the development of its territory in Africa; by Belgium for similar purposes in the Kongo, while some steps in this line have also been taken by the French Government.

#### CAUSES OF THE RETURN TO USE OF CHARTERED COMPANIES.

The return at the end of the nineteenth century to the use of chartered companies, so strongly condemned at the beginning of that century, is doubtless accounted for in a large degree by the changed conditions of communication and by better opportunities for a close observation of the operations of such companies. In the earlier history of chartered companies they operated at long distances from the seat of government and in the absence of telegraphs communication with them occupied many weeks, and with the interior of the territory many months. Now the principal points where such companies operate are in constant communication with the seat of the home government, and many of the stations which the companies establish in the interior of their territory are connected by telegraph with the principal office, while the great improvements in steamship and mail facilities render detailed communication a matter of but a few days. Under these new charters the British Government reserves to itself the power of appointing an officer or officers to be present in the territory thus governed to constantly supervise the workings of the company, and to keep the British Government advised of all such operations. The budget of the company showing its receipts and expenses are to be submitted to the under secretary of state for the colonies for examination and approval or otherwise. The tariffs imposed must also be subjected to scrutiny by the home Government and all of the operations of the company are thus kept constantly under the eye of the Government; while the terms of the charter give to the Government the power of preventing abuses. The powers granted to these companies, subject to such supervision, are very broad. They are permitted to establish a State, to make a form of government, establish laws and regulations, create a police force and a military force, if necessary, establish tariffs and other means of taxation, encourage immigration and agriculture, and to sell or lease land for agricultural or mining purposes. While great power over territory, property, persons, and even life is thus given to the company, the presence of official representatives of the home Government, the supervision by the home Government itself, and the fact that the principal office of the company is also at the seat of the home Government, coupled with the facility for the quick transmission of information and complaints of mismanagement, are looked upon as sufficient safeguards against the abuse or misuse of the great power thus granted.

Hon. C. P. Lucas, whose thorough familiarity with colonial matters and high standing as a student of this subject have already been referred to, says on this subject: "One of the special causes or features of the new forward policy in British colonial matters is the regeneration of the system of chartered companies. It is at once cause and effect. It is an effect of a fresh outburst of colonial enterprise; and it is a cause of moving further along the path of annexation, by giving to that enterprise cohesion, organization, and a definite plan. The East India Company had but lately passed out of existence; the Hudson's Bay Company had ceded its territorial rights; the age of great chartered companies seemed wholly gone; yet in these last days, as if to emphasize the fact that a new era of colonial annexation had dawned, the trade and administration of great territories is being once more taken in hand by companies of merchants. Why has the day of these chartered companies come again? The answer will be found in threatened or actual competition in lands unoccupied by Europeans. In the general scramble for the remaining waste places of the world the English, true to their instincts and their traditions, have fallen back on the semiprivate agencies which on the whole worked so well for them in the past. By those who believe that Great Britain should keep moving forward in the interests of the world in general as much as in her own, the revival of chartered companies will be taken as a healthy sign. It is one of the best features of the English that they like, if possible, to keep the Government in the background, and not to have its work cut and dried beforehand. Adam Smith expressed an opinion that 'the government of an exclusive company of merchants is perhaps the worst of all governments for any country whatever,' but he wrote in an age widely different from the present. The essence of the old charters was monopoly of trade, the new charters, on the contrary, contain provisions specially prohibiting such monopoly. With steamers, telegraphs, and newspapers, everything is now known and public opinion is quickly aroused and strongly felt. The chances of abuse are minimized, the chances of doing good work are at least as good as they ever were. On the whole, it may be said that the second birth of chartered companies is one of the hopeful as it is one of the most unexpected signs of the times \* \* \*. Let colony shade into protectorate, and protectorate into sphere of influence, and as skirmishers in front of the main body of organized British possessions, let trading companies go on and do their work to be absorbed hereafter in the fullness of time."

## POWERS GRANTED TO COMPANIES AND THEIR GENERAL CONTROL BY THE GOVERNMENT.

The extent of the power granted to these chartered companies and the manner in which it is exercised is illustrated by the following statements regarding their work in their respective territories, from the Imperial Institute Year-Book, the Statesman's Year-Book, and the Colonial Office List, all recognized as standard British authorities.

The National African Company, which created and developed to its present form the British protectorate now known as Nigeria, a territory covering about 500,000 square miles, with a population estimated at 30,000,000, was organized in 1882, but the charter was not granted until 1886. Meantime, however, political treaties were made by the company with about 300 native chiefs and heads of tribes or states. Stations were established in the interior, a flotilla of boats placed on the Niger River, and the work of making treaties with the local chiefs pushed with great speed and at heavy expense to prevent the territory being taken possession of by the French. After the completion of the charter and the cession of the lands by the French, an elaborate organization was built up, intertribal war checked, and pagan sacrifices and slave raiding terminated. Expeditions by the French were checkmated, and an agreement arrived at with France for a boundary line. An effort by the head of one of the large native tribes to drive the white man out of the country resulted in the organization of an army of 600 well-drilled soldiers, led by about 30 British officers, and although this small army had to contend with a force estimated at 20,000, it was successful, and hostilities were quickly terminated. The complete control of the territory having been obtained, the basis of an organization of government framed, and communication with the interior established, the territory was, in the year 1900, after thirteen and one-half years of control by the company, transferred to the Crown, and the country was subsequently organized as a trading company, under the name of the Niger Company, Limited.

The South African territory known as Rhodesia is now governed by the British South Africa Company, to which a charter was granted in 1889, the purpose being to extend northward the railway and telegraph system of Cape Colony and Bechuanaland, to encourage immigration and colonization, promote trade and commerce, and develop and work mineral and other concessions. In the year following a police force was organized, raised and equipped by the company, and an expedition organized to cut a road through a section of the country to Mount Hampden, where gold-bearing quartz was known to exist. This undertaking was successful, and the pioneers were then disbanded and, in accordance with the agreement made with them, allowed to peg off ore-bearing claims. The hostility of the natives at various subsequent dates required the raising of a military force by the company, and numerous engagements between this force and the natives occurred, and in 1896 Imperial troops were sent to the assistance of the company's police and volunteers in their struggles with the natives. Meantime towns had been established, Bulawayo, the principal town, having a white population of 7,500. Banks had also been established at Salisbury, Bulawayo, Umatilla, and other places. Hospitals had been erected, equipped, and maintained at a high state of efficiency. Two thousand seven hundred and thirty-four miles of public roads had been constructed, with 860 miles more under construction, and telegraph lines to the extent of about 4,000 miles had been built. Railroad lines had been extended to all of the principal centers thus governed, and work is now progressing to carry these lines northward to Lake Tanganyika, at the northern terminus of the company's territory. A mail service has been established throughout Rhodesia, the inland mails being carried by native runners. The number of post-offices in operation on March 31, 1900, was 54. The number of letters and post cards dispatched during the year was 834,000, of which 610,000 were to places in South Africa. The postal revenue was £18,167 and the expenditure £26,122. The number of telegrams sent and received was 296,000, and the revenue from telegraphs £25,300 and the expenditure on telegraph service £24,725. There is, in addition, an extensive telephone system in operation. About 10,000,000 acres of land have been surveyed and the sales of towns and suburban stands in six principal places in 1897 amounted to about £100,000. The capital of the company, which originally was £1,000,000, has been increased to £5,000,000. The estimated revenues for the year ending March 31, 1901, were £426,800, and the expenditures £781,317. Whittaker's Almanac for 1901 thus describes the method of government of Rhodesia: "Southern Rhodesia is administered by the company under a charter of 1889, as amended by the orders in council of 1894 and 1898. The senior administrator is now advised by an administrative council of seven and a legislative council of eleven members, the latter comprising two elected representatives from each province. The proceedings and enactments of both councils are subject to the sanction of the high commissioner, as representing the Crown, and his deputy, the resident commissioner, is present, without a vote, at their sittings. The laws in force in Cape Colony up to June 10, 1891, have continued in force in southern Rhodesia, as far as they are applicable, while from 1891 to 1899, when the legislative council was first convened, laws were amended or enacted by the ordinances of the directors and regulations of the administrator in council, and the proclamations of the high commissioner. Municipal self-government has been established for Bulawayo and Salisbury, under mayors and town councils. Justice is administered by the resident magistrates and judges, the sanction of the Crown, as represented by the high commissioner, being required for all judicial appointments of every rank. Trial by jury was established in 1899. There is an appeal to the high court at Cape Town, and thence to the privy council."

## A FRENCH VIEW OF CHARTERED COMPANIES.

No such company has yet been chartered by the French Government, says Lanessan. "The Parliament to be sure had under discussion a bill of this nature in 1891, but, judging by the preliminary discussion which has taken place, it is not likely that the bill will be passed in the near future, for, if any, this measure lends itself least to parliamentary discussion. The Government had requested the simple right to charter such colonization companies by executive decrees under the form of regulations regarding public administration. It was found that the demands went too far, and the Senate committee, to which the matter was referred first of all, began by trying to limit its powers; this attempt, however, was not successful, as the whole subject proved to be too delicate. On the other hand, among the superior council of the colonies the prevailing opinion was in favor of a severe and minute control by the State over the companies; so much so that the existence of the latter became impossible. No company could be expected to invest considerable capital in a risky enterprise and to be subject at the same time to daily interference by the State, for this would have meant certain ruin to it; on the other hand, no government could be found which would have accepted the responsibilities resulting from the obligation of such a strict control which the Senate expected it to exercise. Given the atmosphere of suspicion and distrust prevailing in French Parliament, I doubt whether a minister could be found of sufficient courage to accept all the responsibilities resulting from daily interference with the affairs of a financial company such as the chartered company of South Africa, the German company of East Africa, the Niger company, etc. For all these reasons I doubt very much whether we will succeed in organizing in France colonization companies similar to those which are now conquering Africa in the interests of our rivals.

"In an official report, dated June 10, 1895, Mr. André Lavertujon submitted to his colleagues of the Senate the following considerations regarding affairs in Africa and the subject of colonization companies: 'The only title which a civilized nation may claim

to occupy uncivilized territory can be derived from the obligation common to all mankind to bring under cultivation the remaining part of the earth, our common habitat. If this provision of the natural law is obeyed by us not better than by the Negroes, then we have no pretext to take their place. Having coveted and grabbed so much, how are we to continue without putting to use what we have? We have, therefore, to restrain and suppress in a stoic manner the desire which pushes us every day to fill our hands with more and more. On the contrary, we must empty them as quickly as possible by turning over our holdings to other hands either less weak or less full. It is thus only that we shall escape moral bankruptcy.'

#### EGERTON ON MODERN CHARTERED COMPANIES.

H. E. Egerton, discussing chartered companies, in his *History of English Colonial Policy*, 1897, says: "The period of Greater Britain has also to find an answer to the question how to recognize the necessity of development and expansion without laying a heavy burden on the present generation of taxpayers. The answer has been found in the revival of the system of chartered companies, a system which played so great a part in past colonization. The recent unpleasant experiences in connection with the British South Africa Company have surrounded the subject with an atmosphere of suspicion and controversy, from which it is most desirable to escape. At the outset we may note the happy coincidence which produced at the right moment the right men to retrieve the mistakes of governments. So far as Uganda and Nigeria are concerned, it seems clear that but for Sir W. Mackinnon and Sir George Goldie (the heads of the respective countries) they would have been lost to Great Britain. The question with regard to Rhodesia is less clear, though its development would as yet hardly have begun but for the action of the British South Africa Company. In discussing the general question of development by means of chartered companies, a broad distinction must be drawn between companies administering lands where Europeans can only go and trade, as on the Niger, and companies administering lands where the climate permits European immigration, as in Rhodesia. The main business of the former company is trade, and, like the East India companies, they became rulers only in consequence of trade. In their case there seems no question as to the usefulness of chartered companies. Their true work is, in the words of Sir George Goldie, 'the establishing of a state of things which would offer fresh security for the creation of a vast commerce with, and the much needed means of communication in, the rich regions of the central Soudan. When that work was completed, the time would have arrived for the absorption of the company by the Imperial Government.' In such cases we may accept Mr. Lucas's language: 'As skirmishers in front of the main body of organized British possessions, let trading companies go on and do their work, to be absorbed hereafter in the fullness of time.' As I understand the matter, the British South Africa Company undertook more than it was able to perform. But when the other kind of company is in question the answer is more difficult. It is easy to draw false conclusions from the conspicuous case of the British South Africa Company. It will not happen once in a thousand years that a chartered company has behind it, concentrated in one person, the wealth and capacity of Mr. Rhodes. \* \* \* Of course, in the abstract there is very much to be said for the direct administration of the Crown. We may well believe that, just as the State is especially ill fitted to carry on the business of trade, so trading companies are wise in leaving to the State its own peculiar province of administration. It is hardly possible that a private company should be able to secure the same general level of excellence in its officers as can the State. There is one argument in favor of continuing the present administration which seems conclusive. It has been already pointed out that the British South Africa Company is by no means an ordinary example of a chartered company, and that, but for an extraordinary combination of circumstances, it would have been by this time a thing of the past. But, given this extraordinary combination of circumstances, there can be no question but that the work of development is being far more rapidly carried on than would be possible under Imperial administration. The British treasury would never have sanctioned the expenditure of an annual sum sufficient to develop the country, and in the absence of a system under which the lands might be opened out, British control must have spelt stagnation, at least for some years. The alternative was not between an ideally administered British Crown colony and the rule of the chartered company, but between things as they are and the continuance of a savage despotism."

#### LAWS AND LAWMAKING IN THE COLONIES.

The creation and administration of laws and the maintenance of order is, of course, an important feature in the improvement of the material, mental, and moral condition of the people of the colony. Without the maintenance of law and order, the development of industry, thrift, education, religious institutions, and all the things which tend to such improvement, could not exist, nor could the satisfactory development of the colony, in any form, be assured without the establishment of a civil government with laws and regulations properly framed and administered. A temporary government may be administered by the military, but in all cases of successful colonization such control in a comparatively short time gives way to civil administration.

In general terms, it may be said that the method adopted by successful colonial managers has been to adopt and adapt the system of laws existing in the territory in question, provided a definite system exists; and if it does not, to borrow that which does exist in contiguous territory.

Ireland, in his *Tropical Colonization*, says on this subject: "Generally speaking, in all cases where a law has not been passed by a local legislature relative to any particular subject, the law of the sovereign state governing the same subject is held to apply in those colonies which were settled by Englishmen, while in those colonies obtained by conquest or cession from a European power the law of the state which formerly legislated for the colony is applicable."

In India a penal code has been, after many years of study, created, based largely upon English laws and regulations, while the civil laws are largely based upon native customs, and the laws themselves are administered in the lower courts, and in many cases in those of higher grade, by natives of India. With this, of course, is incorporated much that is new, reflecting the views of the best students of this subject in England and in India. In the Netherlands colonies the Dutch have adapted the laws and customs which were in force among the natives, strengthening them with some general principles from the laws of their own country. Europeans and persons assimilated with them are subject to laws nearly similar to those of the mother country, but the natives are subject to their own customs and institutions. In Cape Colony, Ceylon, British Guiana, and other places where the British have succeeded the Dutch, they have adopted and adapted the Roman Dutch law which prevailed under the Dutch administration. In Rhodesia, Bechuanaland, and other colonies and protectorates which are adjacent to Cape Colony the laws of that colony have been extended over the new territory,

with certain modifications. The French have, to a greater degree, transferred to their colonies the laws and regulations of the mother country, and this has been commented upon by writers, even among the French people, as less likely to give satisfactory results than the methods employed by England and Netherlands, in which existing laws and regulations are adopted and adapted and enforced through cooperation of the natives with a few trained representatives of the home government.

Lucas, in his introduction to the 1891 edition of Lewis's *Government of Dependencies*, says: "Nowadays it can hardly be said that Great Britain introduces, or is likely to introduce, into her colonial possessions, her laws, language, and religion, without due regard to the interests of the dependency. The French laws and language and the Roman Catholic religion are in no way tabooed in lower Canada, for instance, or in Mauritius. The Roman-Dutch law is still the basis of the legal system in the old Dutch colonies—the Cape, Ceylon, and British Guiana. At the same time, as Mr. Froude has warned us, it is still the tendency of Englishmen to imagine that English institutions are suited to all races and circumstances, to forget that the native is not a European, and to allow, if not invite, their dependencies to adopt forms of government too advanced for half-civilized people."

Caldecott, in his *English Colonization and Empire*, 1897, says of the laws of the colonies: "The British Empire exhibits forms and methods of government in almost exuberant variety. The several colonies at different periods of their history have passed through various stages of government, and in 1891 there are some thirty or forty forms operative simultaneously within our Empire alone. We find one reflection arising in our minds, however, when we survey the history of this complicated variety, namely: That we are looking at the natural growth of an organism which in its development has taken different forms in adaptation to different needs. No cast-iron mechanism is before us, but a living society exhibiting vital principles, both in what it continues to retain and what it drops or adds by way of alteration. The Briton is supposed to be of a rigid character, but in government he has proved himself to be the most elastic of all Europeans."

Morris, in his *History of Colonization*, says: "If indeed England does not any longer make statutes for them (the colonies) with the same universality of application as in former centuries, it is not the less true that each is caring for itself and its own needs. The measures voted are as diversified in their scope as the characteristics of the regions and races in which and over which they have force. Although be it ever remembered that the old common law is the accepted standard of imperial legislation, constituting for this reason one of the fundamental bonds in the strength of the edifice. The Magna Charta of rights so varied as to suit the requirements of 344,000,000 individuals is in its forms so manifold as to be marvelous."

#### SYSTEMS OF LAWS IN THE PRINCIPAL COLONIES OF THE WORLD.

The following statement, condensed from the *British Imperial Institute Year-Book*, the *British Colonial Office List*, the *Statesman's Year-Book*, and *Lalor's Cyclopædia of Political Economy*, presents a view of the methods of government in British, Dutch, and French colonies, and especially those territories which were populated and had an established form of government and regulations when their control was assumed by the present governing country.

In Canada and Australia the laws are for obvious reasons based upon English law, the population being of English extraction and experience, and living under conditions such as to justify and suggest the adoption and adaptation of English law for their government. The details of the laws created for and now in force in Canada and the Australian colonies, will therefore be unnecessary.

*Algeria*.—The administration of justice in the case of Europeans is the same as in France, the governing country. The natives remain, so far as the civil law is concerned, under the law of Islam, but crimes and misdemeanors committed by Musselmans are punished according to French law. Civil cases are judged in most instances by the cadis. Councils, called medjeles, may revise the judgment of the cadis, but an appeal, properly speaking, is only made to the court of appeals at Algiers, and tribunals at Oran and Constantine, to which are attached Musselman officials for this purpose. There is an appeal court at Algiers and in the arrondissements are sixteen courts of first instance, and there are also commercial courts, and justices of the peace with extensive powers. Criminal justice is organized as in France, and Musselman justice administered to the natives by the cadis is appealable to the French courts. Musselman magistrates receive premiums for a knowledge of French.

*British Guiana*.—The Roman-Dutch law is in force in civil cases, modified by orders in council and local ordinances. The criminal law is based upon that of Great Britain and administered in the same manner, except that there is no grand jury. The existing municipal authorities are a mayor and town council in the cities of Georgetown and New Amsterdam, and village incorporations in nineteen smaller places.

*Cyprus*.—The courts which were in existence at the time of the occupation by the British have been superseded since 1882 by a new system of courts which consists of a supreme court of criminal and civil appeal, six assize courts, six district courts, six magistrate courts, and a series of village courts. Actions are divided into "Ottoman" and "foreign," according to the nationality of the defendant or defendants, and in foreign actions the president of the court alone generally exercises jurisdiction, as also in criminal cases against non-Ottomans. The Musselman courts are presided over by cadis, but their duty is strictly confined to jurisdiction in religious cases affecting the Mohammedan population.

*Fiji*.—The executive council consists of a governor and four official members. The legislative council of a governor and six official and six unofficial nominated members. To the natives a large share of self-government has been conceded. Their system of village and district councils has been recognized and improved and supplemented by an annual meeting of the chiefs and representatives from each province presided over by the governor. The regulations recommended by these bodies have to receive the sanction of the legislative council before becoming law. The colony is divided into seventeen provinces, each under the control of a European commissioner, or roko tui, a chief native officer. Each province is subdivided into districts, and the laws are administered through the head officers, who are termed "bulis." Taxes are paid in the form of produce.

*Gold Coast*.—The law of the Gold Coast Colony, on the western coast of Africa, is the common-law doctrines of equity and statutes of general application enforced in England in 1874, modified by a large number of local ordinances passed at various periods since that date. The criminal law was modified in 1892, and criminal and civil procedure are regulated by a supreme court ordinance. Justice is administered by the supreme court, provisional courts, and inferior courts. Native law is administered in all the courts in so far as it is not incompatible with any statute or ordinance and not repugnant to natural justice.

*Hongkong*.—The English common law forms the basis of the legal system, modified by colonial ordinances. The admiralty act of 1890 recognized the jurisdiction of the supreme court in admiralty cases.

*Jamaica*.—The laws are based on English law with many modifications by the local councils. There is a high court of justice and

petty magistrates' courts throughout the island. The resident magistrates, besides holding courts of their own, preside in the courts of petty sessions. There are elected periodically boards in the parishes with jurisdiction over roads, markets, sanitation, poor relief, etc. There are several direct taxes on land, houses, horse carriages, etc., which are devoted entirely to improvements and administration in the parish in which they are collected.

*Mauritius.*—The law is based on the Code Napoleon and other French laws introduced when Mauritius was controlled by the French Government, but these have since been substantially modified by colonial ordinances.

*Natal.*—The legal system is based upon the Roman-Dutch law which is in force in Cape Colony, modified by local legislation in reference to the English and their descendants. In 1875 steps were taken to supersede the tribal organization in the native population. A law was enacted establishing a native high court to administer justice to the natives and place them under the ordinary criminal law of the colony, except as regards political crimes, crimes arising out of native customs, and crimes declared triable under any local native law, all of which are reserved for the native high court.

*Straits Settlements.*—The law in force is adapted by local ordinances from English and Indian law; the Indian penal code, with slight modifications, having been adopted, while the civil procedure is based on the English judicature acts. There is a supreme court with sessions at Singapore and Penang every two months, and quarterly at Malacca, and it holds civil sittings monthly at Singapore and Penang, and once a quarter at Malacca. In the Malay Federated States, which are administered by the governor of the Straits Settlements, local laws and regulations are in force, but have in many cases been amended through the influence of the British resident in each of the States.

*India.*—Sir James Stephen says of the penal code of India that it "may be described as the criminal law of England freed from all technicalities and superfluities and modified in some few particulars to suit the circumstances of British India." The following description of the laws in force in British India is condensed from Sir John Strachey's work, *India*, which M. Chailley-Bert, who has made a careful study of conditions in India in his *La Colonisation de l'Indo-Chine*, commends in the highest terms.

"In 1793 the issue of formal and definite legislative enactments in India began in the series of laws known as the Bengal, Madras, and Bombay regulations. These, and such acts of Parliament as applied to India, constituted, apart from Hindu and Mohammedan law, of which I must speak separately, the civil and criminal law of British India. Before the transfer of the government to the Crown the administration of criminal justice was in an unsatisfactory condition. \* \* \* In 1853, when the East India Company's charter was renewed, and again in 1861, commissions were appointed to prepare a body of substantive law for India, and to the work of these commissions and to the eminent men who have held the office of legal member of council we owe the succession of excellent laws which have been passed by the Indian legislature and which form chapters in a system of codified law. \* \* \* In 1861 the supreme and sudder courts were abolished by act of Parliament, and in substitution for them high courts with both criminal and civil jurisdiction established. The judges of the high courts are in part English barristers and part members of the Indian civil service, and there are usually in each court one or more native judges chosen from the native judicial service or from the pleaders. These high courts are the courts of appeal from the district courts, criminal and civil, and their decisions are final, except in certain cases in which an appeal lies to the judicial committee of the privy council in England. \* \* \* The code of criminal procedure is in force throughout British India, and among all the laws of India there is no one more important than this, which regulates the machinery by which peace and order are maintained and crime prevented and punished. It describes the constitution of all the criminal courts, defines the powers which each court can exercise, classifies the offenses under the penal code, regulates the manner in which police investigations are to be carried on, the power of the police to make arrests, the proceedings to be taken for keeping the peace, for the removal of public nuisances, and to make all inquiries and trials, and the admission of bills for the revision of sentences. In every province there is a certain number of divisions, in each of which a court of sessions is established, and in every sessions division are a certain number of districts, to each of which the magistrate, called the district magistrate, is attached. To enable the magistrate or judge to exercise jurisdiction over European British subjects he must be appointed a justice of the peace, and the justice of the peace himself must be a European British subject. There are three classes of magistrates: (1) Courts of presidency magistrates and magistrates of the first class, who can pass sentences of imprisonment not exceeding two years and fine not exceeding 1,000 rupees; (2) courts or magistrates of the second class, who can impose sentences not exceeding six months and fine not exceeding 200 rupees; (3) courts or magistrates of the third class, who can pass sentences of imprisonment not exceeding one month or fine not exceeding 50 rupees. In certain cases, and under certain restrictions, magistrates of the first class can pass sentences of whipping. Until 1872 British subjects could only be tried by one of the high courts except in trivial cases. Since that time it has been provided that European British subjects should be tried by magistrates of the highest class, who are also justices of the peace, but it was necessary that the magistrate or judge should himself be a European or British subject. The law has since been so modified that if a native judge be appointed to the post of district magistrate or sessions judge his powers in regard to jurisdiction over European British subjects will be the same as those of an Englishman holding a similar office. This provision, however, is subject to the condition that every European British subject brought to trial may claim the right of trial by a jury of which not less than one-half shall be Europeans or Americans. In case a sufficient number of Europeans and Americans can not be found to constitute a jury the case must be transferred to another district. Until the year 1836 European British subjects were under the jurisdiction of the supreme courts alone. It was then decided that they should be made amenable to the civil courts of the country, and that in this respect no distinction should be maintained between them and natives. Since that time no distinctions of race have been recognized in the civil courts throughout England. At the present time native judges preside over the great majority of the courts. Excepting the higher appellate tribunals almost the whole administration of civil justice is in their (the natives') hands. They exercise jurisdiction in all classes of civil cases over natives and Europeans alike, and no word of objection of the latter is ever heard. A lord chancellor did not give the native judges too high a character when he said, in the House of Lords in 1883, as the result of his experience in Indian cases appealed to the privy council, that 'in respect of integrity, of learning, of knowledge, of soundness, and satisfactory character of the judgments arrived at the judgments of the native judges are quite as good as those of the English.' I think that the highest authorities in India would even go further and say that, excepting the high courts, the native judgments are the better of the two. In disposing of business of this sort superior knowledge of the language and habits of the people gives to the natives many advantages over the Englishmen.

"While the codification of the criminal law of British India is complete, the codification of the civil law is a far more difficult task. Both Hindus and Mohammedans are in possession of great bodies of law, parts of which are believed by them to be of more or less divine origin, containing elaborate instructions on every sort of subject affecting property, inheritance, and the relations of life. Unless native customs and feelings and prejudices are repugnant to humanity and justice we are bound to respect them, and the mere suspicion



that we desire to interfere with them might be politically dangerous. No one is likely to attempt to codify the Mohammedan law, and there is no single body of Hindu law that is generally recognized. It differs in different provinces and is constantly modified by local and personal customs. A large part of the substantive civil law, therefore, must remain untouched by our legislation. Codes relating to contracts, negotiable instruments, transfer of property, etc., and a complete code of civil procedure have already been enacted, and these, with certain exceptions, saving local usages and common rights, are generally applicable throughout British India. Another important chapter of the act of 1865 contains a law of intestate and testamentary succession, but the greater part of it applies only to Europeans and has no application to Hindus or Mohammedans."

#### AN INDIAN AUTHORITY ON INDIAN LAWS.

The following statement on the administration of justice in India is prepared by Romesh Dutt, C. I. E., lecturer in Indian history at the University College, London, late of the Bengal civil service, and published in the British Empire Series, 1900:

##### HIGH COURTS.

"The high courts of Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, and Allahabad, and the chief court of Lahore, exercise appellate and revisional jurisdictions over the judicial work of the judges and magistrates in the different provinces. If there is one institution in India more than another for which the population of India entertain the greatest respect and veneration it is the high courts of India. The Indian mind naturally holds justice as the noblest attribute of sovereignty, and regards a court of justice as higher than the court of a ruler. The executive government of India, too, is based on old and despotic principles, and the people of India naturally regard with respect, and almost with affection, the courts of justice which temper that despotism and control its judicial functions.

"Under the supervision of a high court, which extends over an entire province, there is, generally speaking, a judge in each district in the more advanced parts of India.

##### JUDGES AND CIVIL COURTS.

"A district judge is the head of all the civil courts in his district, but tries very few original cases himself. He has well-trained and able officers under him called subordinate judges and munsifs, who take up and dispose of all civil cases that arise in the district. The ability and integrity with which these officers perform their work have received recognition from the highest authorities from time to time, and prove the wisdom of the policy inaugurated by men like Munro, Elphinstone, and Bentinck, of virtually intrusting the entire civil judicial work to the natives of India. The district judge has a controlling power over these civil courts, and sometimes hears appeals. He also tries those important criminal cases which the magistrate of the district commits to the sessions for trial. In jury districts the judge is assisted by a jury in the disposal of these sessions cases, but in other districts he is assisted by assessors, who sit with him, but whose verdict is not binding on him. Not hampered with executive or revenue work, district and session judges soon acquire a fair degree of judicial training, and the people generally regard their impartial and unbiased decisions with greater respect than the decisions of magistrates who are executive officers and the heads of the local police. It is only very heinous offenses, however, which come up to the sessions judge for decision; most of the criminal work is done by magistrates.

##### MAGISTRATES AND DISTRICT ADMINISTRATION.

"There is a district magistrate in each district in India; his duties are various, and he is the real executive ruler and administrator of his district. It would be difficult within our limits to fully describe the various functions which he has to discharge, or the numerous responsibilities which rest upon him. Briefly speaking, he collects revenues and taxes; he looks after roads and bridges; he controls primary schools and hospitals; he is the head of the district board and local boards; he inspects municipalities; he is the head of the police, and directs inquiries in important cases; he is the general prosecutor in all cases; he is the head magistrate and has the cases tried by his subordinates, and he is the appellate court in reference to all cases tried by his subordinates exercising second and third class powers. It is obvious that this arrangement is not suited to the present time, or to the present state of progress in India. The arrangement was considered necessary in the early years of British rule in India; its continuance, after the lapse of a century, makes British administration more despotic and more generally unpopular than it need be. As a rule, district magistrates are men of ability, judgment, and a great deal of moderation and good sense, but it is not possible for any class of men to be invested with the powers of a policeman and judge, of a prosecutor and appellate court, without giving offense to an intelligent and progressive people, educated in English schools, and keenly alive to the requirements of justice. The question of separating judicial and executive functions in India has been discussed in this country on more than one occasion. Two secretaries of state for India, Lord Cross and Lord Kimberley, recognized that the separation was needed in the interests of justice and of equity, but the reform has been postponed, ostensibly on the ground of want of funds. It is almost inconceivable that the want of funds should be pleaded as an excuse for the continuance of a system of administration which is un-English and unjust, and which makes British rule despotic and unpopular in India.

"Under the district magistrate, there are various classes of magistrates known as 'joint magistrates,' 'assistant magistrates,' 'deputy magistrates,' 'subdeputy magistrates,' 'subdivisional magistrates,' and 'honorary magistrates.' Into a description of these various classes of magistrates it is not necessary for us to enter. It may generally be stated that the remoter portions of a district are parceled off into subdivisions, and all criminal cases in these subdivisions are tried by 'subdivisional magistrates,' or their subordinates. Cases occurring in the central portion of a district come up before the district magistrate himself, and he distributes them among his subordinates at the headquarters of the district.

"The various classes of magistrates enumerated above are generally men of education and experience, and perform their duties in a manner which is creditable to them. Great care is taken to see that cases are not needlessly postponed from day to day, and that the parties and their witnesses are not harassed by being required to attend too often.

#### DUTCH VIEWS REGARDING BRITISH LAW METHODS IN INDIA AND JAVA.

W. J. V. Money, a former British official in India, in his *Java, or How to Manage a Colony*, says: "I am sorry to say many of the Dutch laughed irreverently when I told them that, on account of the natives' dislike to our regulation law, our dislike to the non-regulation no law, and our wish to administer the same law to Europeans and to the thirty-two or more different nations and races of



India, all in different stages of cultivation, we proposed enacting a series of codes for the whole country, which had been elaborated by the cleverest men and best lawyers in England and in India. I urged that these codes contained the latest and most refined theories and decisions on all questions of criminal and civil jurisprudence, and even made preparations in some respects for a more refined law than the English had yet attained to. The Dutch answered that a simple procedure code to facilitate the action of the provincial courts, and to keep the nonprofessional judges within certain limits and up to a certain standard might be very advisable, but that codes of laws, if drawn by wisdom itself, could not but be even newer and stranger to native ideas than the old hated regulations. They added that the more highly civilized such codes were, the more incomprehensible and the more unlike the only native standards of law, the Hindoo and Mussulman precepts, would such codes be. The Dutch asked if in our native schools, as in theirs, the children did not spend their lives in learning the Koran or the Shasters, according to their creed, and in forming their ideas from the laws propounded therein; and they begged to know how we could expect that after every native in the country had learned one combined set of religion and law for sixteen or twenty years he should either understand, should appreciate, or should like laws as different from those inculcated with his faith as light is to darkness. They said they understood the application of European law to natives, when, as the Spaniards had done in the Philippine Islands, the old religions, with the laws thereof, were utterly destroyed and swept away, and the whole population was reared and educated in the Christian faith, with the ideas of Christians, but they asked what we could expect but discontent and dissatisfaction, while teaching Hindu and Mussulman laws and practicing English ones?

#### THE INDIAN CODE OF PROCEDURE.

"Since my return from Java, the code of procedure has been passed and has become the law of India. One of its clauses has had a curious and unexpected result in stopping litigation. It requires the plaintiff to affirm the truth of his complaint, which respectable natives will not do. This arises partly from unwillingness to affirm to the numerous false and speculative cases which yet the native was ready to support by purchased and suborned perjury and forgery, but still more from the stricter native's idea of the indignity of affirming personally even to the truth, and of the impiety of swearing to what, in the smallest particular, may turn out not to be strictly accurate. This will aggravate the existing evil of redress being so constantly sought by illegal means, for the native who will not affirm, even to a true statement, will not scruple to hire armed bravos to make a murderous attack upon his enemy or otherwise to support his pretensions by purchased violence or suborned fraud. So far as litigation is not prevented by the affirming clause, the code of procedure will hardly remedy the evils I have mentioned as the real sore of the Indian provincial jurisprudence, and probably will not affect them at all. It gives no means of restoring oral testimony to its natural prominence in the search after truth, nor does it point out what documentary evidence ought or ought not to be received and looked at by the judge. It assumes that evidence is tendered and objected to, is received or rejected on discussion, and is based altogether on a state of things existing only in the Queen's courts at the Indian capitals, and utterly unknown to either provincial judge or native practitioners. The different native and European judicial officers in the interior of India have had several meetings to try and make out the new requirements and injunctions of the procedure code, which they feel to be totally unsuited to the existing state of things in their courts. It expressly directs the evidence, in civil as well as in criminal cases, to be taken before the judge in fact; but, as it does not alter the former tedious and irrelevant mode of giving evidence, or the slow process of recording question and answer at length, in the uneducated native clerk's complex version of the vernacular, a strict compliance with its provisions on the present system will overwhelm the judge and will cause the arrears of business to be even larger than they now are. As the procedure code neither reduces expenses nor the mass of papers and makes both native lawyers and court clerks more indispensable than before, and as it may also possibly open up new fields of undetected dodges to the native legal practitioner, its reception by those classes is likely to be as flattering as its authors could desire. Should the natives of India, however, fail to receive it as a panacea for their legal woes, the fault, of course, must lie in their stupidity and ignorance. If the object had been to satisfy and content ignorance and stupidity, instead of perforce enlightening them, the procedure code would have been made more like the native's only idea of procedure,—viz, ready access to the judge or court to tell his own story, with either summary justice thereupon, or a short day fixed for the production of witnesses in open court, followed by speedy and final judgment, in accordance with native laws and customs.

#### POSSIBLE RESULT OF EXTENDING THE JAVA SYSTEM TO INDIA.

"The Dutch, by adopting a different course, by simplifying the procedure of the courts, by leaving to the native his old custom or law, and by giving him security for the undisputed enjoyment of his rights, have at least made their judicial system acceptable to the country; while, by gradually abolishing only those provisions of Mussulman law which are abhorrent to humanity, they have succeeded so far in humanizing their subjects without exciting any lasting or serious discontent. This limits the selfish objects of their rule, which does not profess to seek more than the material peace and prosperity of the country. But the question yet remains to be decided, whether a gradual extension of the same system in India might not produce yet larger and more valuable moral results.

"The application of a similar primitive system of jurisprudence might possibly, sooner and more successfully, raise the natives of India to the standard of European cultivation, than enlightened codes which attempt to bridge, at one span, centuries of gradual progression and improvement. Local custom, varying with the varying conditions of society over the wide expanse of our Indian empire, may be more theoretically objectionable, but can hardly be so practically hurtful as the application of the most refined legal speculations of the nineteenth century to different stages of civilization, ranging from the extreme barbarism of some of the jungle tribes to the feudal relations of the thirteenth century, or, at the best, to the low moral and material culture of the Bengalee, with the prejudices and vices of European society in the seventeenth century."

#### SIR G. C. LEWIS ON LAWS IN COLONIES.

Sir G. C. Lewis, in his work on Government of Dependencies, which holds high rank among all European students of colonial methods, says:

"If a territory belonging to an independent state, or being itself independent, is acquired by cession or conquest, the system of law which obtains in it at the time of the acquisition can hardly fail to be considerably different from that of the dominant country which acquires it. In general a country thus acquiring a dependency is satisfied with reorganizing its local government and modifying its public law, and is contented to leave its civil law (or *ius privatum*) unchanged. By this mode of proceeding the dominant country

secures its own dominion and avoids the production of the confusion which must inevitably ensue in any community upon a sudden change of its law of property and contracts. Thus, as we have already seen, the Roman municipia and provinces retained for a time much of their peculiar laws and institutions under the dominion of Rome. In like manner every country conquered by or ceded to the Crown of England retains such laws and rules of law (not inconsistent with the general law of England affecting dependencies) as were in force in it at the time of the conquest or cession until they are repealed by a competent authority. Now, inasmuch as many independent states and many dependent colonies of other states have become English dependencies, many of the English dependencies have retained wholly or in part foreign systems of jurisprudence. Thus Trinidad retains much of the Spanish law; Demarara, the Cape of Good Hope, and Ceylon retain much of the Dutch law; Lower Canada retains the French civil law according to the *coutume de Paris*; St. Lucie retains the old French law as it existed when the island last belonged to France; Mauritius retains such of the French codes as were extended to it; Malta, which was a municipality of the Kingdom of Sicily, retains the old Sicilian law as modified by the subsequent legislation of the grand masters; the Ionian Islands retain much of their old Venitian law, and the dominions of the East India Company retain much of the Hindoo, Mahometan, and other native systems of law and legal usages. Blackstone properly remarks that the common law of England does not obtain as such in an English dependency acquired by conquest or treaty.

"It has been remarked above that the rule of English law respecting the communication of the statute and common law of the mother country to an English colony produces two singular consequences: First, that different portions of the statute and common law of the mother country are in force in different colonies; and secondly, that most of the alterations in the statute and common law of the mother country which have been made since the foundation of the colony are not received in the colony. An analogous effect is produced by the rule of the English law respecting the retention of the native law of a dependency acquired by England, in cases in which the dependency has been the dependent colony of another State. In these cases the laws of the mother country, as they existed at the time of the transfer of the colony, are in force in such colony without any of the alterations which may have been made subsequently to the transfer. Thus the province of Lower Canada has for its civil law the French law, according to the *coutume de Paris*, although that law has long since been superseded in France by the laws of the revolution and the codes of Napoleon. In like manner the Dutch colonies ceded to England are subject to the Dutch law as it existed at the time of the cession. 'The ancient law of Holland,' says Mr. Henry in his preface to his translation of Vanderlinden's *Institutes of the Laws of Holland*, 'as it existed before the subjugation of that country to France and the introduction of the code Napoleon, still prevails in the Dutch ceded colonies, which never admitted the new code, from the circumstance of their being, during the war which preceded the short peace of Amiens and the treaty of Paris, under the dominion, by conquest, of Great Britain.' So, again, the French codes, which are in force in the island of Mauritius, are received in the form in which they were introduced into the island, and without the modifications which have subsequently been made in them by the French legislature.

#### ENCOURAGEMENT AND AID TO EDUCATION IN THE COLONIES.

Education naturally follows the physical and commercial development of a new country, and this is especially true in the class of colonies in which the population of the governing country has but a small representation. In the self-governing, or "habitation," colonies, made up chiefly of Europeans or their descendants, educational facilities are more nearly coincident with other stages of development, but in the tropical colonies, in which the European population consists of little more than the government officials and the merchants and planters, educational development has been slow and extremely irregular.

##### IN THE ENGLISH COLONIES.

In the English colonies, aside from the great self-governing communities of Canada, Australia, and South Africa, the educational facilities and methods are fitted solely to local conditions. In the Netherlands colonies the educational system has until recently been chiefly in the interest of the resident Europeans and those assimilated with them, and this is to a great extent true in the French colonies, except in the older communities such as Algeria and the French West Indies, where educational facilities have been developed among the natives as well as for the families of Europeans there residing. "The English Crown colonies," says Sir Charles Dilke, "yield examples of every kind of educational system, from those of Hongkong and Barbados, which provide almost as freely for the education of the black or yellow population as do the self-governing colonies for that of their white inhabitants, down to those which resemble that of India in the paucity of the number of pupils attending schools in proportion to the total population. It is impossible, and if it were possible it would be useless, to describe in detail the various plans adopted for education in Crown colonies. In St. Helena there is a compulsory system, while the schools consist partly of government schools and partly of schools (more numerous) merely assisted by the State. In Malta there is a government system of foreign schools; but the schools are denominational, and, in fact, strictly Roman Catholic. In Hongkong there is a government secular system, but the colony also aids denominational schools. In the majority of the Crown colonies, but a majority which does not contain the most important, the system is one of denominational schools aided by the State, as, for instance, in British Honduras, British Guiana, the Gambia, Lagos, and Sierra Leone. In Ceylon there are government unsectarian schools which are free for vernacular education, while fees are taken for English teaching; but there are also a larger number of State-aided schools, mostly denominational. In the Straits Settlements there is a similar system, as well as in Mauritius. Of the West Indies, Trinidad has the most interesting educational history. The majority of the population are Roman Catholic, and in addition to a large Roman Catholic black population there is a considerable element of Spanish and French whites, yet a secular system was introduced by a rash governor, with the natural result that the Roman Catholic clergy, assisted, I believe, by the clergy of the Church of England, took away a large proportion of the children from the schools. The system had to be withdrawn, and one of State aid to schools of all descriptions substituted. In Jamaica and the Leeward Islands education is increasing among the negroes with remarkable rapidity. Turks Island has a free and unsectarian system, while in Antigua, St. Kitts, and Nevis the system is denominational with State aid; but the fees which are exacted in nearly all the islands are a hindrance to education among the negroes. In Grenada there is a double system of government and of aided schools; in Bermuda a compulsory system, but without free schools; in Bahamas a free unsectarian system, partly compulsory, as well as aid to other schools; while Barbados heads the list among West Indian colonies in the proportion of school attendance to population, and maintains government scholarships to be held at Oxford or Cambridge, as well as makes grants to the winners of scholarships at London University."

## IN THE DUTCH EAST INDIES.

The following statement with reference to the educational system of the Netherlands is from the Statesman's Year-Book, 1901: "For the education of the Europeans and persons assimilated with them there were in 1878 seven public middle-class schools, with 1,016 pupils and 102 teachers. The cost of these schools to the government was 583,592 guilders, and the revenue out of the school fees 86,887 guilders. There were in the same year, for Europeans 133 mixed elementary schools and 31 for girls only, with 20 private schools, the total attendance being 15,077 and the cost 2,471,912 guilders, and the income 283,056 guilders. For natives there were in Java and Madura in 1898 223 government schools with 43,094 pupils and 216 private schools with 23,795 pupils. In the Dutch East Indian territory, outside of Java and Madura, there were in 1897 296 government schools with 42,250 pupils and 529 private schools with 25,807 pupils. There were also in Java and Madura in 1887 18,608 Mohammedan schools with 291,721 pupils, and in 1898 there were 519 schools for foreign orientals with 8,688 pupils. There are also in Dutch East India 5 normal schools, with 27 teachers and 169 pupils, and 4 schools for sons of native chiefs with 211 pupils."

"In the matter of education the Dutch adopted, and still to this day adopt," says Boys, in his Notes on Java, "a very decided policy. They deliberately keep the Javans ignorant of all Western literature. There are schools in the villages, generally presided over by one of the priests, but instruction in Dutch or in any language except the Javan vernacular is rigorously excluded. Primary education alone is attended to, and no higher education of any kind permitted. Neither is the use of Dutch in conversation with natives encouraged, and should a Javan acquainted with the Dutch colloquial address an official in that language he finds himself at once checked and rebuked by being answered in the vernacular. The Hollanders at any rate are determined that they will create for themselves no difficulties of the sort that they see surrounding the English in India. They argue that the Javans would generally make no good use of their education, and the spectacle of the 'Congress' certainly leads them to think that this opinion is well justified. This is only one of the points in which the Dutch system is diametrically opposite to the liberal and self-sacrificing policy of the British, and it is this contrast in the administration which makes the study of the government by Holland of its great oriental dependency and a consideration of the results so intensely interesting and instructive to the Anglo-Indian."

## IN THE FRENCH COLONIES.

The following description of the educational facilities furnished by the French Government in Algeria is also from the Statesman's Year-Book, 1901: "Primary schools are either French, French-Arab, or Arab. In 1897 the total number was 1,161, with 104,207 pupils (62,873 boys and 41,334 girls). The nationality of the pupils in 1896 was 52,108 French, 14,791 Jews, 19,362 Mussulman, and 37,839 foreign. There are higher Mussulman schools at Algiers, Constantine, and Tlemçen, where pupils are prepared for native employments. There is also at Algiers an institution for higher instruction in law and the sciences and a higher school of letters. At Algiers (city) and Oran are lycées with altogether 2,000 pupils. The native population is entirely Mussulman, the Jews being now regarded as French citizens. The grants for religious purposes in the budget for 1900 were: To Catholics, 829,700 francs; to Mussulman, 307,430 francs; Protestants, 97,600 francs, and Jews, 28,970 francs."

## IN INDIA.

In India a systematic effort has been made by the government both for the encouragement of, and aid to, primary schools among the masses, and for higher grade and collegiate education for those whose circumstances permit such an undertaking. Warren Hastings founded the first college in Bengal in 1782, and maintained it for some years at his own expense to encourage the study of Arabic and Persian literature and Mohammedan theology; to qualify the Mohammedans of Bengal for the public service, and enable them to compete with the Hindus for employment under the government. Lord Macaulay in 1835 urged the introduction of English methods of education and the English language in the higher education in India, especially for those who were to aid in the administration of the government, and the principles which he laid down at that time have been in the main adhered to ever since. In 1854 a department of public instruction was constituted, universities were to be founded, institutions for training teachers established, the number of government colleges and high schools increased, new middle-class schools created, the English language to be the medium of instruction in the higher branches of education, and the vernacular language in the lower, though English was to be taught whenever there was a demand for it. A system of grants in aid to private institutions was to be based on entire abstinence from religious instruction given in the schools. Aid was to be given within certain limits to all schools which imparted a good secular education and were under competent management. This system has been put into operation throughout British India. Every province has its separate educational department, with a large staff of officers, colleges, schools, and grants in aid. In some parts of India there have been from time immemorial considerable numbers of village and local schools with instruction of a very elementary kind. In the Hindu schools the instruction is chiefly or wholly secular. The Mohammedan schools have a religious character. In Bengal and Madras the existing system of primary instruction is in a great measure based on the indigenous schools which receive grants in aid from the State. In Bombay, Punjab, and the northwestern provinces the primary schools are mostly provided by the State at the cost of local funds raised by land tax. In Burma primary education is almost entirely in the hands of Buddhist monks. Reading, writing, arithmetic, and sometimes a little mensuration are taught in the primary schools.

With the above statement of the basis of the school system of India the following statement from the Statesman's Year-Book of 1901 may be presented as the latest concrete information on present educational conditions in India: "Since the appointment of a commission in 1883 to investigate the whole system of education in India the results have been to place public instruction on a broader and more popular basis, to encourage private enterprise in teaching, to give a more adequate recognition to indigenous schools, and to provide that the education of the people shall advance at a more equal pace along with the instruction of the higher classes. Female education and the instruction of certain backward classes of the community, such as Mohammedans, received special attention. Notwithstanding the progress of education the proportion of the total population able to read and write is still very small. It is estimated that in British India only 22.2 per cent of the boys of a school-going age attend school; the percentage in the case of girls being 2.3. The statistics compiled up to March 31, 1899, show the number of pupils in the schools of India, including colleges, private institutions, training schools, and primary and secondary schools for the masses, 4,357,821; of which number 3,955,668 were males and 402,153 females. This, however, is an increase of over 25 per cent in ten years, the figures for 1888 for all classes of pupils being 3,473,895. The total number of educational institutions in India is 149,948; of which 22,804 are public, 61,494 are aided, and 65,650 are private and unaided. At the head of the national system of education in India there are the five universities of Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Allahâbâd, and the

Punjab, which, though merely examining bodies, have numerous affiliated colleges in which a prescribed higher education is given than at the schools. Normal schools have been established in every province for training teachers, and a staff of inspecting officers visit all schools on the departmental lists. Medical colleges furnish a limited number of graduates and a larger number of certified practitioners who do duty at hospitals and dispensaries or serve in the military and medical department. The number of pupils who matriculated at the five universities in 1898 was in round numbers 7,000, against less than 3,000 in 1881. The total expenditure on public instruction in India in 1899 was 36,215,000 rupees, against 394,000 rupees in 1858, and 671,000 rupees in 1865. Of the 36,215,000 rupees expended on education in 1899, 5,716,000 rupees came from local taxation; 1,468,000 from municipal funds; 8,591,000 rupees from subscriptions, endowments, etc.; 9,354,000 rupees from provincial revenues, and 11,084,000 rupees from fees."

#### EDUCATIONAL CONDITIONS IN THE WORLD'S COLONIES.

The following statement regarding educational conditions in the various colonies of the world at the present time is compiled from the British Colonial Office List, the Statesman's Year-Book, and other standard publications:

##### SYSTEMS OF EDUCATION IN THE PRINCIPAL COLONIES OF THE WORLD.

*Queensland.*—A government system of elementary education was established by act 39 Vic., No. 11. The central administration is vested in the secretary for public instruction, and is carried out through the medium of traveling inspectors. Local school committees assist the department with advice and supervision. In 1899 there were in operation 888 schools, with an enrollment of 103,544 pupils. The schools are free and unsectarian.

*Bahamas.*—There is a government system of elementary education, established in 1847 and modified by laws of 1864, 1875, 1885, 1886, 1888, and 1889. The central control is in a board of education nominated by the governor. Local committees, partly elected, exercise local supervision only. There are 44 unsectarian government schools, with 5,772 scholars; 11 aided schools, with 952 scholars; 31 Church of England and 27 private schools, with 2,103 scholars. The government schools were made free in 1885. The compulsory clauses of the law are enforced only in Nassau and the larger villages. Higher education is provided at the Nassau Grammar School, the Queen's College, and St. Hilda's School, all in Nassau.

*Barbados.*—A government system of elementary education was established by act No. 41 of December 9, 1878, which authorized an expenditure not exceeding £15,000 annually. This section of the act of 1878 has been repealed, and section 9 (d) of the education act amendment act, 1897, authorizes an annual expenditure of a sum not exceeding £11,000 on elementary education. Grants to higher education made the sum total of expenditure in 1899 £16,692. The central administration is vested in a board appointed by the governor, and the local control conducted by the clergyman of the district assisted by the school committee. There are 171 schools, with 14,978 scholars (average attendance) and 25,334 on the rolls. Barbados possesses a college founded by General Codrington, a native of the island, who died in 1710, and whose name it bears.

*Bermuda.*—In 1839 the colonial legislature first granted a sum of money to aid elementary schools. The central control is vested in a board of education, consisting of the governor and eight other members appointed by the executive under the provisions of the schools act, 1895. The local management is nominally in the hands of each parish vestry, which constitutes, under the last-named act, a local board of education. All the schools are private schools, charging fees. Attendance is compulsory, and there were in 1899 25 aided schools, with 1,328 scholars. There are in addition about 36 schools which receive no State aid.

*British Guiana.*—A State-aided system of elementary education was established by law No. 3 of 1876. The schools are denominational, except the Estates schools. The central administration is vested in the inspector of schools, and the local control conducted by managers who are usually ministers of religion. The number of schools receiving aid in 1899–1900 was 213, with 28,845 scholars, and the aid granted amounted to £23,706. Provision is made for higher education by a government college in Georgetown, in which the course of instruction is similar to that of a public school or first-grade grammar school in England.

*British Honduras.*—The schools are denominational, inspected and aided by the colonial government. Forty-two received aid in 1899 to the extent of \$11,637.26, with 3,547 scholars on the roll and 2,491 average attendance.

*Cape of Good Hope.*—Under the education act, No. 13, of 1865, and the higher education act, No. 24, of 1874, the department administers parliamentary grants to colleges and to the following classes of schools, viz: Undenominational public, district boarding, evening, private farm, poor, mission aborigines' institutions, art schools, training schools for teachers, and industrial schools for poor whites for the following purposes, viz, part payment of salaries, purchase of buildings, furniture, apparatus, and books, training of teachers, support of indigent boarders.

Schools are managed and teachers appointed, subject to the control of the department, by local committees or managers nominated by the voluntary promoters and supporters of the schools, or by divisional or municipal councils acting as such managers. The Government grants are, generally speaking, given to supplement local contributions of at least equal amount.

*Ceylon.*—Satisfactory progress is being made in education. The number of scholars in government schools at the end of 1899 was 47,482; in schools aided by government, 111,145; and in unaided schools, 34,841.

The total expenditure on account of the educational department was Rs. 778,133.85. In 1868 the number of scholars was only 6,897 and the expenditure 161,660 rupees. The improvement is due to the institution of a department of public instruction and the adoption of the system of payments for results. The government schools are all unsectarian, and no fee is charged for vernacular education. Small fees are charged for English teaching. The higher education of the colony has, since January 1, 1885, been mainly left to local effort, as, owing to retrenchment, the department has been compelled to devote its funds mainly to the extension and development of primary education. The only high school entirely supported by government is now the Royal College, but there are numerous and excellent grant-in-aid high schools.

*Cyprus.*—A general system of grants in aid of elementary schools was established in 1882.

In accordance with a law passed in 1895 boards of education have recently been established, one to regulate the Moslem schools and another to regulate the Christian schools. There is also in each district a district committee for Moslem schools and a district committee for Greek-Christian schools, presided over in each case by the commissioner of the district.

There are 225 elementary schools in connection with the Greek Orthodox Church, with an enrollment of 13,500, which receive aid amounting to £2,840, and there are 109 elementary Moslem schools, with an enrollment of 3,600, which receive aid amounting to £656.

*Fiji.*—The public education ordinance, 1890, provides for the election of separate school boards within the constituted districts (at

present only Suva and Lovuka are so constituted). The expenses of the boards are to be paid out of the "school fund" of each district, consisting (1) of an annual grant on the average attendance on a scale fixed by the governor in council, and (2) of a contribution from the rating authorities of the amount required for school purposes beyond the government grant.

Education is free to children within the school districts between 6 and 14 years of age. A fee is charged to children not residing within the school district or who are under or above the school age. The ordinary subjects of an English education are taught and fees are charged for tuition in special subjects.

There are two common schools under these school boards, one in Suva, with 91 scholars, and one in Levuka, with 71 scholars on the roll. \* \* \* The Wesleyan and Roman Catholic missions provide entirely for the education of the natives throughout the group. The former have 1,499 schools, with 2,634 native teachers and 26,464 scholars. The latter have 146 schools, with 1,832 scholars.

*The Gambia.*—The schools, which are wholly in the hands of the several denominations, receive grants in aid. There is 1 Anglican school, 8 Mohammedan, 3 Wesleyan, and 2 Roman Catholic, with about 1,400 scholars in all. Education is not compulsory and fees are charged.

*Gold Coast Colony.*—Elementary education in the colony is chiefly in the hands of the Wesleyan, Basel, and Roman Catholic missionary societies. These receive annual grants from the government. The government has established schools at Accra, Cape Coast, and Insuaim, in western Akim. There are also government schools at Accra in connection with the Hausa constabulary and civil police force. The various missions have schools situated in outlying districts, reaching far into the interior. Schools have been established at Kumasi and the neighborhood by the Wesleyan Society, and these are now under the inspection of the Education Department. A scheme of technical education, under a European master, has been introduced into the government school at Accra, and many of the mission schools in the interior have small plantations attached, where the scholars receive instruction in the cultivation of coffee and other native products. The Basel Mission has also established a training school for their teachers at Akropong, and at their head stations instruction is given in carpentry, masonry, bookbinding, and various other crafts.

*Hongkong.*—There is the Queen's College (a secondary government boys' school with no fees), a police school and a reformatory, and ten free government schools (eight teaching English). A government girls' school was opened in 1890. Besides these there are 93 grant-in-aid schools, 90 of which are free, belonging to ten different missionary societies. These are denominational, the government schools being strictly secular. There were 11,341 scholars on the rolls in 1898. The only central administrative organization is the education department, in charge of the inspector of schools. The languages taught are English, Portuguese, and two separate dialects of Chinese. Some scholarships have been founded, by government and private individuals, for higher education. There is one school for industrial education and a college of medicine for Chinese.

*Jamaica.*—Elementary education is left to private enterprise, aided, since 1867, by a system of grants in aid from the colonial revenue. The number of schools is 746, with 61,219 scholars in average attendance, and the grant in aid for 1899-1900 was £47,330. No fees charged. The government maintains a system of inspection, and provides a training college for female teachers which is wholly supported from public funds, besides largely assisting the micro undenominational college for male teachers and a denominational college for female teachers. More than 150 students are now under training. By laws passed in 1892 a board of education has been constituted, and provision made for opening government secondary schools where required. No provision is made from public funds for technical education, but there are some endowed schools, and scholarships tenable at the English universities.

*Lagos.*—A system of government inspection and examination has been introduced, under the supervision of an educational board and a local inspector of schools, under which grants were made during the past year to the schools of the various Christian denominations, amounting in all to £1,533. About 4,000 school children are on the school rolls. Fees are charged, and education is not compulsory. The Mohammedans, who are much on the increase, maintain their own schools, where Arabic is taught, and three government schools in which elementary English instruction is given have been established for this section of the population.

*Leeward Islands.*—The system of elementary education is denominational, the various denominations being Anglicans, Moravians, Wesleyans, and Roman Catholics. The schools established by these denominations receive grants in aid from the local revenues of each presidency. School fees are charged, and the schools are required to receive all children applying for admission. Grants in aid are refused to superfluous or inefficient schools. There are about 125 aided schools, attended by 24,879 children.

*Malta.*—Elementary education is carried on almost exclusively in government schools, which are Roman Catholic and free. There are two secondary schools, with 130 scholars, and 113 elementary and infants' schools, with 15,669 pupils. There is a public lyceum, with 393 scholars, and a university (founded in 1769), with 81 students. At these two latter institutions the fees are extremely low, being, respectively, 4s. and 10s. per family per quarter. There are numerous private secondary schools. The total number of these schools is 116, with 3,700 scholars. Education is not compulsory. The Roman Catholic religion is universal amongst the Maltese.

*Natal.*—In 1899 there were 545 schools under government inspection—322 European, 188 native, and 35 Indian—with an aggregate attendance of 23,705. There are 29 government schools, 82 aided denominational and other schools, and 211 farm-house schools. The aggregate number of European pupils in regular attendance at the government and inspected schools was 9,419 (1899). The management is vested in the minister of education, with the superintendent of education as permanent head of the department, and the local control occasionally in committees. Education is not compulsory.

*Newfoundland.*—The government system of primary education rests upon the act of 1895 and the amendments in 1896 and 1899. The central administration is vested in 3 superintendents, belonging, respectively, to the Roman Catholic, the Anglican, and the Methodist denominations. The local management is in the hands of appointed boards. There were in 1898, 622 schools, with 28,397 scholars. The schools are denominational and fees are charged. Grants are also made in aid of secondary schools, but there is no provision for technical education.

*Sierra Leone.*—A system of government grants and inspection was established in 1882. There are 65 elementary schools in the colony, with 7,789 scholars. They are all denominational and charge fees. Education is not compulsory. There are 3 secondary boys' schools in Freetown—the grammar school (C. M. S.), the high school (Wesleyan), and the educational institute. The Church Missionary Society has a training college at Fourah Bay, affiliated with Durham University. There are also in Freetown 3 high schools devoted to female education.

*Swatoland.*—Excellent work is being carried on in the country by missionaries, in whose hands the labor of education is almost exclusively vested. There are 177 schools, with 11,134 scholars, nine-tenths being in the schools of the French Protestant Mission. There are 4 small government schools, and grants in aid of education to the extent of £4,358 were made for the year 1899-1900.



*Straits Settlements.*—There is no law affecting education. The expenditure on education is voted each year by the legislative council of the colony. The control of all the government schools is vested in the inspector of schools.

Vernacular instruction is provided for Malays free of charge. Instruction in English for all nationalities is provided by government, and fees are charged. All the schools established by government are unsectarian and there is no compulsory education.

*Turks and Caicos islands.*—There are 8 elementary schools supported by government, with an attendance, in 1899, of 718 children. The schools are entirely unsectarian and are at present free. A compulsory education ordinance, providing also for the payment of fees, was passed in 1883, but the compulsory causes have never been proclaimed.

*Grenada.*—There are 9 government elementary schools and 32 aided schools. The latter are under the local management of the ministers of the different religious sects. Building grants have been made by the government to assist in establishing schools in districts requiring them, and annual grants in aid are made on the result of inspections. The central administration is intrusted to a board of education, nominated by the governor, half the members being Roman Catholic. In 1888 an ordinance was passed imposing upon parents, as a legal obligation, the duty of providing elementary education for their children. In 1899 the average attendance was 4,817, the number on the rolls being 9,240. Fees are charged in all schools.

*St. Lucia.*—On June 30, 1891, the trustees of the Lady Mico Charity closed the 11 schools which they had till then maintained and withdrew their connection with the colony. Three of these schools became government schools, and the others assisted schools under the new education ordinance. In 1898 all the government schools were handed over to the Roman Catholic body and became assisted schools. There were, on December 31, 1899, 42 assisted schools. The number of children on the rolls was 5,735, and the amount spent by the colony on primary education was £23,079. The government grants £200 a year to a Roman Catholic second-grade school, which had 70 pupils on the roll; the Sisters of St. Joseph conduct a similar school for girls. The number of pupils on the rolls is 100, and a government grant of £50 was made to the school in 1900.

*Anam.*—The area of the protectorate is about 88,780 square miles, with a population estimated at 2,000,000 by some and at 6,000,000 by others, the latter being considered the more probable. It is Annamite in the towns and along the coast, and consists of various tribes of Moïs in the hilly tracts. There are 420,000 Roman Catholics. There are 5 secondary schools, with 23 teachers and 596 pupils.

*Tonkin.*—In 1899, 38 schools had 1,800 pupils.

*Algeria.*—The native population is entirely Mussulman, the Jews being now regarded as French citizens. The grants for religious purposes provided for in the budget of 1900 were: To Catholics, 829,700 francs; Protestants, 97,600 francs; Jews, 28,970 francs; Mussulmans, 307,430 francs; total, 1,263,700 francs.

At Algiers (city) there is an institution for higher instruction, consisting of faculties of law and sciences and a higher school of letters. The total number of students in 1899 was 522, of whom 264 were in the faculty of law. At Algiers (city), Constantine, and Oran are lycées with, altogether, 2,000 pupils. In the whole of Algiers are 9 communal colleges, with 3,863 pupils; at Oran, a college for girls has 194 pupils. There are higher Mussulman schools at Algiers, Tlemçen, and Constantine, where pupils are prepared for native employments. Primary schools are either French, French-Arab, or Arab. In 1897 the total number was 1,161, with 104,207 pupils (62,873 boys and 41,334 girls). The nationality of the pupils in 1896 was 52,108 French, 14,791 Jews, 19,362 Mussulman, 37,839 foreign. In 1896 the attendance at infant schools was 26,075. In 1897 the expenditure on primary instruction in Algeria was 5,224,620 francs, of which 3,696,860 francs was from the State.

*Madagascar.*—Up to 1895 a large portion of the Hova and of the other tribes in the central districts had been Christianized. The vast majority of professing Christians were connected with churches formed by the London Missionary Society, but Anglican, Friends', Norwegian and American Lutheran, and Roman Catholic missions were also at work. The Christian population was estimated at 450,000 Protestants and 50,000 Roman Catholics. Hospitals, colleges, orphanages, and about 1,800 schools, with 170,000 children, were connected with the various missions. Since the establishment of French rule much has been done to break down the influence of Protestant missions in the island. Though decrees have been issued proclaiming religious liberty, the Catholic propaganda has nevertheless been pushed in such a manner that many native Protestants have been constrained to call themselves Catholic. The form of tenure of the real property of the missions required the adherence of Malagasy Christians of the same profession as the holders of the property, and many British mission churches were lost in 1897 through the failure of this condition and in consequence of the terrorism of the Catholics. Many of these have, however, since been restored to the Protestant congregations. The outlying tribes are still mostly heathen.

A school system comprising three grades of instruction has been organized. There are rural primary schools where elementary instruction is given in the Malagasy and French languages; there are industrial and agricultural schools in various districts and provinces; and superior schools, the chief of which are a normal school for training teachers and government officials, a professional school, an agricultural school, and a school of medicine. There are many Protestant and Catholic mission schools carrying on successful work.

*Réunion.*—In 1897 there were 148 schools, with 356 teachers and 14,034 pupils.

*Guadeloupe and dependencies.*—Instruction is given in 1 lycée, with 255 pupils, and 117 elementary schools, with 321 teachers and 10,979 pupils.

*French Guiana.*—In the colony there are 27 primary schools, with 2,100 pupils, and there is a college at Cayenne.

*Martinique.*—There is a law school (at Fort de France), with 76 students; 3 secondary schools, with 487 pupils; a normal school; 152 primary schools, with 13,371 pupils; also 13 clerical and private schools.

*Togoland.*—At Sebbi-vi there is a government school, with 50 pupils, and the 4 missionary societies at work in the colony have schools largely attended by native children at the chief centers of population.

*Kamerun.*—The military force consists of 32 Germans and 554 natives. There are 2 government schools, with 200 pupils. Four missionary societies, with schools attended by about 5,000 pupils, are at work in the colony.

*German Southwest Africa.*—The European population is 1,840 (January 1, 1899), of whom 1,557 are German. The military force consists of 761 officers and men, all European, but natives also are employed. Instruction is given in government schools and in those of several Protestant and Catholic missions.

*German East Africa.*—The European population in June, 1899, numbered 1,090 (881 German), 38 British, 34 Greek. The military force consists of 176 Germans and 1,572 colored men, while the police numbers 15 Germans and 482 colored men (Askaris). There are 7 Protestant and 3 Catholic missionary societies at work.



*Dutch East Indies.*—The whole population of Java is legally divided into Europeans and persons assimilated with them, and natives and persons assimilated with these. The former are generally living under the same laws as the inhabitants of the mother country, while in the jurisdiction of the latter the Indian customs and institutions are considered. The division of the whole population into these two classes is a fundamental principle in the policy of the administration and enacted in the code specifying the limits and conditions for legislation in Dutch East India. The governor-general, however, is, in agreement with the council, authorized to make individual exceptions to this rule.

According to the terms of the regulations for the government of Netherlands India, entire liberty is granted to the members of all religious confessions. The Reformed Church counts 35 ministers and 28 assistants, the Roman Catholic 30 curates and 16 priests, not salaried out of the public funds. The number of Christians among the natives and foreign Orientals was: In Java and Madura in 1873, 5,673, and in 1896 (January 1), 19,193; in the outposts in 1873, 148,672, and in 1896 (January 1), 290,065. In 1898, 127 missionaries of various societies were working to propagate Christianity in the Dutch East Indies. In the same year 9,900 natives went to Mekka on pilgrimage, whereof 7,991 returned.

For the education of Europeans and persons assimilated with them, there were in 1898, 7 public middle-class schools, with 1,016 pupils and 102 teachers. The cost of these schools to the government in the same year was 583,592 guilders, and the revenue out of the school fees 86,887 guilders.

In 1898 there were, for Europeans, 133 mixed public elementary schools, and 31 for girls only, with 20 private schools, or a total of 184 elementary schools. The 164 public schools had a teaching staff of 541 and an attendance of 14,955 pupils, whereof 1,590 were natives, and the 20 private schools a teaching staff of 160 and an attendance of 3,122 pupils. The cost of the public elementary schools was, in 1898, 2,471,912, and the income 283,056 guilders.

The following statement relates to schools for natives:

In 1898 Dutch India had 5 normal schools, with 27 teachers and 169 pupils; besides there were 4 schools for sons of native chiefs, with 211 pupils.

The elementary schools for natives were, for Java and Madura, in 1875, 104 government schools, with 14,906 pupils, and 132 private schools, with 6,978 pupils, and, in 1898, 223 government schools, with 43,094 pupils, and 216 private schools, with 23,795 pupils. In the outposts, in 1881, 281 government schools, with 21,388 pupils, and 205 private schools, with 10,696 pupils; and, in 1897, 296 government schools, with 42,250 pupils, and 529 private schools, with 25,807 pupils. In 1875 the government spent 803,906 guilders for the education of natives, and in 1898 1,353,760 guilders. For foreign Orientals there were in 1898 about 519 schools, with 8,688 pupils.

*Surinam or Dutch Guiana.*—Dutch Guiana is divided into 16 districts and numerous communes.

The area of Dutch Guiana is 46,060 English square miles. At the end of 1898 the population was about 66,490, exclusive of the negroes living in the forests. The capital is Paramaribo, with about 31,200 inhabitants.

According to the terms of the regulation for the government of Dutch Guiana, entire liberty is granted to the members of all religious confessions.

At the end of 1896 there were: Reformed and Lutheran, 8,974; Moravian Brethren, 25,421; Roman Catholic, 11,773; Jews, 1,250; Mohammedans, 2,681; Hindus, 9,698, etc.

There were, in 1898, 19 public schools, with 2,335 pupils, and 35 private schools, with 4,854 pupils. Besides these elementary schools there are a normal school and a central school of the Moravian Brethren for training teachers, and of the Roman Catholics.

## RELIGION IN THE COLONIES.

In the matter of religion within the colonies, it may be said in general terms that while the disposition of the countries now administering colonial governments is to encourage the establishment of the Christian religion through missionary work, churches, and education, there is no interference with existing forms of religion whose customs are not in contravention with the accepted ideas of civilization and morals.

In the self-governing or "habitation" colonies of the English system the various church organizations are well represented and as a rule maintained entirely by private contributions. In the Crown colonies the disestablishment or withdrawal of State aid from the churches has developed largely in the last thirty years, and in but a comparatively few cases are the churches maintained or aided by governmental appropriations. Dilke, in his "Problems of Great Britain," written in 1890, says: "It can not be doubted that the policy of the disestablishment of the Church of England in the few colonies where it remains established, and of the cessation of State aid in those few where concurrent endowment continues, will prevail, and that an end will soon be put to that mixture of systems which in matters of religion, as in matters of education, exists in countries under Colonial Office control. Since 1868 the opinion of the Colonial Office, in the direction of the withdrawal of State assistance, has been clearly shown, and in no case has any step been taken that leads the other way, while in all the colonies where State aid has ceased religion prospers. Of the self-governing colonies some have grown up without an established church, others possessed one at an early period of their history, but have abolished the system of State aid, while in Lower Canada there has existed since the French possession a parochial establishment of the Roman Catholic Church, and in the Cape from its earliest days a predominance of the Dutch Reformed Church. In most of the Crown colonies the disestablishment of the Church of England, or withdrawal of State aid in the case of those in which concurrent endowment prevailed, has been brought about since 1868. Generally speaking, the Christian churches in them are all in a flourishing condition. No bad consequences can be shown to have followed on the disestablishment that has taken place in some colonies, or, in others, upon the absence of religious establishment from the first; and the results of the withdrawal of State aid are not to be discerned in any marked departure in the colonies from the English standard. The number of religious edifices and the number of clergy of various denominations, in proportion to the white population, is greater throughout the colonies than in England, the influence of Sunday schools is far more widely spread, and we have noticed a stricter observance of the Lord's Day and the greater power of the Sunday schools."

Merivale, in his Nineteenth lecture on colonization, says: "The first step to be taken by a colonial government anxious for the improvement of its barbarian subjects is the encouragement of missionaries. Wherever land is rescued for their use, there, in fit proportion to the numbers to be instructed, missionaries ought to be invited, and, if possible, established; but although the missionary is not merely useful, but indispensable, as the pioneer of civilization, it does not appear that he is sufficiently adapted to complete the

work. \* \* \* Where the offices of the religious instructor partially fail, those of government, through its agent, the protector, ought to begin. Education should not be wholly left to the missionary; it should, at least in the higher grades, be under the superintendence of some central authority."

Sir W. W. Hunter in his *Indian Empire* says that the census of 1891 showed that the Christians in British and Feudatory India had increased by 22 per cent, or more than one-fifth, from 1881 to 1891, and that this increase, while partly the result of more perfect enumeration, represents to a large extent a real growth. The total number of Christians in all India, including Burma, was in 1891, 2,601,355. Sir John Strachey in his work *India*, 1894, says: "It would be difficult to give too much honor to the work of secular education which has been undertaken by private agencies, and especially by Protestant and Roman Catholic missionaries. In 1890 there were in British India nearly 300,000 scholars in the colleges and schools of Protestant missionaries."

Sir George Cornewall Lewis in his essay *On the Government of Dependencies* says: "It can rarely happen that any reason should exist why the supreme government should attempt to change the religion of a dependency whose people have a religion different from that of the dominant country. The religion of a people is in general less easily changed by a government than their language. The history of Europe abounds with examples of the misery produced by the ineffectual attempts of governments to convert their subjects to another creed by force or civil disabilities. Even Mr. Gladstone admits that the dominant country is not bound to deprive a church in a dependency of its endowments, although the doctrines of that church may be different from that of its own established church or churches." Mr. C. P. Lucas, in his introduction to the recent edition of the work from which the above is quoted, apparently agrees with the author on this subject, for in that introduction he says: "Nowadays it can hardly be said that Great Britain introduces or is likely to introduce into her colonial possessions her laws, language, and religion without due regard to the position and interests of the dependency."

Worsfold, in his work, *A Visit to Java*, 1893, discussing the question of religion in that island, says:

"The religion of the Javanese is Mohammedanism; although Brahmanism still survives in some of the islands of the archipelago, it has entirely disappeared from Java. Until recent years the colonial government have discouraged any efforts directed toward the conversion of the natives to Christianity. The quietism of the Mohammedan creed was regarded as better adapted to supply their religious needs than the doctrines of the missionaries.

"Of late years, however, a more generous policy has prevailed. As the mass of the Javanese regard the native princes as traitors and apostates, the Arab priests and hadjis have come to be recognized as the popular leaders. It is they, and not the princes, who now form the dangerous element. The priests are jealous of European influence, and are ready to incite the natives to revolt if occasion offers, but in any outbreak the native princes are the first to be attacked.

"The question of the moral and mental development of the Javanese natives is one which has lately been much discussed, both in Java and in Holland, and the result has been that the colonial government is now fairly pledged to a humanitarian policy. The large sum annually appropriated in the colonial budget to the purposes of public instruction is a sufficient evidence of the reality of the desire now manifested by the Dutch to give the natives of Java full opportunities for the education and training necessary for technical and industrial progress. There can be no doubt as to the capacity of the natives to benefit by such advantages."

"The contact of civilized nations with savages and barbarians," says M. Leroy-Beaulieu, "is full of difficulties, dangers, and temptations. Centuries were required for a savage people to pass to the barbarous state and for a barbarous people to pass to the civilized state. It is to be desired that by means of benevolent and skillful methods the duration of these stages for the savages and barbarians of the Pacific islands, the interior of Africa, and America be shortened.

"The moral and material improvement, the benevolent tutelage, the steady and persevering education of these peoples or, rather, tribes—all of these things can not be achieved solely by our commercial people, our administrators, and schoolmasters; it would be folly to expect it. What is wanted is that these people should in a few generations pass through the stages which it has taken so long to pass the countless generations of our ancestors. It is religion, and the Christian religion particularly, through its gentleness, its elevated spirit, its love of the humble, and the concern shown by certain religious orders—the Jesuits, for example—for material progress, which is the only educating medium likely to facilitate the contact with the Europeans on the one hand and the savages and barbarians on the other, and which, by devices of its own will, if not suddenly, at least within a few generations, enable the savages and barbarians to understand our civilization and to take part in its development.

"The colonial governors owe to the missions and the natives a certain number of duties which they can not neglect," says M. de Lanessan, "without gravely compromising the work of colonization. They are bound to protect the religious missions, and encourage their efforts, with the view that every native converted to any of our religions becomes a sort of Frenchman, but they are bound to watch that the representatives of French authority, the European missionaries, and their native assistants should observe in all their acts, and words, very great moderation.

"If it is difficult to exact from the missions a spirit of toleration which rarely goes in hand with an ardent religious faith, this spirit has to be imposed on all European and native officials. The first rule of conduct should be never, either by words of mouth or by administrative acts, to take account of the religion of the natives with whom they may be brought into official relations, or who may in some way or other come under their jurisdiction. The slightest favor, the smallest privilege, the least indulgence accorded to a Catholic in preference to a Pagan, or vice versa, suffices to cause indignation among a part of the population, and to provoke among the followers of the different religions quarrels and fracas, which sometimes require forcible repression, and excite the passions. The administrator, if he wishes to be represented equally by all, must forget to which religion the native belongs, with whom duty of the service has brought him in contact.

#### SYSTEMATIC STUDIES OF THE ECONOMICS OF COLONIZATION.

The methods by which colonies are and should be governed and developed are followed and studied with great interest not only by those charged with the government of colonies, but by the people of the countries having colonies. Throughout England, France, Netherlands, Germany, and Belgium, and especially in their capital cities, the greatest interest is manifested not only in the colonies themselves, but in the details of their management and development. The result of this is both stimulating and enlightening to the officers whom the Government intrusts with the duty of developing and caring for the colonies. Colonial associations, colonial institutes, colonial periodicals, colonial books, and colonial libraries, and discussions of colonial matters, both in the deliberative and legislative

bodies and in the public press, present the various phases of colonial policy and conditions in the world's colonies in kaleidoscopic but ever instructive form. The literature of colonization is elaborate, and the students of this subject, in the countries having colonies, numerous, active, and thoughtful.

#### ENGLAND.

In London, a colonial institute, composed chiefly of men who have been or are employed in the colonial service of the Government, has about 5,000 members, with headquarters in the busy part of the city, containing a library of about 50,000 volumes, periodicals from all the colonies, and all the periodicals of the world which are devoted to colonial discussions, and its members hold monthly meetings to discuss matters pertaining to colonial affairs and methods. At these meetings papers pertaining to various colonies or colonial methods and matters are read, and these are followed by discussions by the members. These meetings are largely attended both by members of the association and their families, the wives, sons, and daughters evincing an equal interest in studies of this character. An annual unofficial publication, *The Colonial Office List*, and another, *The India Office List*, published by a corps of men whose association with the colonial office and colonial service gives them especial facilities, furnish much detailed and valuable information regarding the condition in every British colony of the world, and present those facts in the latest form each year, while the *Year Book of the Imperial Institute*, a volume of nearly 1,000 pages, also gives elaborate details regarding conditions—agricultural, financial, and otherwise—in all of the British colonies. An annual official publication, *The Statistical Abstract of Colonial and Other Possessions of the United Kingdom*, gives elaborate statistical statements regarding the conditions in the colonies, and a similar volume gives like information relative to British India. The great tropical gardens at Kew, just outside London, filled with the botanical products of the tropical colonies, and devoted to studies of and experimental work upon their products, are open to the public and prove a constant and valuable object lesson in awakening and maintaining their interest in matters of this character. Reports from the officers of various colonies, and special studies upon the colonies themselves, prepared by the colonial office, are printed and distributed widely throughout the Empire. At the colonial office, where a staff of officials, under the direction of the secretary of state for the colonies, administers that part of the government of colonies which is conducted in England, there is a library of nearly 50,000 volumes devoted to colonial matters, which may be consulted by those desiring information upon this subject. A colonial information office is also maintained by the Government for the purpose of supplying intended immigrants and others with information regarding the colonies. It is conducted by a committee named by the secretary of state for the colonies, who is himself the president of that body. The work of this office is extended to all of the colonies, to the publication and distribution of information, especially to those desiring either to emigrate to the colonies or to conduct business in them, and for its work a liberal appropriation is made by Parliament. The office is in constant touch with the labor department of the board of trade, and supplies to the publication of that department a column especially devoted to labor in the colonies. Its publications are supplied to hundreds of libraries and institutions in various parts of the Kingdom, and it has depots or branches at the public libraries in several of the larger cities of the Kingdom. The scope of its work is shown by the fact that the number of letters and dispatches sent out, largely in answer to inquiries, in 1900, was over 47,000, and the number of circulars distributed about 250,000, several thousand of these being supplied to teachers in the evening and public schools of the Empire. Quarterly posters, giving the names of all post-offices in the colonies, and quarterly circulars on the principal colonies are supplied free of charge to any persons desiring them, and handbooks on the principal colonies are also furnished at the nominal price of 1 penny to those who may apply for them.

#### FRANCE.

In France the active interest in the subject of colonization is equally apparent. A colonial institute, with M. Chailley-Bert, the distinguished student of colonial matters, as its secretary-general, has a membership of several thousand persons, and is devoted to studies of colonial matters and especially to supplying commercial and business information to those desiring to undertake commercial or financial enterprises for their development. The department of colonies also maintains a special department—the “*Office Coloniale*,” located in the Palais Royal, Galerie d'Orléans—which has for its duty the procuring and distribution to the public of all information regarding colonial agriculture, commerce, and industries, and the importation and exportation of the colonies, and of France in her commerce with the colonies. This is administered under the direction of a conseil d'administration, composed of the president and the commission of colonies in the Chamber of Deputies and certain officers of the department of colonies. M. Noufflard, as chief of the commercial section and secretary of the board of administration, gathers information from all the colonies through constant correspondence with their officials, and distributes this information in frequent publications and through a large correspondence both in France and in the colonies. A permanent exhibit of the products of the colonies is also maintained, and these, with the publications, serve not only to distribute much information, but stimulate public interest in the products, commerce, and possibilities of the colonies. In addition to this, the publications, both by the French Government and by private individuals, in the form of periodicals, weekly and monthly, annual volumes issued by the colonial department, and a large number of volumes issued from the press on the French colonies and those of other countries, serves to not only maintain a public interest in matters of this character, but to distribute much detailed information upon the subject. A college for the training of young men for the colonial service is also maintained, as described on another page of this work.

#### THE NETHERLANDS.

In the Netherlands, Germany, and Belgium similar interest is manifested. In the Netherlands a school for the training of men for the colonial service is maintained at Delft, and the educational institutions of the country are also encouraged to provide special lines of studies suited to matters of this character, and especially the class of colonies maintained by the Netherlands Government; while a large library connected with the department of colonies at The Hague supplies information to those desiring to make special studies along this line. A large and instructive exhibit of the products of the colony, with statistical statements showing the development of agricultural and other industries in the colonies, and especially in Java, is maintained at Amsterdam, and furnishes extremely valuable object lessons regarding the conditions in and value of the colonies of the country.

#### GERMANY.

In Germany a colonial association, composed of more than 20,000 members scattered throughout the German Empire and the German colonies, gathers, and in turn disseminates, information regarding both the German colonies and the colonial systems of the world, while in Berlin libraries and associations for study of colonial subjects, and discussions in the press, and publications issued by the Government aid in awakening and maintaining public interest, as does also an exhibit of colonial products which is permanently maintained at Berlin.

## BELGIUM.

In Belgium, the youngest of the colonizing nations of Europe, a colonial institute has been established for the discussion of subjects pertaining to the world's colonies, and distribution of the information thus obtained among the people of that country. This organization, "The Institut Colonial International," is composed not alone of Belgians, but of distinguished students of colonial affairs from all the leading nations of the world, and its meetings, which are held annually or biennially, are attended by the most distinguished and thoughtful of the world's students of colonial matters, the papers read and discussions which follow being printed and distributed among the people of Belgium and to students of colonial matters in other countries. The meetings of this institute are held at the capitals of the various countries interested in colonial matters, the meeting of 1900 being held at Paris, that of 1901 at The Hague, while the next meeting is set for 1903 at London. The headquarters of the association is maintained at Brussels, where the secretary of the association, M. Camille Janssen, who was the first governor-general of the Congo Free State, devotes his time to gathering and distributing information regarding colonial affairs, and to the publications and literature of the institute.

From the above it will be seen that the study of colonial affairs and colonial economics is considered of very great importance, and a subject of permanent interest, by the nations having possessions of this character, and that their people, as well as their officers, are profoundly impressed, not only with the importance of the subject from the commercial, sociologic, and economic standpoint, but with the grave duties and responsibilities which rest upon those who have assumed the government of 500,000,000 of people—one-third of the earth's population—located at a great distance from, and under climatic and other conditions widely different from, that of the governing country.

## COLONIAL INDEBTEDNESS.

The debts of the world's colonies aggregate an enormous sum, and this fact has been much commented upon in discussions relative to the control of colonies and the responsibility assumed by their governing countries. The entire outstanding colonial indebtedness of the world at the present time aggregates probably \$4,000,000,000, or, in round terms, one-eighth of the national indebtedness of the world, while the population of the colonies is about one-third that of the entire world and their area two-fifths that of the land surface of the globe. This indebtedness has rapidly increased in the past few years. The total indebtedness of the British colonies alone at the present time is about \$2,745,000,000, of which \$1,183,000,000 belongs to the Australian colonies alone, \$1,031,000,000 to India, \$265,000,000 to Canada, and \$265,000,000 to the other British colonies for which definite figures are available. If to this is added the \$500,000,000 of Egypt and estimated existing debts and obligations of other colonies of the world, the total reaches the enormous figures mentioned above, \$4,000,000,000, or one-eighth of the world's entire indebtedness.

## OBJECTS FOR WHICH THE DEBTS HAVE BEEN CREATED.

Of the \$32,000,000,000 of national debts now existing, however, probably no considerable part was created for such absolutely legitimate purposes as those of the colonies, and probably no considerable share has, as an offset, such valuable and tangible assets as a result of the indebtedness. As has been already indicated, the prime necessity in the development of a colony is the construction of roads, railways, telegraphs, harbor and river improvements, postal facilities, irrigating systems in certain cases, public buildings, and educational systems. The railways of the world's colonies to-day, as has been already shown, aggregate about 70,000 miles, and they are increasing at the rate of about 2,000 miles per annum. The telegraphs are of vastly greater extent, and the roads which have been constructed aggregate hundreds of thousands of miles, while the irrigating system of India alone includes over 36,000 miles of canals, distributaries, and other irrigating works. In India alone there has been expended for roads, canals, and railways up to the present time about 3,000,000,000 of rupees, equivalent, even at the present depreciated value of the rupee, to fully \$1,000,000,000. In the Australian colonies the indebtedness of \$1,183,000,000 has been incurred almost entirely for the construction of roads, railways, telegraphs, river and harbor improvements, irrigating works, public buildings, educational institutions, and other public works of this character. In Canada a part of the railway system has been constructed with the aid of public funds aggregating more than \$50,000,000, and in addition to this the colony possesses a magnificent system of canals 262 miles in length, which, in connection with the St. Lawrence and Great Lake system, gives to the colony an inland navigation of 3,000 miles, and upon this canal system, including the canal at Sault Ste. Marie, has been expended more than \$75,000,000. In Cape Colony 2,000 miles of railway have been constructed and are now owned and operated by the colonial government, while other lines have been financially aided to a greater or less extent.

## TANGIBLE AND VALUABLE ASSETS TO OFFSET THE INDEBTEDNESS.

It will thus be seen that while the indebtedness of the colonies aggregates a large sum they have tangible and valuable assets to show for their indebtedness. A large share of the great and valuable railway systems of India and the other British colonies belongs to the colonial government, as does also the great canal system of India, and in nearly all these the systems are not only an equivalent of the money expended upon them, but are actually paying to these governments a fair rate of interest upon the investment, the net income of the canals of India being, according to Sir John Strachey, over 5 per cent per annum on the cost, and of the railways, according to the Statesman's Year-Book for 1901, also over 5 per cent per annum. In the Australian colonies the railway systems not only prove profitable as an investment, but of great advantage to the population by reason of the extremely low rates of transportation which are furnished the people. In some cases transportation of workmen to and from their homes being at a nominal figure, and of school children to and from school absolutely free.

## A COMPARISON OF COLONIAL AND NATIONAL INDEBTEDNESS.

A large share of the world's national indebtedness, other than the world's colonial debt, has been created for purposes other than actual improvements, chiefly wars and the maintenance of standing armies and navies, coast defenses, and works of an offensive and defensive character. With colonies this class of expenditures is small. India maintains her army and naval defense; the Dutch colonies in the East maintain their army and pay a part of the expenses of naval protection; the Australian colonies have a trifling expenditure for army and navy maintenance, and this is also true of Canada and the other self-governing colonies; but with the smaller colonies of all nations the sums which have been expended for military operations, offensive and defensive, are trifling when compared

with that of the average nation. As a result their indebtedness has, proportionately, greater net assets as an equivalent than is the case with the older and self-governing countries, while those assets have a greater earning capacity than those possessed by the governments which have such assets as an equivalent of any part of their indebtedness.

#### HOME GOVERNMENTS ASSUME NO RESPONSIBILITY.

As to the responsibility of the governing country for the indebtedness of the colonies, it may be said in general terms that the mother country assumes no responsibility for the debts of the colonies. While there have been some exceptions to this general rule, they are extremely few, and it can scarcely be said that any nation to-day assumes responsibility for any debt of its colonies unless the debt is created under extremely exceptional and pressing circumstances. For the large indebtedness of the British colonies the British Government assumes no responsibility, the entire debt of India, whether contracted in India or England, being chargeable to and paid entirely from Indian revenue and responsibility for its final payment only assumed by the Indian government, and this is the case with reference to the debts of the Australian, Canadian, and other British colonial governments. In spite of the fact, however, that the colonies themselves stand solely responsible for their indebtedness, the securities of the British colonies sell to-day in the great money markets of the world at higher rates than those of almost any other of the great nations. South Australian bonds sold in the open markets of London in December, 1900, at from 105 to 108; those of Victoria from 102 to 108; those of West Australia from 92 to 101; those of Canada from 100 to 106; Cape of Good Hope from 100 to 111; Natal from 100 to 115; those of India from 101 to 108, while in the same market scarcely a case is found in which the securities of the great European nations were at the same date selling as high as 100. While this higher market rate of the securities of the colonies is doubtless due in a very large degree to the higher rates of interest paid by these colonies upon their loans, the fact that the assets which they hold as an equivalent enable them to easily pay these rates of interest and that these high prices are paid for the securities with the full knowledge that they are secured only upon the faith of the colonial government and not that of the mother country, suggests that the colonial debts of the world, though large in the aggregate, do not compare unfavorably with those of the older communities and political systems.

The table which follows shows the debt of the British colonies in 1891 and 1900, detailed figures for those of the other colonies of the world not being available.

DEBTS OF BRITISH COLONIES, 1891 AND 1900.

COLONIES.	1891	1900	COLONIES.	1891	1900
	£	£		£	£
India.....	158,722,082	164,490,780	Bahamas.....	81,426	112,830
Gibraltar.....	15,000	15,000	Jamaica and Turks Island.....	1,543,120	2,149,410
Malta and Gozo.....	79,168	79,170	Barbados.....	30,100	414,000
Ceylon.....	2,518,374	8,662,750	Leeward Islands.....	92,161	294,120
Hongkong.....	200,000	341,800	Windward Islands.....	195,445	330,560
Straits Settlements.....	5,800	.....	Trinidad and Tobago.....	532,320	923,410
Cape Colony.....	23,748,921	31,409,760	New South Wales.....	48,425,333	63,762,070
Mauritius.....	781,149	1,192,180	Victoria.....	41,377,693	48,879,280
Natal.....	5,060,354	9,019,140	Queensland.....	28,105,684	35,227,660
St. Helena.....	1,250	.....	South Australia.....	20,401,500	24,916,310
Sierra Leone.....	58,454	.....	Western Australia.....	1,367,440	10,488,360
Bermudas.....	7,620	44,800	Tasmania.....	6,432,800	8,395,640
Canada.....	48,808,194	70,923,470	New Zealand.....	37,359,157	48,574,450
British Guiana.....	770,346	928,780	Fiji.....	248,990	205,080
British Honduras.....	17,595	34,710			
Newfoundland and Labrador.....	862,214	3,407,560	Total.....	427,834,690	530,223,080

#### THE DEBT OF INDIA DESCRIBED BY SIR JOHN STRACHEY.

The following statement regarding the debt of India is from Sir John Strachey's India, published in 1894:

"The public debt of India amounted in 1892 to Rx. 103,000,000 in India and £107,000,000 in England. The debt is divided for purposes of account into two parts, the ordinary debt, similar in character to the public debt of other countries, and the public works debt, consisting, as I have explained, of money invested in productive works, that is, in railways and works of irrigation. The Indian and English figures can not properly be added together, but if we take the rupee at the old conventional value of 2s., the total debt of India in 1892 was £210,000,000, of which £134,000,000 had been incurred for public works and £76,000,000 for other purposes.

"In 1857, just before the outbreak of the mutinies, the public debt of India was about £51,000,000. The task of suppressing the mutinies and the reorganization of the administration added more than £42,000,000 to the debt, and in 1862 the total amount of the debt was £97,000,000. Thus, in the twenty-nine years that elapsed after the suppression of the mutinies and the cessation of the extraordinary expenditure immediately due to them, the debt was increased by £113,000,000. This increase resulted entirely from the policy of borrowing for investment in railways and irrigation works. Apart from such investments, the public debt in the period I have mentioned not only received no increase, but was reduced by about £21,000,000. This will appear the more remarkable when it is remembered that India during this time suffered from a succession of serious famines, involving an expenditure of nearly £15,000,000 for their relief, that a net sum of £12,250,000 was spent on wars in Afghanistan and Egypt, and that a large increase of charge has been caused by the fall in the gold value of silver.

"The existing State railways have in many, but not in all cases been constructed directly by the government. Under the terms of the original contracts it has exercised, in most of the cases in which this has been possible, its powers of purchasing the railways constructed by companies. These railways then became state lines. The most important of the undertakings thus purchased was the East Indian Railway, the great line connecting Calcutta with Delhi and the northern provinces. The transaction has proved very advantageous to the state. In the ten years ending with 1893 it brought to the public revenues, after meeting all charges, including interest on borrowed capital, a clear profit of nearly Rx. 6,000,000, and, in addition, a further sum of more than Rx. 900,000, representing capital debt paid off through the operation of the terminable annuity, by means of which the purchase of the line was made. At the end of seventy-four years from 1880, when the annuity expires, the government will come into receipt of a clear yearly income which may be estimated at not less than Rx. 3,000,000, equivalent, after making allowances for all outgoings, to the creation of a capital of

upward of 50,000,000 sterling. In this and some other cases the working of the line has not been managed directly by the government, but through a company on a working lease.

"The rate of interest guaranteed on the capital of the railways first constructed by the companies was 5 per cent, and the government felt itself bound to make good any sum by which the net traffic receipts, after paying all working expenses, fell short of the amount necessary to provide interest at that rate. The later contracts have been more favorable to the government.

"The true measure of the burden of public debt is the annual charge thrown upon the revenues by the payment of interest. The financial results of the policy of borrowing for investment in public works, judged by this test, have been highly satisfactory.

"In 1862-63 the total net charge to the state on account of debt of every description, including that invested in public works, and also including the sums paid for guaranteed interest to railway companies, was Rx. 6,585,000. In 1891-92 this charge had fallen to Rx. 4,425,000, a reduction of Rx. 2,160,000.

"Enough has been said to show that in spite of all drawbacks the policy of borrowing for investment in productive public works has been highly successful, and that it has conferred most important benefits on the country.

"I have hitherto spoken only of those public works which gave a direct return in cash on the money spent on them. Since the transfer of the government to the Crown there has been a very large expenditure from revenue on the works which, although some of them do not come into that class, are of high utility. Within this period nearly Rx. 200,000,000 has been devoted to roads and bridges, telegraphs, hospitals, barracks and military works, colleges, schools, and other public buildings, and minor works of irrigation and navigation. Nearly 40,000 miles of telegraph lines have been constructed, and I can not tell how many thousand miles of roads."

### LAND OWNERSHIP IN THE COLONY.

Four distinct systems of land ownership or control are in practice in the colonial territories of the world: First, the retention of the ownership of the land by the governing country; second, control of the land by chartered companies, to which new territory is in some cases temporarily granted for development; third, ownership of large estates for cultivation and development of agricultural, mineral, and forest resources; fourth, small individual holdings by the people.

These four methods of land control are entirely distinct and strongly marked in their characteristics, and while they sometimes merge into each other under certain conditions, the extent to which they are adapted in the administration of the colony bears an important relation not only to its finances and development, but to the condition, prosperity, and contentment of the people. These distinct systems have developed in localities, climates, and among people differing so widely in characteristics that they may be said to be in part at least the result of local and long-existing conditions.

#### RETENTION OF THE OWNERSHIP OF LAND BY THE GOVERNMENT.

This system is chiefly in operation in the densely populated countries of the Orient, where the European governments when they took control found the system already in existence and recognized in it a convenient means of raising revenue. In India and Java, from time immemorial, the lands have been considered the sole property of the government, and their occupancy a privilege for which an annual compensation must be rendered. The Indian government for many generations before the British assumed control of India had obtained a large share of its revenue from the produce or money received as annual rental of the land. In Java when the Netherlands Government took possession they found a similar condition.

In India the British have in some parts maintained the system of permanent ownership of the land by the government but have tested various plans of assessing the revenue. In some cases the land has been permanently leased in large tracts at a fixed annual rental with the privilege of sublease, the party so leasing becoming responsible to the government for the annual payment for the use of the land. In other cases contracts have been made with the occupants of the land by which they may occupy it at a fixed rate for a term of thirty years, after which the rates are revised; but they still have the privilege of renewal of their lease at new rates, thus giving them an absolute permanency of holding, though with uncertainty as to the annual rate they must pay at the termination of the thirty-year period for which the original contract was made. In other contracts the rates are assessed from year to year. In some cases, however, the actual title of the land has passed from the government to the holder, while the fact that the long-term leases, with privilege of perpetual renewal, are accompanied with the privilege of transfer and similar retention by the person to whom they are transferred in case of his continuation of the annual payments, gives to the system, in some degree, the characteristics of permanent ownership.

In Java the Dutch, when they took possession, found that the ownership of the soil by the sovereign was generally acknowledged, and they therefore continued the system, taking an annual rental for certain tracts controlled by the village or community. The rental paid for these lands was for many years, and in some cases still continues to be, a share of the product of the land. No permanent ownership of land by the occupant was permitted, and thus, as in India, a large share of the revenue necessary for the conduct of the government was obtained from the annual rental of the land. Under the culture system a more direct control was retained over a part of the land, but in that which was allotted to natives for their personal use and for the raising of rice a share of the crop was exacted each year as payment for use of the land owned by the government. In recent years the government of Java has encouraged the clearing and development of certain sections where much labor was required to put the land in cultivable condition, by giving permanent ownership to those undertaking its development, and with that ownership the right of transfer.

#### LAND RENTS AN IMPORTANT PART OF THE REVENUES IN INDIA AND JAVA.

In both India and Java the receipts from the rental of lands furnishes the largest item of the revenues. The Indian budget for 1901 estimated the total receipts at 1,053,337,500 rupees, and of this large total 271,180,000, or more than one-fourth, was from land revenue. The Statesman's Year-Book for 1901, discussing the public revenue of India, says: "The most important source of public income is the land. In the greater part of Bengal, about one-fourth of Madras, and some districts of the Northwest Provinces the assessment was fixed permanently one hundred years ago, while it is fixed periodically at intervals of from twelve to thirty years over the rest of India. In the permanently settled tracts the land revenue averages about two-thirds of a rupee per acre of cultivated land (present value of the rupee about 33 cents) and represents on an average about one fifth of the rental, or about one-twenty-fourth of the gross value of the



produce. In the temporarily settled tracts the land revenue averages about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  rupees per acre of cultivated land, and represents something less than one-half of the actual or estimated rental, and is probably about one-tenth or one-twelfth the gross value of the produce."

In the Dutch East Indies the budget of 1899 put the total revenue at 132,743,000 florins, and of this sum 18,234,000 was from the land revenue received from the natives and 2,138,000 from land tax on nonnatives.

#### THE LAND SYSTEM IN INDIA.

The following description of the land system of India is condensed from a statement from Sir W. W. Hunter, whose long experience in India has already been referred to. That the state should appropriate to itself a direct share in the produce of the soil is a fundamental axiom of Indian finances that has been recognized throughout the East from time immemorial. For generations prior to British occupancy the Hindu village retained its customs, and one of these was that the growing harvests of the village field should be thrown into a common fund and the share of the state set aside before the remainder should be distributed, and this was done by the village headmen. Under the Mughal administration, which came later, the collection of the land tax was in the hands of an officer known as the zamindar, and he was accepted in the early part of the British administration as a suitable man through whom to collect the revenues from the villages and sections of territory. Under that system the zamindars paid a lump sum per annum for the area over which they exercised their control and were permitted to sublet it, with the rights of transfer and inheritance, subject always to the payment in perpetuity of a rent charge. In default of due payments the lands were liable to be sold to the highest bidder. As no restraint was retained regarding the rates of rental the system by which the zamindars were able to fix their own rents became oppressive, while in other cases the transfers and retransfers of the permanent leases which they made have created a permanent control over the land which has many of the characteristics of ownership, one of which is the power to borrow money upon these permanent leases. This permanent settlement through the zamindars, however, was confined to three provinces, and only applies to portions of these. In other sections the "Rayotwari" system prevailed, by which the government leases direct to the cultivator or peasant proprietor, the rate being fixed for a term of thirty years, with the right of perpetual rental on acceptance of the new rate fixed by the government at the end of that term. In this, also, the lease is a transferable and hereditary property, continuous without question at the expiration of the thirty-year lease by consent to the revised rate. In still other parts the land is divided into comparatively small sections, placed under direction of a native official, who, every year, ascertains the area actually under cultivation and assesses the fields according to their character at a prescribed rate.

#### EFFECT OF LAND OWNERSHIP BY NATIVES IN INDIA.

In certain parts of India the lands have passed into the complete ownership of the natives or the right of permanent retention and transfer upon the payment of fixed annual rentals. This is in many cases accompanied by the right of mortgaging the land as security for loans. This system has been much criticised by British officials of long experience in India, who say that the effect of giving the native the power of mortgaging his land too frequently results in his burdening himself with debt and finally losing the land. This view was pointedly expressed by a distinguished British official at the recent (1901) meeting of the International Colonial Institute at The Hague, who stated in a discussion of this question that the experience with this system in India was that in too many cases it resulted in the final and permanent transfer of the land to the money lenders and its loss by the native.

#### THE LAND SYSTEM OF JAVA DESCRIBED.

The following description of the land system of Java is by Mr. H. S. Boys, formerly a British officer in India, whose work, *Some Notes on Java*, is commended by the Dutch colonial officers as accurate and fair in its statements. Its discussion of the relative merits of the Dutch methods in Java and those of the English in India, found in the closing paragraphs, are especially interesting.

The land system obtaining in Java when the Dutch first landed was almost identical with that prevailing in Hindustan, and it is quite certain that it was carried from the latter country to their new settlements by the emigrant Hindus. We find the sovereign acknowledged without question as the owner of the soil, the cultivator occupying it under unvarying conditions, the governors receiving assignments of the revenue of large areas in payment for their services in administration. Proprietary right, as we English understand it, never existed. The land was national property, the nation being represented by the sovereign. Sir Stamford Raffles, after a very full investigation into the land tenures, writes: "Generally speaking, no property right in the soil is vested in anyone between the cultivator and the sovereign, the intermediate classes, who may at any time have enjoyed the revenues of villages or districts, being deemed the executive officers of government, who received these revenues as a gift from their lord, and who depended on his will alone for their tenure." Again, Herr Knops, one of the Dutch commissioners for the investigation of land tenures, writes: "There is not a single Javan who supposes that the soil is the property of the regent, but they are all sensible that it belongs to the government, nominally called the sovereign among them. The Javan's idea of property is modified by the three kinds of subjects to which it is applied—rice fields, *gagas*, or fruit trees. A Javan has no rice field he can call his own. Those of which he had the use of last year will be exchanged next year for others. They circulate from one cultivator to another, and if any villager were excluded he would infallibly emigrate. It is different with the *gagas*, or lands where dry rice is cultivated. The cultivator who clears such land from trees or brushwood and reclaims them from a wilderness considers himself to be a proprietor of the same. With regard to fruit trees, the Javan cultivator claims those he has planted as his legal property without any impost. If a chief were to transgress against this right the village would be deserted."

#### LANDS GRANTED IN FEE TO ENCOURAGE DEVELOPMENT.

The only exceptions to the general rule, which excluded the idea of individual right in landed property, are to be found in the mountainous and wooded tracts occupied by the Sundas in the west of the island, where private property is established and the holder's interest is transferable. This right has doubtless arisen in these tracts from the necessity of offering superior inducements to the reclaimers of such lands to settle in those parts, and it may be compared to the rights acquired by ryots in India, who, under clearing grants, felled the dense forests of the Terai tracts.

#### THE LAND SYSTEM UNDER NATIVE RULERS.

The system of administration in Java under the native sovereigns was almost identical with that of Akbar in India. We have, under different titles, the same very complete division of the country into provinces, districts, subdistricts, and villages. The headmen of the villages were, as in India, chosen by the villagers themselves. The rulers of the subdistricts, districts, and provinces were appointed, and all held office at the pleasure of those who nominated them. With their duties as revenue collectors they combined the offices of criminal and civil judges, being assisted by the Mussulman law officer and a legal counselor, who was the expounder of local customs which regulated much the dispensing of justice. The parallel between the Javan and Indian system is curiously exact.

## THE DUTCH FOLLOWED NATIVE CUSTOMS.

When the Dutch had made good their footing in the island they made no attempt to undertake its government. So far as the natives were concerned they left them and their management entirely to their native rulers. Their policy was entirely commercial and avowedly selfish. They insisted on certain articles of commerce being kept close monopolies for themselves; they demanded from each district a forced contingent of rice, leaving the tumangungs (or regents) to levy it from the villages in what manner they pleased; they compelled the regents to supply whatever labor they required for their public works, and after they had started the coffee plantations they required the regents to see that every cultivator planted, nurtured, and plucked a certain number of coffee trees; they required that the services of 32,000 families should be placed at their disposal for the felling of timber in the government forests, and in other ways they endeavored to bleed the country for their own benefit without attempting to give it anything in return. During this period, therefore, the unhappy country had not only to endure the ills which were indigenous, but it had in addition to suffer the oppression consequent on the presence of a foreign power, which insisted on the native rulers extorting produce and forced services from the people for their white masters as well as for themselves.

Sir Stamford Raffles, who commanded in Java during British occupation, had not been long in Java before he determined on a complete change of system. The Dutch monopolies were abandoned; freedom of cultivation was established; the forced deliveries of rice was stopped; all tolls on inland trade were abolished, and taxes on coasting trade removed; the port dues were equalized and their collection taken out of the hands of the Chinese.

Raffles then proceeded to reform the land tenures by excluding, as much as possible, the higher class of natives from any connection with the soil, by leasing the lands direct to the cultivator. During the Dutch rule the native regents would farm out the land revenues to demangs, and the demangs would sublet to bukals. Raffles forbade such leases, and reduced the regents and their subordinates to mere collectors of revenue. Village rent rolls were prepared, and the native collectors had to collect and account in accordance with these. The cultivators were given leases for three years, and it was clearly the intention of Raffles to introduce the ryotwari system of India, and to make the cultivators practically proprietors of their lands. To compensate native officials for their loss of income under these changes, Raffles provided them with handsome salaries and maintained their rank.

It was Raffles's intention, as soon as his temporary settlement had expired, to confer on the cultivators the full proprietary right in their holdings, involving the terribly doubtful privilege of alienating their fields and the disastrous liability to be sold up, either by their civil creditors or by the revenue authorities for default. By the return of the island to Dutch rule the Javans have escaped that fatal gift of absolute proprietary right which has been the ruin of so many tens of thousands of our peasantry in India, and with which, while striving to bless, we have so effectually cursed the soil of India.

## DUTCH METHODS IN JAVA COMPARED WITH ENGLISH METHODS IN INDIA.

It is not too much to say that the loss of all the many benefits which undoubtedly would have been conferred on Java by the substitution of English for Dutch rule is not too high a price to have paid for escape from the many evils of unrestrained power to alienate landed property. Under their present government the Javans, according to our English ideas, ought to be the most miserable people. That they are not so, but that, on the contrary, they are the most prosperous of Oriental peasantry, is mainly due to one cause, the inability of the Javan to raise one single florin on the security of his fields, and the protection thus enjoyed by him against the money lender and against himself. Nature is bountiful in Java, and undoubtedly the abundant fertility of the soil enables the Javan to stand up under many ills to which he is subject. But were her fecundity doubled, were she to pour her gifts as from a cornucopia into his lap, nothing would ultimately save him from the money lender and from consequent eviction from his fields and his home if he were able to pledge the one or the other as security for an advance. \* \* \*

From the slight sketch of Java and its institutions which has been given it will have been seen how different are the methods of government adopted by Holland and England in their administration of their Oriental possessions. We strive our very best to rule India in the interest of the native population. The Dutch do not profess to study the well-being of their Javan subjects, save as an object secondary to their own advantage. England expends the whole of her enormous revenue in India, and sends not a rupee westward, save for goods purchased, while Holland receives ordinarily from Java as pure tribute more than one-third of her colony's income. We lay ourselves out to give every Indian who cares to come forward for it what is practically a free education right up to the universities which we have established, and still continue to establish, all over India. Holland of set purpose keeps its Eastern subjects as stupid and ignorant as is possible. We are scrupulously exact in all our dealings with the natives, insisting on a full wage being paid for all work done and checking by all the means in our power the tendency on the part of all natives in authority to compel labor, while the Dutch have no hesitation in utilizing to the full this tendency, and practically draw from this source a large portion of their revenue. The English protect all rights in land, however shadowy they may be, and confer others. The Dutch admit no such rights, and studiously avoid the introduction of the proprietary principle. We persist in impressing on the native mind that the Western and the Oriental, the heir of Europe's civilization and successor to Eastern conservatism, are all equal and equally fitted for and capable of understanding and of profiting by those social institutions and forms of government to which we ourselves are so attached. The Dutch frankly deny the equality, and ridicule the notion that all the world should be ruled on the same principle.

To the Anglo-Indian visiting Java and viewing these great differences it is somewhat humiliating to feel that the Dutch have most unquestionably, in one point at any rate, succeeded where we have partially failed. Conscious of the absolutely upright intentions of his own Government, and convinced that it is the first wish of every English official connected with the administration that all classes should share in the blessings which should flow from its benevolent measures, he is startled to find the great mass of agriculturists in Java manifestly in a far better material condition than our own ryots. This is unquestionably the case, and the fact undoubtedly proves that our treatment of the great questions relating to land tenures, which a hundred years ago were partly similar to those which have from time to time arisen in Java, have not been dealt with in the manner best calculated to secure the happiness of the people. The denationalization of the land, which from the time of Lord Cornwallis till the present day has been more and more completely effected, has resulted in the aggrandizement of a class of wealthy landlords and middlemen at the expense of the cultivator of the soil, and we have surrendered that splendid position as owners of the land which enables the Dutch to appropriate for State purposes the whole rental of the country and to insure that that rental shall always be so moderate in amount as to enable the peasant to pass his days in comfort and without care. Doubtless Holland would do well to treat her rich dependency in a more generous, more unselfish spirit, and in many points she could undoubtedly take lessons from England; but the impartial student of the economics of the Eastern possessions of the two countries will certainly come also to the conclusion that India has much to learn from Java.

Regarding the system of the permanent retention of land ownership by the Government, it may be said that its retention in communities where the system has always prevailed is commended by many students of colonial methods, for two reasons: First, that it furnishes a simple and readily accepted method of raising revenue; second, that the experience of the British in those parts of India where the soil has been transferred to the native, with power of mortgage and transfer, is that the land, in a large proportion of cases, soon passes into the possession of the money lenders.

## CONTROL OF THE LAND BY CHARTERED COMPANIES.

This system, as is shown elsewhere, is a revival in recent years of methods adopted, tested, and abandoned in the early part of last century. Under it great companies are given control of large undeveloped territories, the control extending to the right of development of lands, forests, mines, highways, the construction of roads and railways and canals, the sale or lease of lands, the establishment and

administration of forms of government, the maintenance of a police force and even, if necessary, of an army (which, however, is in some degree under control of the home Government). These charters, and the governments established under them are, under modern methods, administered under the constant supervision of officials appointed by the home Government and located in the governed territory, and their assent to all the important acts of the governing company is necessary, including sales or leases of lands, the raising of revenue, taxation levied upon the occupants of the soil, etc. The details of this method of governing a country, and incidentally of the control or disposition of the land, are discussed under the head of "Chartered companies" and need not be repeated here.

#### OWNERSHIP OR LEASE OF LARGE ESTATES.

The system of control of large estates by individuals or corporations is in part a relic of slavery days, when large plantations, worked by groups of slaves, were possible; while in other cases they are still considered a necessity by reason of the fact that certain agricultural products can only be turned into marketable condition by the use of costly machinery, and that when such machinery and the accompanying plant are installed the control of a sufficient area of land to supply the natural product to be thus manufactured is a business necessity. Under these two systems, the one following the other, great estates have been established in many of the colonies, especially those in which sugar production forms the chief agricultural industry. In the West Indies and adjacent territory, where sugar cane was originally the most profitable crop, large estates were created, the cane being grown by slave labor, and considerable sums invested in the machinery of manufacture. After slavery ceased to exist, the owners of the estates found it difficult to obtain negro labor for continuing the production of the sugar cane, and in a number of cases, as has been described under the head of "Indentured labor," coolies from India, and in a few cases labor from other sources, were brought in under contract and put upon these plantations or estates and the production of cane for the manufacture of sugar continued. With the development of the present methods of sugar production, the use of extensive machinery and large plants requires a certainty of cane production, prompt handling, and a large producing area in the immediate vicinity of the plant to insure success, and for this work it is held that the control of large estates by lease or ownership and the employment, under such terms as will insure continuous labor, of a large force to operate the estates, especially during the critical period of cane ripening and grinding, is an absolute necessity. This view has led in the Dutch East Indies, since the abolition of the forced labor system, to large leases of land by the Government to great sugar manufacturing companies, and under the agrarian law of 1870 large tracts which were formerly waste lands have been leased to these companies on hereditary holdings for a seventy-five year term. In 1898 nearly 1,000,000 acres were thus ceded to 752 individuals and companies.

#### INDIVIDUAL OWNERSHIP.

The system which is being now generally commended, aside from that operative in the two great territories where governmental control of the land has continued for generations, India and Netherlands, is that of the subdivision of the land into comparatively small holdings, while in the densely populated tropical colonies the tendency is in favor of decidedly small holdings. This has been already discussed under the head of "Diversification of industries," where it is shown that especially in the densely populated colonies of the British West Indies careful inquiry has established, and experiments substantiated, the theory of small individual ownership of land, coupled with a diversification of industries. The application of this plan in a somewhat modified form to less densely populated sections, coupling it with the central factory system (under a plan by which the individual owners will grow cane or other agricultural products for the factory), is also recommended and in some degree being developed in certain colonial and tropical sections. In general terms it may be said that individual ownership prevails in a large proportion of the colonies where population and development are in an advanced state, and that the disposition is to apply it in conjunction with the central factories necessary for the successful production of the great staples. "The most prosperous of the colonial workingmen," says Sir Charles Dilke in his *Problems of Greater Britain*, "are landholders in towns or suburbs, shareholders in companies owning factories and mines, and in fact capitalists and proprietors with the same feeling against the nationalization of the land as is found among landowners in the United States. Although the most extreme land reformers of Europe either care nothing for free transfer of land, or dislike it, the whole of the (British) colonies have adopted and maintained, with every sign of popular assent, an easy system of the transfer of real estate, and support it as steadily as they do universal education, manhood suffrage, and the other planks of the old colonial liberal programme now mostly carried into law. \* \* \* The land systems of British North America are modeled upon the American freehold homestead plan. In Cape Colony there is a curious land system of Dutch origin, the greater portion of the land being held of the Crown on a quitrent tenure, and a good deal more held as leasehold, while a few of the large estates are upon a freehold tenure. Under an act of 1887 land is disposed of at public auction with payment by the purchaser of one-fifth of the price within a year, and mortgage of four-fifths at 4 per cent in favor of the government. The State is in Cape Colony, a large landowner and quitrents form a considerable item in the public revenue. In Natal the old Dutch farmers were allowed farms of from 2,000 to 6,000 acres, at an annual rental of a little over half a farthing an acre, redeemable at fifteen years' purchase. But from 1848 a homestead system was adopted, and since 1880 lands have been sold in freehold in lots of not over 2,000 acres, payable in twenty annual installments without interest. In the Australian colonies, when lands were let out to pastoral tenants at low rents it was only as a temporary arrangement, and within the colonies the agricultural land has passed gradually to free selectors of the working class. All the colonies except the Cape, and for a time New Zealand, have shown alacrity in getting rid of the freehold of their land for cash, though all of them have tried their hand at legislation intended to secure a preference to the poor man. In each of the colonies a small body of men, with distinguished leaders, have advocated the nationalization of the land; in none of them have their views found general favor, probably for the reason that too large a proportion of the population are interested as landowners in leaving matters as they are."

#### LANGUAGE IN THE COLONIES.

Little effort is made by the experienced colonizing countries to introduce their own language or customs among the natives of the colonized country, except in the few colonies which proved suitable for permanent habitation of the people of the mother country. In the English colonies, classed as "habitation colonies," in which a large part of the population is composed of the natives of the mother

country or their descendants, the language is of course English, except in a certain section of Canada occupied by French, who have persistently maintained their own language and customs, and in some parts of South Africa, formerly controlled and settled by the Dutch, where the Dutch language is retained. In the British West Indies the use of the English language became general through the intercourse of the governing class with the negro population during slave days, and thus English became the generally accepted language in those islands, while a similar condition prevails in the French West Indian colonies, where the language of the governing country is generally spoken.

#### NATIVE LANGUAGE RETAINED IN THE TROPICS.

In the great tropical communities, however, where large masses of people with a native language are governed by European nations, no effort is made to introduce the language of the governing country, except among the few with whom the officers from the home country necessarily come in contact, and through whom they distribute their instruction and government to the natives. Thus in India all natives desiring to enter the service of the Government and to serve in such capacity as will bring them in constant touch with the English officials there located, are required to learn the English language, and this they do with facility and great success; but, aside from this, the adoption of the English language is not urged upon the natives, though it is taught in the schools of the higher grades, and even in certain schools of the lower grades, to those who desire such instruction. In the Netherlands the adoption of the language of the mother country by the natives is distinctly discouraged. Officials sent from the Netherlands to the colonies are required to perfect themselves in the language of the natives, in part in the training schools and the college maintained in the Netherlands for their instruction, and afterwards in actual intercourse with the natives, and writers upon conditions in Java state that the disposition to discourage the introduction of the language of the governing country in the colony is carried to such an extent that officials, even if addressed by a native in the Dutch language, reply in the native tongue.

#### THE FRENCH, SPANISH, AND PORTUGUESE METHODS.

In the colonies governed by France the method followed is somewhat different, the use of the French language among the natives being encouraged wherever practicable, and the effect of this is seen in the fact that French continues to be the general language of the people in their older colonies and even in certain islands and communities which were formerly colonies of France, but are now otherwise governed. This is also true of the methods adopted by the Spanish and Portuguese colonizers—their language having outlived their control in the vast sections of South, Central, and North America, and the East and West Indies, formerly controlled by them. This fact, that the French Government is more inclined to give its language to the colonies than is the case with the other colonizing countries, and that the Spanish and Portuguese not only give their language to the countries which they govern, but in such indelible form that it has been maintained long after their control of the territory has disappeared, is apparently due, in part, at least, to two circumstances: First, that the French and Spanish made greater efforts in their official and personal relations to assimilate the natives to their own customs and methods; and second, the active work of the missionaries and machinery of the Church of Rome, which, in conjunction with and aided by the home Governments, permeated the native communities, introducing and establishing the language and more or less of the customs of the governing people.

#### VIEWS OF DISTINGUISHED STUDENTS AND ECONOMISTS.

On this subject of the introduction of the language of the governing country into the colonies or noncontiguous communities governed, Sir George Cornewall Lewis says: "If it be inexpedient for a government to change suddenly the laws of a dependency, it is still more inexpedient for the government to attempt to make a sudden change in its language. The acquisition of a new language is a slow and laborious process; and it implies an amount of diligence, leisure, and intelligence which can not be expected of an entire community of adults. The great mass of mankind never acquire a language by study; they only know the language which they imperceptibly imbibe during infancy and childhood. It is no more possible for a government, by the expression of its will and by offering rewards or threatening punishments, to change suddenly the language of its subjects than to add a cubit to their stature or to give them a sixth sense. A government may publish its laws and other acts in a foreign language, but it can not cause the people to understand them; it may prohibit advocates from pleading in their native tongue, but it can not enable them, however much they may desire it, to plead in an acquired language; it may declare that contracts and testaments made in the language of the country are invalid, but it can not enable parties to contracts or testators to comprehend the meaning of instruments drawn in a foreign tongue. Many examples might be given of the mischievous effects which have been produced by an attempt to force the language of a government upon the people. Thus, when Joseph II attempted to treat Hungary as a dependency, to incorporate it with Austria, and to reform its laws by his own authority, the people for a time submitted, unwillingly, to his useful though too hastily introduced reforms; but when he ordered St. Stephen's crown to be carried to Vienna and issued an edict making German the language of government throughout Hungary the people arose in insurrection against him. In like manner, the measures of the King of Holland for introducing the use of the Dutch language into Belgium in the place of the French language, which was spoken by the educated classes, created a general discontent throughout Belgium, and contributed materially to produce a Belgian revolution and the consequent separation of Belgium from Holland. Even if a dominant country should succeed in diffusing its own language among the people of a dependency, it might fail in creating the attachment to its government which was the end sought by the introduction of its language. And if by a forcible or overhasty introduction of its language it engendered discontent in the dependency, it would produce an effect the very opposite of that intended; since, instead of attaching the people of the dependency to itself, it would strengthen their aversion to its supremacy. It is obvious that the best mode of incorporating a body of people with the rest of the empire is to render them contented and happy, and that any measures which renders them discontented is likely to prevent that incorporation. \* \* \* The self-partiality which leads the dominant country to introduce its own language into a dependency, without due regard to the circumstances of the latter, sometimes brings evils upon the dependency itself by causing the appointment of people of the dominant country to offices in the dependency to the exclusion of natives from them, without sufficient reason for the preference. Inasmuch as the natives of a dependency do not aspire to offices in the dominant country, they reasonably expect to be appointed to those in their own little community. Not

only, therefore, are their feelings wounded by their exclusion from these offices, but this injury to their feelings is aggravated by the incompetency of the natives of the dominant country who are appointed to them."

A later view of this question is that of Mr. C. P. Lucas, who, in his introduction to the reprint of Mr. Lewis's work from which the above quotation is made, says: "Nowadays, it can hardly be said that Great Britain introduces or is likely to introduce into her colonial possessions her laws, language, and religion without due regard to the position and interests of the dependency. The French laws and language and the Roman Catholic religion are in no way tabooed in Lower Canada, for instance, or in Mauritius. The Roman Dutch law is still the basis of the legal system in the old Dutch colonies, the Cape Colony, and British Guiana." To this statement may be added that the Dutch language introduced in South Africa by the settlers from the Netherlands, when the Cape of Good Hope was a Netherlands colony, is still retained among the people of Dutch descent with such tenacity that the British Government has found it advisable to permit its use in the schools and in the legislative body in which discussions are maintained in both the English and Dutch languages, and records of these discussions are kept in both languages.

## QUESTION IV.

### HOW ARE HABITS OF INDUSTRY AND THRIFT INCULCATED AMONG THE NATIVES AND THE NECESSARY LABOR SUPPLY OBTAINED FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF INDUSTRIES WHICH SHALL RENDER THE COLONY SELF-SUPPORTING AND ITS PEOPLE PROSPEROUS?

The question of the labor supply, especially in undeveloped territories, has been widely discussed by those interested in the management of colonies. This is especially true with reference to tropical territory, to which the immigration of citizens of the home country is usually small, and in which continuous and heavy labor can not be successfully performed by natives of the temperate zone. The opening of roads, the construction of railways and canals, the development of mines, the creation of great establishments for the handling and utilization of the products of agriculture, especially sugar and tobacco, have required large supplies of labor in the tropical territories controlled by governments of the temperate zone. In some of these territories great difficulty has been experienced in obtaining a satisfactory supply of such labor from the native population of the territory. The fact that conditions of soil and climate and ease of production in the Tropics enable the natives to produce sufficient for their daily requirements with very little labor adds to the difficulty of cultivating among them habits of industry and persistent labor necessary for the successful conduct of great enterprises similar to those which have brought success, prosperity, and great development to the countries of the temperate zone.

While it is not assumed in this discussion that these conditions prevail in the territory over which the United States now exercises control to such an extent that they can not be remedied by the application of conditions which produce industry among the native people of other communities, the difficulties which have arisen in this line in other communities similarly located seem to render it proper that the experience of other nations and peoples in this, as in all matters pertaining to colonization, be here presented.

Prior to the middle of the nineteenth century this problem was met with forced labor, slavery. Great industries were developed in the Tropics, especially in the West Indies, where sugar production flourished. Great plantations were established, largely owned by nonresidents and directed by their representatives in the islands, and the labor performed by slaves imported from Africa or their descendants. In the East Indies the use of absolute slave labor was not so extensive, the density of population in India and its readiness to accept employment furnishing a ready supply of labor. In Java a system of forced labor adopted by the Dutch, by which the entire population was required to give a certain number of days in each year to public works, while the land was cultivated under a rigid system established by that Government, furnished a temporary solution of the labor question in that island. With the abolition of slavery, which public opinion demanded in the middle of the century, and the abolition of forced labor in Java, which public sentiment also demanded a few years later, and the development of other tropical territories, new complications arose, and various experiments have been made and various solutions of the labor problem proposed and discussed.

### SIX METHODS OF OBTAINING A LABOR SUPPLY IN COLONIES.

Six distinct propositions for the development of the necessary labor supply in the Tropics have been offered: (a) Forced labor by the native population or imported slaves; (b) the importation of labor under contract; (c) convict labor from the mother country; (d) the sale of lands at a comparatively high price and the application of the proceeds to the payment of sufficiently high wages to induce immigration of labor; (e) the development of communication and transportation routes, by which industry in the colony may become profitable and therefore acceptable to the natives; and (f) the diversification of industries by which individual enterprises will be encouraged.

#### FORCED LABOR.

Under this head would naturally be included, first, slavery, which now happily has disappeared and which need not be discussed except as to the conditions which immediately followed its termination in the tropical colonies where it had furnished the chief labor supply; second, the use of convict labor in the colonies; and, third, the method under which the Dutch created a great system of roads and internal communications in Java, and, coincident with this development, a great agricultural prosperity, much of which has continued since the abolition of the forced-labor system.

#### SLAVERY.

The emancipation act, which became a law in England on August 28, 1833, provided that on August 1, 1834, all slaves in the British colonies should become apprenticed laborers, and that they should be absolutely free in 1840. Subsequently the date of complete emancipation was fixed for August 1, 1838. England paid £20,000,000 as compensation to the slave owners. The number of slaves who received their freedom on August 1, 1838, was 639,000. "Despite the confident predictions of the antislavery party," says Ireland, "emancipation had a most disastrous effect on the West Indian colonies. Numbers of estates fell out of cultivation; plantations became a drug on the market; the cotton and coffee industries were, for the time being, destroyed. Looking back on the situation, it is readily perceived that no other result could have been looked for. It was slavery that had made the existence of the plantations possible; it was the yearly supply of slaves that kept them going. \* \* \* After being condemned for years to hard daily toil, it was surely unreasonable to expect that negroes would not take advantage of their freedom to lead that life of leisure of which each of them had dreamed—and only dreamed.



\* \* \* So desperate did the condition of the West Indian colonies become that the House of Commons appointed a select committee to inquire into the state of the West Indian colonies in reference to the existing relations between employers and laborers. The report of this committee makes an analysis of the causes of the West Indian distress, and also foreshadows the policy by means of which alone extreme disaster could be averted, and which was, in fact, adopted by several of the colonies."

The report of the British West Indian commission above referred to, presented in 1842, may be summarized as follows: First, that the emancipation act was productive of the most favorable and gratifying results regarding the character and condition of the negro population; second, that the negro had shown an increased desire for instruction and a growing disposition to assume the obligations of marriage and the responsibilities of domestic life, improved morals, a rapid advance in civilization, and an increased sense of the value of property and independent station; third, that simultaneous with this had come a great diminution in the staple productions of the West Indies, injurious and in some cases ruinous to the proprietors of estates; fourth, that this had resulted, in some of the larger colonies, in the abandonment of estates; fifth, that the principal cause of this diminished production was the difficulty of obtaining steady and continuous labor, and the high rates of remuneration required for broken and indifferent labor; sixth, that this diminution of the labor supply was due to the fact that the laborers had betaken themselves to other and more profitable occupations, and were able to live in comfort by only laboring for the planters three or four days in the week and from five to seven hours a day; seventh, that this was largely due to the fact that the negroes had been able to obtain land upon easy terms for their own occupation; eighth, that a very small area of land provides sufficient to yield ample food supply, and in many cases a considerable revenue independent of wages received from plantations; ninth, that this cheapness of land was due to the excess of fertile lands beyond the requirements of the existing population. The report closed by recommending the promotion of immigration of a fresh laboring population, subject to such regulations as would insure the full rights and comforts of the immigrants as freemen, and be conducted under the authority, inspection, and control of responsible public officers. The experiment of the importation of indentured labor, recommended in the above report, will be discussed in another section of this study, but the above summarization of the report itself, which resulted from a study of the conditions which followed the abolition of forced labor, is here presented in its proper sequence, especially with the purpose of calling attention to this statement made more than half a century ago regarding the disposition of native negro labor to divide itself into individual industries and establish homes upon small holdings, and by doing so contribute to the diversification of industries which has been already referred to as a possible solution of the labor question in the Tropics, especially the West Indies, with their proximity to great markets for products of a diversified character.

#### CONVICT LABOR.

Another form of forced labor which has been adopted in a few cases, especially in the earlier history of colonization, was that supplied by transportation of convicts. Australia, as is well known, was originally a convict colony. The Russian Government for a time utilized portions of Siberia in this manner, and the French island of New Caledonia in the Pacific and French Guiana in South America are still the destination of certain classes of convicts from France. New Caledonia, in 1898, consisted of 7,477 convicts undergoing sentence, 2,515 liberated convicts, 1,714 soldiers, 1,762 officials, and 585 colonists. It is needless to say that convict labor or penal service in the colony for other than crimes there committed is no longer considered advisable or advantageous, and has been practically abandoned, except in small islands which can virtually be given up to this purpose and not considered in the life of the ordinary colony. "In 1845, and again in 1849," says Dilke, "the inhabitants of Melbourne prevented by force the landing of British convicts, and much more violent language was used of that resistance by the English press than has recently been applied to the equally illegal prevention of the landing of Chinese. In the second of the two years named the legislature of New South Wales passed a law which imposed on all persons who might have been transported to or convicted in any British colony in the Southern Hemisphere, and who might arrive in New South Wales, the necessity of notifying the magistrates of all changes of residence on their part, and, if summoned by a justice of the peace, of accounting for their means of support in each case under a penalty of two years' imprisonment with hard labor. This act was disallowed by the home Government. The Australian League, which was started at Melbourne in 1851, was intended, among other objects, to support with money those who might suffer from being prominent in the cause of 'antitransportation' (of convicts). Victoria, in 1852, passed a 'Convicts' prevention act,' which prevented ex-convicts who had received the Queen's pardon, or who were absolutely free, having completed their sentences, or who held tickets of leave, which gave them a legal right to go where they chose in Australia, from landing in Victoria."

Merivale, in his course of lectures on colonization before the University of Oxford in 1839, 1840, and 1841, commenting upon the convict-labor experiment in Australia, said: "The penal colonies under the British Government are now four in number—New South Wales, Tasmania, Bermuda, and Norfolk Island. In Bermuda there are about 900 convicts only, working in gangs in the Government dockyards. Norfolk Island is used as a place of temporary punishment. The two Australian colonies (New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land) contain at this time (1840) more than 40,000 convicts, and of these it appears that about 26,000 are assigned or made over to settlers as servants to perform compulsory labor; the remainder are worked in the service of the Government in road gangs, chain gangs, or in the penal settlements. From 1787 to 1836, 75,250 convicts had been transported to New South Wales, and 27,757 to Van Diemen's Land. The average of late years has been about 3,500 to the former colony and 2,000 to the latter. It becomes important to trace the effect produced on these colonies by the continued influx of convict labor, and the probable results of its discontinuance. In the first place, the effect of the extensive introduction of convicts on the progress of the population must be considered. The great disproportion between the sexes, which is unavoidable under such circumstances, necessarily prevents it from making a rapid advance. Accordingly the increase of number in Australia has been very slow. But a population which grows in this manner—by adult immigration—must for some time be favorably constituted with respect to the productiveness of labor; there must be a smaller number of unproductive persons. But convicts in a healthy country like Australia soon grow old, and it may be doubted, therefore, whether, after a certain period, such a population is really more effective than one which grows by natural movement. The labor of convicts is probably the dearest of all labor; that is, it costs more to some portion or other of society. The master himself obtains it cheaper than the services of the free laborer, but this is only because the State has already expended a much greater sum than the difference on the maintenance and restraint of the convict; and, when obtained, it is not in the long run equally efficient or valuable. In our colonies the convicts are divided into two classes—those employed on public works and those assigned as servants to individuals. From the first of these classes it is probable that as much labor is obtained, for an equal expense, as would be procured from hired laborers at that high rate of wages which prevails in young communities. But with reference to the other class, that of assigned servants, the case is very

different. The difficulty of employing them profitably, and at the same time rendering their condition one of punishment, is extreme. The ordinary laborer may be compelled, by dread of severe coercion, to perform a certain quantity of work—about two-thirds of what would be done by a free laborer. But severity will never compel the skilled mechanic to exert his powers. Their development can only be won by good treatment and indulgence, perhaps in his most pernicious habits; and thus with respect to those very criminals who are in general the most depraved there is a constant temptation to the master to treat them with the greatest lenity and favor, by which the object of punishment is entirely frustrated. \* \* \* The state of public morals in New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land is but too plainly evinced by the criminal returns from those countries. A large proportion of their community consists of men restrained from the commission of every crime merely by the exercise of severe and constant watchfulness over them. It is notorious that almost every wickedness of luxurious and corrupt society is practiced there, amidst a scanty, laborious, and unrefined population. Nor is it possible to deny the extensive influence which the conduct of this vicious class exercises on the remainder of the community. The habit of entertaining convict servants introduces crime and recklessness into families of respectable emigrants."

#### FORCED LABOR IN THE DUTCH EAST INDIES.

In the East Indies, especially Java, the labor problem was met in a different way by the Dutch Government, which has controlled that island for so many years, and while the system which it adopted has practically disappeared under the pressure of public opinion within a more recent period than that which witnessed the abolition of slavery, a somewhat detailed description of the method is interesting, especially as it was highly commended by Englishmen of long experience in the Orient long after public opinion compelled the abolition of slavery.

This commendation was strongly marked in the case of W. J. V. Money in his work *Java, or How to Manage a Colony*, published in 1861, after a careful personal study of conditions in Java, which followed a long official service in India. In the introduction to his work on Java, he says: "Poverty, crime, and dissatisfaction among the natives, failing means and general discontent among the Europeans, a large debt and yearly deficit in the income of the country, both trade and revenue at the same low figure per head of population, and absence of good feeling between European and native existed in Java until 1832. A new system was then inaugurated which in twenty-five years quadrupled the revenue, paid off the debt, changed the yearly deficit to a large yearly surplus, trebled the trade, improved the administration, diminished crime and litigation, gave peace, security, and affluence to the people, combined the interests of European and native, nearly doubled an Oriental population, and gave contentment with the rule of their foreign conquerors to 10,000,000 of the Mussulman race. The only English aim it did not attain was what the Dutch had no wish to secure—the religious and intellectual elevation of the native. But those benefits were all obtained by a means not only compatible with that object, but which have involuntarily operated in that direction, and have produced a firm basis for future improvement. These benefits are due to the culture system, established by General Van den Bosch in 1832."

The system thus so highly commended by Money is summarized by Ireland in his *Tropical Colonies*, 1899, as follows: "The general principles of the culture system were these: All land belonged to the Government, and was given out for cultivation on the condition that four-fifteenths of all produce should be paid to the Government. A class of Europeans, known as contractors, were encouraged by the Government, by means of loans, to build factories and storehouses for the gathering and handling of the crops—chiefly sugar, coffee, and spices. Behind this system lay the *corvée* or liability of the people to render a certain amount of free service to the Government in each year. The amount of such service varied between fifty and seventy-five days a year. By utilizing this forced labor the Dutch covered the island with excellent roads and erected handsome public edifices. The effects of this system were most striking, a remarkable increase taking place in the production, revenue, and imports of the island, and a corresponding improvement in the material conditions of the peasantry. From 1871 onward the rigor of the system was relaxed, and in recent years taxes have been substituted for the *corvée* and land has been thrown open to private enterprise. During the past five years the island, which formerly yielded a handsome profit to Holland, has had to face a yearly deficit averaging about \$5,000,000. The condition of the agricultural classes in Java compares very favorably with that of the same classes in India; and this has been attributed by writers to the fact that under the Dutch system there existed no landlords and middlemen to send up the rental of land." (The recent change from surplus revenue to a deficit, above referred to by Mr. Ireland, is attributed by Dutch statesmen and writers, in part at least, to the large expenses in the island due to the Chinese war, which has continued for several years, and to heavy reductions in the prices of sugar and coffee, the chief productions of the island.)

The above description of the forced-labor system in Java, like that which preceded it with reference to slavery, is presented not with the view that its adoption would be desirable, or is likely to be returned to by any nation, but its details are considered worthy of examination, chiefly by way of illustrating the permanent benefits to labor, industry, and commerce accruing from the opening of highways and means of communications which were created during the existence of the system here described.

The descriptions given on another page by Professor Day, an American; M. Le Clercq, a Frenchman, and Mr. Worsfold, an Englishman, together with the above brief statement by Mr. Ireland, a native of England but a resident of the United States, present from varied standpoints the views of students of the labor and culture system in Java, views drawn, in nearly all cases, from personal observation.

#### THE IMPORTATION OF LABOR UNDER CONTRACT.

Following the abolition of forced labor in the Tropics came the experiment of the importation of contract or "indentured" labor, and in some cases the importation of labor without a definite contract either as to wage or term of service. Both of these systems are still in use in a limited way, and while not looked upon as a satisfactory solution of the problem of the supply of labor for tropical territory, they may properly be described in this connection.

The chief scene of importation of labor under contract has been in the British tropical colonies, notably Trinidad, Jamaica, British Guiana, Mauritius, and the colonies on the eastern and southern coasts of Africa. Into all of these and some other of the British colonies coolies from India have been brought under contract or "indenture" for a certain term of years at fixed rates of wages and under protection of British officials appointed to assure their fair treatment and return them to their home at the end of the period, in case

they desire to return. In the British East Indies, notably Ceylon and the Malayan Peninsula, imported labor has been and is now utilized in certain of the colonies, but without restrictions as to wages, time of employment, or return of the laborers to their homes, the sources from which they were drawn, India and China, being sufficiently near to enable them to terminate their service whenever it should prove unsatisfactory, and the industrious habits of the classes so employed, coupled with the large numbers to be drawn upon, assuring a satisfactory supply to those requiring their services. In Ceylon the labor supply, other than that furnished by the natives, is chiefly drawn from India, and in the Malayan Peninsula from China.

The system of imported contract labor which is in force in British Guiana, Trinidad, Jamaica, and Mauritius is described by Ireland as follows: "The laborers are recruited by voluntary enlistment in India. Each laborer is given a copy of his contract, and such terms as are contained in it are enforceable against the government of the colony. On arrival in the colony the immigrants are allotted to the different estates. The immigrants must work seven hours a day for five days a week. In return the employer must pay a minimum daily wage of 24 cents to men and 16 cents to women. He must supply free houses, free medical attendance, free hospital accommodation for all immigrants, and free education for the children of the immigrants. The immigrant department, sees to the enforcement of the law and generally watches the interests of the immigrants. To this department every employer must send periodical returns of the most minute description showing the condition of the immigrants, and in addition to this the law provides for the keeping on each plantation of a number of registers and permanent account books, which must be open at all times to the inspection of the immigration agent-general and his officers. All employers of indentured labor are prohibited, under a penalty of \$100 for each offense, from selling goods of any kind to the laborers. Any person employed on an estate convicted of an offense against an indentured immigrant must be dismissed and not employed by any person having indentured laborers under his charge. Penal clauses are attached to the contract of indenture, both as against the planter and the immigrant, fine or imprisonment, or both, being provided according to the gravity of the breach of contract. No punishment can be inflicted on an indentured immigrant except by governmental authorities, after trial and conviction before a magistrate; and the immigrants have the right to leave an estate without permission in order to lay any complaint of ill-treatment or breach of contract before the nearest magistrate or immigration agent. Magistrates are empowered to issue all processes of law free of cost to any immigrant who shall furnish reasonable evidence of a just cause of complaint. Every immigrant who remains ten years in the colony (five of which must be spent under indenture) is entitled to passage back to his native place on payment of one-fourth of the cost of transportation in the case of males and one-sixth in the case of females, but all immigrants who are destitute or disabled and all wives and children of indentured immigrants are entitled to free passage back to India at the expense of the British Guiana government."

#### VIEWS OF COLONISTS ON INDENTURED LABOR.

The following statement is condensed from testimony presented before the West India Royal Commission, which in 1897 visited the West Indian Islands and British Guiana and examined into the cause of depression there. In the testimony taken by this commission in British Guiana the question of indentured labor (the bringing in of coolies from India under a five-year contract) was discussed, and the class of labor thus obtained inquired into.

A committee representing the Planters' Association and Royal Agricultural and Commercial Society of British Guiana, in its statement before the commission, expressed the opinion that the benefit from the result of indentured labor is in British Guiana very great, because the country is underpopulated. It is reckoned that every immigrant imported returns to the colony the cost of his introduction. At the end of their five years' indenture the immigrants become valuable laborers. The new railway which connects the Demerara and Essequibo rivers was built almost entirely by immigrant labor imported in the first instance for sugar estates. At the end of five years the indentured immigrants become acclimatized and are valuable as colonists. If the sugar industry is to continue and the colony is to continue, then immigration must continue. The estates are now mainly dependent on immigrants for their labor supply, but natives are largely employed as cane cutters, etc. For the conduct of planting operations in the proper season and for reaping the crop an absolutely reliable labor is necessary, and therefore it is necessary to replace the time-expired immigrants annually, as it has been found by experience that indentured labor alone fulfills these conditions. Native labor in the colony does not improve, especially for field operations. It is not reliable, and on sugar estates it is necessary to have an absolutely reliable force of men to put onto any part of the work at any time you want to do so. Without immigrants you could not do that. There is some work that native laborers will not do at any price. It is a very small portion of the total number of indentured immigrants that go back to India. Many of them would come back to the colony from India after returning if they could.

Mr. Gustav H. Richter, an importer and exporter of thirty-three years' experience in British Guiana, in his testimony said: "I consider the immigration system has been a complete failure from beginning to end. I believe it is anything but 'immigration.' When an Englishman goes out to Australia, he becomes an Australian. When he goes to the Cape, he becomes a Cape colonist, and when he goes to Canada, he becomes a Canadian and helps the country he settles in. We have brought coolies here by the hundred thousand, and instead of creolizing them, we have sent part of them back, and instead of having a population of 500,000 we have only got one-half that number or, say, 280,000. I think the expense we have gone into has not been fruitful of proper results. There is no reason why our colony should not have a population of a half million. About one-third of the immigrants who come under indenture, return after their contract term expires. It should have been our policy from the beginning to settle them in the colony, and I favor the proposal which has been made to offer them a bonus at the end of their indenture to induce them to give up the right to return passage."

Hon. A. H. Alexander, the immigration agent-general of the colony, in his testimony, stated that he had had twenty-seven years' experience in this line of service in British Guiana and Jamaica. In Jamaica three-fourths of the indentured immigrants remain in the colony after the expiration of their contract term. The mortality among them averaged about 2 per cent per annum. "My opinion," he said, "is that we will go on introducing indentured immigrants, and give the planter as many as will keep up his labor force to the same number as it is now."

Drs. Godfrey and Carter, of the medical service engaged in the sanitary service in behalf of the coolies, testified that as a rule proper care was given to the coolies on the estates where employed because the estate knows it is to its interest to keep the sanitary conditions good; in this particular there has been marked improvement in recent years. The coolies after the expiration of their term of indentured service divide their time between labor on the estates and the establishment of homes.

Mr. D. M. Hudson, a native of the colony and a sugar planter, in his testimony said: "I do not regard the cooly as a good colonist. Undoubtedly he is a splendid workman for the sugar industry, but as a colonist I think he fails in what we would expect of him. His wants are very few; he saves nearly all his money and when he goes away he takes it with him, thereby draining the colony of his

accumulations. From that point of view I regard him as an indifferent colonist. There is, however, a large proportion of them who remain, but their expenditures are small and I do not regard them on the same footing as I would a Chinese laborer. I think the general want of the colony might be met by introducing immigrants from Barbados and the other islands. If we could get any from Africa we should be doing a good turn to the colony by introducing them. We have remnants of Africans here now and they are fine, sturdy men. Their families spend more money than the coolies, who retain their oriental style of dressing, and their expenditures are very limited. I regard the Chinese as better spending colonists than the East Indian cooly."

The immigration agent-general for British Guiana in his statement showed the number of East Indian laborers on the sugar estates in 1896 to be 71,777, and those not residing on sugar estates 43,972. "Practically all these," he stated, "have been at some time resident labor on sugar plantations. Until lately the most efficient labor was that of blacks and Chinese. The negro is by far the best of our laborers when he is industrious and under good supervision, but he is averse to continuous labor, and seldom cares to labor more than three or four days a week. Even in the days of high prices and good wages this was a serious drawback. As regards the general arrangements made for the Indian immigrants, I have nothing but admiration to express. The system has passed through successive stages of improvement, until it now stands as a pattern to all the world of successful and liberal management. Raw and ignorant coolies quickly become skilled workmen, drawing wages at rates unknown in their own country, and after their five years' indenture has expired, every chance is given them of starting with the knowledge and experience calculated to make them successful and independent settlers, while the numbers of occupations available give a wide scope for following most profitably individual tastes. I do not think it would be safe to allow the force of indentured labor to run below its present strength, as the indentured gangs give a certain amount of control which enables employers to insure continuous work at crop time and in emergencies."

#### COOLY LABOR DISCUSSED.

J. M. Rohlehr, M. D., a practicing physician, in a statement furnished the commission, said: "I am convinced that it is unnecessary to import more coolies. If a portion of the money spent on the importation of immigrants, the upkeep of the immigration department, dwellings, medicine, return passage, etc., were used in paying the black people a fair price for their labor, there would be an abundant supply of black labor on the sugar estates, for the black man prefers remaining near home rather than going to the gold fields. I have never found in my experience as an overseer that the black people have refused to work where the price offered them has been reasonable. Managers and overseers have grown into the habit of driving the black people away whenever they ask for an advance in prices, and telling them that coolies will do the work; but, as a matter of fact, the coolies find the task so hard that they can not earn more than three or four shillings a week. A good deal of black labor is lost to the estates through the want of knowledge on the part of overseers. The black laborer has to house himself and family, pay his medical adviser, contribute to the support of his church and school, clothe himself decently, and feed himself much better than the cooly, while the cooly is supplied with a house, doctor, and medicine, school for his children, and has a protector in the immigration department. It is plain that the black laborer must require more to keep him than the cooly; moreover, one black laborer can do as much work as two or three coolies, and yet not infrequently he is given only such work as will prevent him earning any more than the cooly."

In the inquiry made by the commission in Jamaica the following statements were made in reference to cooly labor in that island. Rev. Henry Clark, member of the legislative council, said: "Cooly immigration has cost hundreds of thousands of pounds, which was raised from the food and clothing of the native laborers, and the object has avowedly been to prevent an increase of the laborer's wages. Anything more unjust I can not conceive. I can testify that for the last fifty years there has always been an ample labor supply." Mr. Philip Cook, protector of immigrants, testified that from about one-fourth to one-third of the indentured immigrants take advantage of the contract for their return to India at the expiration of the ten years. After their indentures have expired about 80 per cent continue work on the properties where they were employed under indenture, while others take employment on other properties, and a small proportion settle down to work in shops or buy or rent patches of land for their own homes.

Mr. William Morrison, a member of the council of the Royal Jamaica Society of Agriculture, and of the Commerce and Merchant Exchange, stated that "if some twenty years ago an enlightened liberal scheme of cooly immigration had been sanctioned here as was the case in British Guiana, the sugar industry would now have been in a more flourishing condition. The system of cooly immigration has had its local opponents, but their number every year is becoming less. The charges that used to be brought against it were: (1) That it was unnecessary; (2) that it served to pauperize the so-called free labor class; (3) that the coolies exercised a demoralizing effect throughout the lower ranks of the native population. In reply to the first claim that such immigration was not necessary, it was easily shown that employers of labor were annually obliged to contribute to the fund for importing labor, because they were unable to get an adequate supply of continuous labor in the island. Regarding the second complaint, the reply is that the West Indian laborer finds in the cooly not a competitor but a customer, as in Jamaica only a small proportion of the working people care to be engaged in hard labor. The facilities for acquiring land were so great and the natural desire of becoming land owners so strong that a large number of people preferred making a living on their own farms or freeholds. This preference is very commendable and natural, but has the effect of diminishing the supply of steady continuous labor for the planters. The existence in the colony of a large and constantly growing class of land owners is a subject for general congratulation inasmuch as it served to swell the ranks of an honest industrious peasantry, but it is also to the interest of the community to maintain at its highest possible degree of efficiency the staple product of the colony—sugar—and experience has shown that this can not be done without a sufficient supply of reliable labor, to which cooly immigration has in the past greatly contributed. Regarding the third charge, that the coolies are a constant danger to the rest of the community and exercise a demoralizing effect, the reply is that the West Indian cooly is a peaceable, industrious, and exemplary citizen. He makes use of the savings bank to a greater extent than the members of any other class of laborers in the community. In industry and thrift he sets an excellent example, and immigration statistics show that the majority of the cooly immigrants become permanent settlers."

A committee of the Jamaica Sugar Planters' Association, in its statements before the commission said: "The sugar estates using cooly labor could not get on without a constant supply of new coolies, because of the capriciousness of the native labor. We can not get native labor when we want it. Just about the spring when we want to get in our crops they go to their own ground, and we could not get on at all unless we employed coolies. The cooly labor is more expensive than negro labor, because we give them their wages and when sick we have to maintain them; and we have maintained their children who are not capable of working, and we pay £17 10s. per head for their importation. The difficulty with reference to native labor is not that we have not enough native labor to do the work, but we can not get them when we want them, particularly in the springtime, because they go to their own grounds and cultivate them."

## LABOR IN THE BRITISH EAST INDIES.

In the British East Indies the labor supply, in territory where the native population does not prove sufficient for this purpose, is obtained from comparatively near by territory and without definite contracts as to term of service. In Ceylon, where a large force of workmen is required during certain seasons of the year in handling the crops, especially tea, the labor supply is drawn chiefly from India, and the tide ebbs and flows with the requirements of the local situation, large numbers of Indian laborers and coolies passing from India into Ceylon at the beginning of the busy season and returning at its termination. The "Sinhaes," or native laborers, says Mr. L. B. Clarence in his description of Ceylon in the British Empire Series, 1899, "do not care to engage permanently in cooly work on the estates, and a cheap and efficient labor supply was ready to hand in southern India, whence Tamil coolies flocked in by thousands. Without this singularly valuable labor supply the enterprise of opening the country to cultivation could hardly have succeeded. A little coffee was grown in the Dutch times, and some lingered on to our times, and at last attracted the attention of Englishmen with capital to invest. In 1824 the first coffee estate under European management was opened, and the enterprise after 1840 advanced with rapid strides. Most of the estates were opened on steep mountain faces. Then the estate had to be roaded with a network of carefully traced paths at well-planned gradients, and drains were cut to carry off the heavy rains and save the soil from being washed away. Then the coffee had to be planted in the clearings, and there was the store to put up, and the machinery and the planters' bungalow. About 1873 coffee planting reached its zenith. The yield was generous, and prices ruled high. Then disease attacked the bushes, and the artificial inflation rendered the downfall more headlong. Estates were sold for a mere song. Mortgagees and owners alike lost their money, and even coolies lost long arrears of wages at 8 pence or 9 pence a day. Cinchona was tried, and at first prospered. Then that product was attacked simultaneously by disease and a decline in the price of quinine. Then the planters turned their attention to tea. They had to provide an entirely new description of expensive machinery, and they had to learn and teach their work people an entirely new industry. All this was successfully accomplished, and now for many years tea has been thriving and paying enormously. Of the money expended in the island the greater part goes to the immigrant coolies from southern India. The number of Indian coolies on the tea and coffee estates of Ceylon, according to the colonial office list of 1891, is about 200,000. They are under no indentures and are free to quit on giving a month's notice. The total number of plantation laborers, including coolies born and settling in Ceylon as well as other races, is estimated at 250,000, out of a population of about 3,000,000."

## LABOR IN THE MALAYAN PENINSULA.

The labor supply of the Malayan peninsula, beyond that which is furnished by the natives, is chiefly drawn from China. Sir Andrew Clark, under whose direction as governor-general of the Straits Settlements British control was extended over the then disorganized and warring states of the Malayan peninsula, in a description of that work and of conditions in the Malayan peninsula, published in the British Empire Series 1899, says of the present labor supply: "The Malay States need population, the opening up of communications, and capital. Hitherto the labor market has been supplied almost solely by Chinese, and the experiment of colonization from India remains to be tried. There is no objection whatever to the experiment. Portions of India are becoming overpopulated by people who are ready and willing workers, such as the Malay States need for their full development. Under proper supervision, the excess labor of one country could be made to supply the wants of the other. I confess, however, that I am not sanguine of seeing this system of natural compensation going on within the limits the empire, and for many years at least it is from China that the Federated Malay States must obtain their labor. The Chinese secret society is a bugbear to some minds, and I may be pardoned for a brief reference to it. Secret societies are the natural and inevitable outcome of an arbitrary and oppressive government such as exists in China, and the Chinaman, having acquired the hereditary habit of creating such organizations, carries it with him to the country of his adoption. In China the secret society is doubtless almost entirely political, constituting a danger to the state. Transplanted to another country, it entails no necessary political dangers and becomes practically a species of guild for mutual protection, or the nature of a benefit or burial club. Try to suppress them altogether and you will drive them deeper below the surface and render them really dangerous. On the other hand, recognize them as long as they keep within the confines of the law, insist as far as possible upon open meetings and publicity of accounts and you will find them a powerful lever ready to your hand. You will be able to hold the leaders responsible for illegality; you may even manipulate the secret society to your own ends. This was the course pursued with success in the Malay States, and I am indebted to the chiefs of Chinese secret societies for support readily accorded as soon as they understood the principles upon which my action was based."

## VIEWS OF AMERICAN OFFICERS ON LABOR IN PORTO RICO AND THE PHILIPPINES.

While the British have thus found it necessary to import labor into certain of their East and West Indian possessions, American officers in Porto Rico and the Philippines have expressed the belief that such importation is not necessary in those islands. General Davis, in a report made to the Government in 1899, and from which quotations are made elsewhere, expresses the belief that the native people of Porto Rico would, with proper encouragement, through the opening of roads and supply of communications with the Americans of the United States, supply most of the labor required, and that the remaining labor supply could readily be drawn from the adjacent islands, which are densely populated and whose population show a disposition to accept employment at reasonable rates of compensation if opportunity offers. In the Philippines General MacArthur, in his recent report, expresses the belief that the Filipino natives will prove sufficient for the labor required in the islands. "Reiterated assertions that native labor in the Philippines is unreliable," says General MacArthur in his report, "must be accepted as coming almost exclusively from Europeans who primarily are exploiters, pure and simple, and as such have absolutely no interest in the islands beyond the immediate realization of enormous profits. It has been found that when properly paid, the Filipino is precisely like any other man, and holds on to a good place by reason of fidelity and faithful service. In view of the foregoing premises, the military administration has rigidly enforced regulations excluding Chinese immigration from the islands, and further action is recommended looking to a gradual decrease of the Chinese now in the islands, by prohibiting the return of all individuals who have been absent for six months or who hereafter may absent themselves from the islands six months."

Chief Quartermaster Swobe confirms General MacArthur's view, saying, "It has been my experience that any labor which can be performed by the Chinese can be performed equally well by the Filipinos, and the latter have marked advantages over the Chinese as they are more amenable to discipline, more active in their methods, more enthusiastic in their work, and more easily assimilated by the American workmen."



## GENERAL MACARTHUR AND HIS AIDS ON CHINESE AND NATIVE LABOR IN THE PHILIPPINES.

The following are extracts from the discussions by General MacArthur and his aids on this subject in their recent reports to the War Department. In the course of his annual report in 1901 as military governor of the Philippines, General MacArthur dwells upon the important subject of the status of the Chinese in the archipelago. He says:

"Geographically, the Philippine archipelago is, in effect, part of the Asiatic continent, and as a consequence in such close contact with China that economic, political, and military questions must be in process of never-ending adjustment between the conflicting interests involved. As a matter of fact, one of the most important questions presented for American consideration since the occupation has arisen from the necessity of determining an administrative policy in respect of Chinese immigration.

"Notwithstanding the vast extent of China, it is so populous that the people, under primitive methods of production, are constantly encroaching on the means of subsistence. The masses have a hard fight against nature to keep themselves alive. As a matter of policy, however, Chinese rulers have always tried to restrict immigration, but in spite of every obstacle, both of law and prejudice, thousands annually leave the Empire to escape the consequences of poverty. Under these restrictions, the most indigent only leave the country to seek a livelihood; but, as elementary moral education is generally diffused among all the people of China, the most noticeable features of Chinese laborers abroad are sober and orderly habits and general physical fitness for hard work.

"They are industrious and ingenious, submissive and obedient to their own superiors, and easily accommodate themselves to all the exigencies of climate and the general aspects of nature in foreign countries. Although at present absolutely incapable of organizing on a large scale for political purposes at home, they have solved many of the minor problems relating to economic cooperation, especially of cooperative protection and production.

"Such a people, largely endowed as they are with inexhaustible fortitude and determination, if admitted to the archipelago in any considerable numbers during the formative period which is now in process of evolution, would soon have direct or indirect control of pretty nearly every productive interest, to the absolute exclusion alike of Filipinos and Americans.

"This view is stated with considerable emphasis, as unmistakable indications are apparent of organized and systematic efforts to break down all barriers, with a view to unrestricted Chinese immigration, for the purpose of quick and effective exploitation of the islands—a policy which would not only be ruinous to the Filipino people, but would in the end surely defeat the expansion of American trade to its natural dimensions, in what is obviously one of its most important channels. In this connection it may not be improper to state that one of the greatest difficulties attending military efforts to tranquilize the people of the archipelago arises from their dread of sudden and excessive exploitation, which they fear would defraud them of their natural patrimony and at the same time relegate them to a status of social and political inferiority.

## FILIPINOS ARE GOOD WORKMEN.

"Reiterated assertions to the effect that native labor in the Philippines is unreliable must be accepted as coming almost exclusively from Europeans, who primarily are exploiters, pure and simple, and, as such, have absolutely no interest in the islands beyond the immediate realization of enormous profits. Under the old system the wages of labor were too small to establish anything like a sense of self-interest on the part of employees, and as a consequence solicitude for the interests of employers did not exist, and workmen, as a rule, were indifferent as to their own constant employment and had little concern about the future, as their own wishes or interests were never consulted. American experience, so far as public employees are concerned, has not confirmed the declaration of the Europeans. On the contrary, it has been found that when properly paid the Filipino is precisely like any other man and holds on to a good place by reason of fidelity and faithful service.

## CHINESE IMMIGRANTS EXCLUDED.

"In view of the foregoing premises the military administration has rigidly enforced regulations excluding Chinese immigration from the islands; not in a spirit of hostility, but in pursuance of instincts of self-preservation. Individually a Chinaman represents a unit of excellence that must always command respect and win admiration, but in their organized capacity in the Philippines the Chinese represent an economical army, without allegiance or attachment to the country, and which to a great extent is beyond the reach of insular authority.

"They are bent upon commercial conquest, and as those in the islands already represent an innumerable host at home, even restricted immigration would represent a serious menace.

"The ultimate interests of America in the East depend so much on the correct solution of this problem that the attitude of the military government in respect thereof is respectfully submitted with request for very careful consideration of the same, and further action is recommended in the premises, looking to a gradual decrease of the Chinese now in the islands, which might be partially accomplished by prohibiting the return of all individuals who have been absent for six months, or hereafter may absent themselves from the islands and remain so absent for the same time."

## FILIPINOS BETTER THAN CHINESE.

In the report of Capt. Thomas Swobe, chief quartermaster, submitted by General MacArthur, occur the following remarks on the same subject:

"One hears a great deal of the necessity of introducing Chinese labor into these islands to meet the demands of commerce. It has been my experience that any labor which can be performed by the Chinese can be performed equally well by the Filipinos. The latter, moreover, have marked advantages over the Chinese, inasmuch as they are more amenable to discipline, more imitative in their methods, more enthusiastic in their work for the work itself, and more easily assimilated by American workmen. While most of the coal is unloaded in this office by Chinese labor, employed by contractors, yet all the loading of coal from this office is done by Filipino workmen at 40 cents, gold, per day. I have studied carefully the efficiency of these two classes in this particular work, and I unhesitatingly pronounce in favor of the Filipino. The Filipinos are certainly far superior to the Chinese in loading and unloading forage. Moreover, they show adaptability in handling the live stock, and in workmanship in the repair and saddler's shops, which I don't believe can even be equaled by the Chinese labor in these islands. I have dwelt at some length on the efficiency of Filipino labor, which as yet is in its infancy in expert work, for the reason that I have had to handle a vast amount of it, and have studied it to an extent where I think my opinion may be of some value."

## GENERAL CROWDER'S VIEWS.

In the report of Gen. E. H. Crowder, military secretary, the subject is thus discussed:

"The recently completed census of the city of Manila shows a Chinese population of more than 50,000, scattered over the territory comprised within the city's limits, but in greatest numbers in the district of Binondo, where are located the mercantile and shipping centers.

"As to the total number of Chinese in the archipelago there are no statistics of recent date, nor is there data of value in making an estimate. While the efforts of the Spanish Government to enumerate and tax these aliens during the period of its domination in the Philippines were elaborately planned and productive of considerable revenue, yet it is generally conceded that large numbers annually evaded the officials, and for this reason, if for no other, the statistics of that Government can not be accepted as showing accurately the number of Chinese in these islands at any time. Their disposition to engage in peddling from village to village and to penetrate into the districts of the interior inhabited solely by pagan tribes, with whom they barter for the various crude products of the mountain forests, made the Chinese a difficult problem to the census enumerator and collector of personal taxes.



## PHILIPPINE IMMIGRATION STATISTICS.

"During the calendar year 1900 the number of Chinese immigrants presenting themselves at the port of Manila was 9,768, of which number 9,380 were allowed to enter. During the same period 9,173 emigrants of the same race left the port of Manila for foreign ports. During the first four months of the current year there were admitted 5,277 of the 5,682 Chinese immigrants who presented themselves, and the emigrants of the same race numbered but 4,027. The number of immigrants refused admission during this latter period, 405 exceeds the total number of the same class during the whole year of 1900.

"The relatively large number of these immigrants who have been refused admission to these islands during the first months of 1901 is explained by the elaborate and systematic efforts on the part of brokers at continental ports to secure by fraudulent means the admission of Chinese not entitled under existing regulations to land here. The means adopted with a view to deceiving customs officials consisted, in the case of one port, in the operation of a school for instructing would-be Chinese immigrants to the Philippines in the geography, topography, etc., of Manila and other parts of the archipelago. With the aid of the knowledge thus acquired it was apparently expected that little difficulty would be experienced in satisfying customs officials that an applicant had previously lived in the Philippines, under Spanish domination, although no documentary evidence in support of such residence was forthcoming. Another scheme was that of a former employee of the Manila custom-house, who went to an Asiatic port and endeavored by means of forged certificates of previous residence to secure the admission of large numbers of Chinese.

## SCHEME TO EVADE THE LAWS.

"The above are given as samples of the determined methods by which unscrupulous individuals have persistently attempted to evade the immigration regulations in force here. These attempted impositions have been generally detected and it is not believed that many Chinese have been admitted who were not entitled to such privilege, yet to discriminate between this latter class and those having the right to land has involved an immense amount of labor for the customs service. Each case has been made the subject of careful investigation and no effort has been spared to deal justly with each individual.

"No change has been made in the regulations applied to Chinese immigration during the period covered by this report. There have been received at this office repeated requests for the admission of individuals of the prohibited classes, but the general course pursued has been to make no exceptions in the application of regulations which were deemed to be quite liberal enough.

## EXCLUSION SHOULD BE MADE COMPLETE.

"It is believed that the reasons upon which were based the present liberal regulations governing the return to the islands of former Chinese residents of the archipelago will have ceased to exist by December 31 next, at which time it is recommended that these regulations be repealed and the exclusion be made as complete as in the case of the admission of Chinese to the United States. It is the judgment of nearly all who have direct knowledge of the conditions here that the interests of the archipelago and of the Filipino people demand the application of stringent regulations on Chinese immigration, amounting to practical prohibition.

"There has been a more or less constant stream of immigrants from China to these islands for the past three centuries and a half, of which we have historical record. Although these immigrants were at first welcomed and encouraged to come by Spanish officials, there is to be observed a gradual and uniform tendency, growing stronger as time passed and the practical knowledge of experience increased, to discourage the presence of these aliens in the archipelago.

"The belief that the manufactured goods and skilled labor of China were necessary for the trade and development of the Philippines seems to have been the cause for the early attitude of the Spanish governmental authorities here toward Chinese immigration. As commercial and industrial conditions improved the necessity, if such ever did exist, passed away, and regulations were applied to Chinese residents in these islands which would have caused any other race to immediately migrate and forever avoid this country. No such effect was produced upon them, however, and they persisted in seeking admission to the archipelago, where they found, as compared with themselves, a less crafty and energetic people, whom they could easily exploit. By an unswerving cooperation, mutually assisting and protecting each other, the Chinese element can hardly fail in any country to be successful in commercial and industrial competition with other races. How detrimental eventually Chinese control is to any branch of commerce or industry finds one of many illustrations in the case of the tobacco interests in Luzon, in which, having gained control of the production of the raw material, they were able to likewise control its manufacture in these islands, with the result that their methods, having in view greatest immediate profits only, soon threatened to ruin a leading industry in the Philippines.

"The consensus of the best opinion among those who have long resided in this archipelago and have become acquainted with the conditions of the country and the people is that there is no necessity for any considerable increase in the number of Chinese here, and that their influence in large numbers is detrimental to the future development and welfare of the islands and their inhabitants. It is recognized that there are at present certain classes of skilled labor for which it is impossible to secure native mechanics in sufficient number. Such are, perhaps, a few of those concerned in the construction and repair of ships, expert stonemasons, and a very limited number of other artisans. Manual training schools will, however, provide skilled workmen in all trades within a few years. Should it be deemed necessary to do so, Chinese mechanics of these classes might be admitted temporarily under proper regulations without interference with a general policy of exclusion, which it is thought should be the policy to be adopted permanently.

"During the entire period of Spanish domination the subject of the importation of Chinese agricultural labor with which to develop certain thinly populated portions of the archipelago received careful attention, and many efforts were made along that line, but in no case with permanent satisfactory results, because of the uniform and uncontrollable tendency of the Chinese to forsake field labor for trade. Aside from market gardening on a very small scale near this city, there does not seem to have been at any time an exhibition by the Chinese of an inclination to engage in agricultural pursuits in these islands, notwithstanding exemption from taxation and other inducements offered by the Spanish authorities. Immediate profits, such as are offered by trading, money lending, etc., have drawn the Chinese from those industries which tend to the material development of a country. This having been the case for three centuries in the Philippines, it is not reasonable to expect any change during the next generation. The well-known fact that the Chinaman never identifies himself with the foreign country in which he goes to seek fortune, further than as may hasten the time when he shall have accumulated the amount he deems necessary to insure a life of ease and comfort in his native land, is no less true here than in other parts of the world. After from ten to twenty years spent in accumulation he returns to the land of his birth, taking with him his savings, which are forever withdrawn from the country in which they were obtained, and often leaves behind him a family dependent upon public charity.

"Whatever course may be adopted with regard to the Chinese will have a marked effect upon the development of this country and its native-born inhabitants, either for good or evil, for one of the most potent factors affecting the commercial, industrial, and social interests of these islands to-day is the Chinaman, and a due recognition of his powerful and far-reaching influence is essential to intelligent consideration of the problem he offers the future government in the Philippines."

## VIEWS OF COLLECTOR SMITH OF MANILA.

From the report of Gen. James F. Smith, collector of customs of the islands and of the chief port, the following extracts on this topic are of interest:-

"In September, 1898, by virtue of an order of the military governor, the Chinese exclusion acts in force in the United States were made operative in the Philippines, and since that time all Chinese persons except former residents and those belonging to the exempt classes have been refused permission to land in the islands. Residents who left the archipelago subsequent to the promulgation of the order are not permitted to return unless they produce certificates of residence issued to them by the collector of customs prior to their departure. These certificates, until April 16 of the present year, identified the person to whom issued by thumb marks and such scars,

signs, and facial and personal characteristics as would render identification on return reasonably certain and definite. Since April, 1901, however, owing to an attempt to float fraudulent certificates printed in Hongkong, and quite skillfully forged, all departing Chinese have been obliged to produce duplicate photographs of themselves, one copy being firmly attached and sealed to the certificate issued and the other affixed in the same manner to the retained stub. Return certificates are only delivered to departing Chinese on board the vessel on which they have taken passage, immediately prior to the hour of sailing. The certificates are only receivable at the port from which issued.

"Chinese residents who left the islands between December 31, 1895, and September, 1898, have been permitted to return on the production of satisfactory evidence of former residence, but I think that privilege should now be cut off, inasmuch as all such persons have had ample time to return to their homes, and a further continuance of the grace will only serve to make a fat livelihood for the conscienceless brokers who, for a consideration, stuff prospective Chinese immigrants with such information as may enable them to pass the trying examination to which they are subjected.

"During the period of time from January 1, 1899, down to and including May, 1901, 28,758 Chinese arrived at the port of Manila, of whom 27,697 were permitted to disembark and 1,061 refused a landing. During the same period of time 23,658 Chinese took their departure from Manila, leaving an increase of 4,029 arrivals over departures."

During the first six months of 1899, 6,108 Chinese landed and 4,392 departed; during the last six months of that year 6,932 landed, 268 were rejected, and 5,066 emigrated. During the first six months of 1900, 4,145 Chinese were allowed to land, 151 were rejected, and 5,181 left the country. During the last six months of 1900 5,235 entered the islands, 237 were rejected, and 4,992 departed. During the months of January, February, March, April, and May of the present year 5,277 landed, 405 were rejected, and 4,027 left the islands.

"In the period intervening between the month of May and the middle of September in the year 1899, and from May until October in the years 1900 and 1901, Chinese steerage passengers have been forbidden, under the quarantine regulations, to come to the Philippines. It will therefore be noted that in the months of April and May, immediately before the quarantine regulation goes into effect, and in the months of September and October, immediately after it expires, there is a very much larger percentage of arrivals than during any other period.

#### CERTAIN INTERESTS OPPOSE EXCLUSION.

"Some merchants, a few large property owners, nearly all contractors, and all those engaged in enterprises of such magnitude that cheap labor counts as one of the elements of success, complain not a little that the unlimited labor market of China, just over the way, has been closed to them, and that the material progress of the country must suffer for want of a labor supply possessing the ideal elements of cheapness, adaptability, patience, and uncomplaining industry. There is no question but what unlimited Chinese immigration would for a time give an immediate and powerful impetus to manufacturing, railroad construction, shipbuilding, the making of highways, and even to the larger farming industries, but it is very questionable whether the benefits so accruing would anything like balance the incalculable damage and ruin which would befall the great mass of the population 'to the manor born,' who would be deprived of employment and who would but little appreciate a material progress of which they were not partakers, and which brought them neither happiness nor prosperity.

"About fifty years ago the identical arguments now being advanced in favor of Chinese immigration to the Philippines claimed the enthusiastic attention of the people of the United States, and there, as here, it was claimed that cheap labor from China would open great lines of communication, bind the country together with ribbons of steel, encourage manufactures, and in general bring about an era of material advancement well-nigh impossible without it. Chinese immigration to the United States did all that was prophesied for it. It built railroads and manufactured watches, developed mines and rolled cigars, made shoes for the feet and coats for the back, constructed engines and peddled garden truck, quarried stone and gathered hay in the harvest field. But it did more. It drove the American laborer, with all his intelligence, energy, and activity, from every avenue of employment open to its competition, closed the doors of useful trades and industries to the rising generation, and proved to a moral certainty that all benefits to be derived from it could only accrue to a comparative few, and that by sacrificing the well-being and happiness of the overwhelming majority.

#### AMERICAN EXPERIENCE INSTRUCTIVE.

"What happened in the United States, I firmly believe, will happen here if the bars to Chinese immigration are once let down, only in a form more aggravated and with consequences more disastrous. Holding these opinions, notwithstanding theoretical arguments to the contrary, which for me have been refuted by the test of actual experience, I can not do otherwise than earnestly recommend that the present exclusion regulations be continued in force, with such additional legislation as may render their evasion impracticable.

"The embarrassment which many interests suffer from scarcity of labor is temporary in character and will pass away under the influence of more settled conditions and higher wages. Of course, those who are patiently waiting for the good old days when they could stroll down the Rialto and hire a terra-cotta edition of a pocket Hercules to carry 6 tons of coal four blocks and up two flights of rickety back stairs for a peseta a day and 2 chupas of rice, will be somewhat delayed in their business. Those good old times have gone forever, and a good thing, too, because with them will pass away the chiefest fault of the native son of toil—his uncertainty. And when you come to think of it, how could he be otherwise than uncertain, worried as he was night and day all the year around, whether it was better to invest his surplus earnings in a house and lot, put them in bank and live on the interest, or buy a new cotton-print dress for his wife and go broke.

"The Filipino has within him all the elements that go to make up the good workman, artisan, and mechanic. All that is required to develop them is the encouragement of a fair day's pay for a fair day's work, and the security of just and impartial treatment. Even under the discouragement of low wages and the regard in which they are held, Filipino mechanics, Filipino carpenters, Filipino engineers, Filipino cabinetmakers, Filipino stonecutters, Filipino farmers, and Filipino common laborers have been developed and have not proven wholly inefficient by any means. The number of efficient can be increased by paying living wages, and I think any competition which would reduce the daily wage below the amount required for the proper support of the laborer and his family (a bit numerous in the Philippines) would seriously retard the progress of those for whose advancement the Government stands pledged."

#### APPLICATION OF PROCEEDS OF LAND SALES TO THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF IMMIGRATION.

The plan of encouraging the immigration of labor through assistance offered by proceeds of the sale of public lands was proposed in 1830 by Edward Gibbon Wakefield, the English political economist, after a study in Australia and elsewhere. His general proposition was that the welfare of a new community depends upon the abundance and consequent cheapness of labor; that the poorer classes should be required, directly or indirectly, to follow their usual trade or occupation for at least a few years after their arrival in the colony, and that the prevalence of high prices for lands would effect this result by preventing their becoming immediate proprietors and planters; also, that by selling the lands at high prices a large fund might be created by which immigration of labor could be induced, while at the same time the high price would prevent the dispersion of the colonists over too wide an area and thus insure strength and stability to the colony. This theory was supported by Robert R. Torrens, of Australia, and the plan proved so popular in England that it was put into operation in the Australian colonies, Mr. Gladstone being, in 1841, an adherent of the system. The price of land was raised from \$1.25 to \$3 per acre, and the revenue in New South Wales alone in the decade 1831-1841 reached about \$1,000,000, which was expended in subsidizing immigration. By 1850 the valuation of land had advanced to \$5 per acre, and, in certain places, by 1858 had reached \$8 per acre. The result was that only persons of some means were able to make purchases of farms, and those without means were excluded

from the more substantial growth of the colony. The plan, however, was not favored by the governor of New South Wales, and when put into operation in South Australia did not prove satisfactory. "At the very outset," says Morris, in his *History of Colonization*, 1900, "in order to raise the funds necessary to pay the transportation of the first company of settlers, a loan, secured by the expected sale of lands, was made. The establishment was thus not to cost the home Government a penny; the preliminary disbursements were covered by a mortgage on future prospects; it was to be absolutely on the so-called 'self-supporting' principle. Inspired by these dreams of fancy, speculation immediately seized upon South Australia. Loan after loan was negotiated; a veritable boom set in. The city of Adelaide was laid out, and the price of ground fixed at \$3 per acre; three days later 56 acres were sold at \$30.75; in 1839 property, when centrally located, was bringing \$5,000 to \$10,000 per acre. The large sums thus realized naturally effected a correspondingly important increase in population, especially since this revenue was by law devoted to one object, without any allowance for the expenses of colonial administration; money for all other purposes had to be borrowed, but how to pay this indebtedness, or even provide the interest, without violating the terms of the enabling measure, was the problem. The bubble soon burst; in 1840 the crisis came; bankruptcy was inevitable. The speculators, many of whom lived in England, had accumulated fortunes; but the poor, deluded inhabitants suffered. The British cabinet then came to the rescue, advancing a sufficient amount to carry the community temporarily, until some more tangible basis of prosperity could be found. The South Australian crash will go down in history side by side with Law's Mississippi scheme. With the aid of the funds obtained from the sales of land 220,000 free individuals were carried to Australia between 1830 and 1850; these immigrants were also, in a considerable measure, selected under the systematized management which prevailed, so that they were for the most part strong, healthy, and desirable persons for colonial life. While the Wakefield system and the free transportation of colonists have ceased to exist, nevertheless, in the results attained and the permanent influence they exerted on the progress of these communities, they still deserve more than casual notice."

PROFESSOR MERIVALE ON THE SYSTEM.

Merivale, in his ninth lecture on colonization, expressed the view that this method, whatever its relation to temperate zone colonies, in which there are large areas of productive lands, would not be applicable to tropical countries and especially tropical islands. In that lecture he says: "The propositions in question are, I think, the following: (1) That it is desirable to provide colonists with a greater supply of laborers, to work on their account, than their capital would naturally attract. (2) That it is desirable to prevent the population of new colonies from spreading over so large and scattered a surface of land as it would be tempted to occupy, were every facility given for the acquisition of land. (3) That an ample supply of hired or compulsory labor tends not only to increase the wealth of the community but to produce the second object, namely, the concentration of the people. Colonies of modern times may be divided into two very different classes; first, those which have established themselves in countries possessing no peculiar advantages for the production, by agricultural or mining labor, of articles of value in the foreign market; second, those in which the industry of the settlers has been principally turned toward the raising of staple articles of produce for the European market. To this second class belong most of the establishments of all European nations in the West Indies. \* \* \* In such communities it is obvious that the necessity for an ample supply of laborers is urgent. It is this necessity which caused the enslavement of the original inhabitants of Spanish America; which produced negro slavery and the slave trade; which has turned to profit the compulsory toil of convicts, and to satisfy which, without resort to any of those odious resources, is now the greatest practical problem of civilization. Settlements of this description have often flourished for a time, even although exposed to all the difficulties arising from the dispersion of settlers and the want of compulsory labor. This was the ordinary course of events in the West Indian Islands, and Porto Rico exhibited the same spectacle in very recent times. In those islands it was not until the most fertile and best situated lands had been occupied, and to a certain extent exhausted, that the superior productiveness of capital in masses and labor in combination began to be practically felt. Thus far the advocates of this system are entitled to the credit of having been the first to draw the attention of the community, at a very critical period, to this truth; that it is of the highest importance to find some artificial substitute for the slave and convict labor by which our colonies have heretofore been rendered productive. But with regard to the other theory, that an ample supply of labor tends to the concentration of the people, that seems still less applicable to colonies producing valuable agricultural commodities than to the other ones which we have just considered. The abundance of new and productive soil is the very first condition of the prosperity of such settlement. If they have not this, neither capital nor industry nor multitude of people will avert that inevitable decay into which they must fall from the competition of newer lands. What has been the cause of the decline of Barbados, Jamaica, and the smaller Antilles? The limited extent of their available land. The scheme of the writers of whom I speak is really neither more nor less than to substitute an artificial limit in all colonies for that limit which nature has assigned in our islands—to make an island of a settlement in a wide continent. The conclusions, then, to which I draw your attention, are these: (1) That an ample supply of labor is not only desirable, but essential, in a colony raising valuable articles of produce for the general market. (2) That in a colony not raising such produce in abundance, it is unnecessary; and that any attempt to insure it by controlling or preventing them from the easy acquisition of land would occasion a dead loss. (3) That an artificial concentration of the population by restraining the abandonment of unoccupied lands, would seriously check the prosperity of most new colonies, and especially of such as raise valuable produce for exportation. (4) That, allowing that such concentration, if it took place from natural causes, might be desirable, the mere insuring of a sufficient supply of labor would not in any degree tend to promote it, but rather the contrary."

It will be seen from the above account of the experiment in South Australia that the development of the labor supply through a sale of lands at high prices was not satisfactory, and that Professor Merivale, whose studies were contemporaneous with the actual experiment, and whose views in all matters pertaining to colonization are widely quoted and highly regarded, does not find occasion to commend the system either from its actual workings or from his own analysis of its relation to colonization.

SIR CHARLES DILKE ON LABOR IN THE ORIENTAL COLONIES.

The following discussion of labor conditions and the efforts on behalf of labor in the British colonies is from Sir Charles Dilke's *Problems of Greater Britain*:

"In Fiji we have imported immigrants, and we have introduced a culture system, worked through the chiefs, which has produced considerable trade results, but is of doubtful political wisdom. Still, even in Fiji we have given great powers, by the institution of village, district, and provincial councils, to the native race, and may claim to have conferred upon them a fairer chance for life than is

extended to Polynesians by the French or Germans. If we contrast the manner in which we have treated the natives of Fiji with that in which the French have dealt with the natives in New Caledonia, which lies in the direct line between Fiji and Queensland, we shall see that the French, as has been shown by Mr. Julian Thomas, who is friendly to them, have displayed utter disregard of any native rights or property, seizing the fertile valleys in which the natives had their arable settlements, while we have recognized native property. Throughout the Pacific the Polynesian race is dwindling under contact with the whites. In the Fiji group we keep our liquor and forbid war, but, in spite of the trouble that we have taken with regard to sanitation, European epidemics are committing frightful ravages among the population. Feji is, as regards plantation, a favored land, because able to grow tropical crops of the most varied kinds, and crops for which the neighborhood of Australia and New Zealand will give in future, as for those of Mauritius, a ready market. We were, no doubt, forced to annex Fiji—which we did very much against our will, for it was before the commencement of the annexation period of the last four years—by the fact that the islands had become, as New Zealand had been many years before, the Alsatia of the Pacific. We are able to show in some points excellent results, for although the natives may be declining in numbers they seem happy enough, and the white population has become one of a very different kind from that which, on the whole, disgraced the islands a few years ago. \* \* \*

"While at one end of the Malay Archipelago we have annexed southeastern New Guinea, at the other end we have obtained a dominant position in the northern portion of the island of Borneo. The first of the modern charters to great trading companies for the occupation of territorial dominions, as I have pointed out, was that granted by Mr. Gladstone's second administration to the British North Borneo Company in the immediate neighborhood of our island colony in Labuan. More recently we have obtained protectorates over Brunei and Sarawak, chiefly for the purpose of preventing the possibility of the interference of any foreign power in those countries which lie close to our great commercial settlement of Singapore and upon the track of our Australian trade through Torres Straits. In the Malay Peninsula, off which Borneo lies, we have also recently undertaken the protectorate—already, in fact, virtually ours before that time—of Johore and other of the Malay States. The western States, which face India and lie upon our track of trade, have long been within our influence; but our direct action in the northeastern Malay country is more recent. The extraordinary development of trade at Singapore is a matter rather for statisticians than for me, except as regards mere mention; but I may point out the not altogether encouraging fact that the increase appears to be with foreign countries (and with our colonies and dependencies) rather than with ourselves. Our great success in the Malay Peninsula has lain in enlisting upon our side the warm and even enthusiastic cooperation of the Chinese. We may congratulate ourselves upon the fact that, while the French have failed to sufficiently conciliate the Chinese race to induce them to confer prosperity upon the French colonies in farther India, we, on the contrary, have tempted the Chinese to settle in the Malay Peninsula now for many generations. I have seen Chinese magistrates at Penang whose ancestors have been magistrates there since immediately after the foundation of our settlement one hundred and five years ago, and who have completely identified themselves with the interests of Great Britain. The latest of the Malay States to come within the circle of our protection has been Pahang, which will follow Perak and the others in the growth of cultivation and trade. In no point of the world can we point to more obvious results from good government than throughout the Malay Peninsula, where England in fact presides over a federation of Malay princes to whom we have taught the arts of success, but to whose former subjects we have added a vast immigrant population of Chinese. In upper Burmah, recently annexed to India, the Chinese are pushing their way at every center of activity. They have flowed into the country since our troops have occupied it, and many of them have married Burmese women, who much prefer to be kept in plenty by the Chinaman to being the drudges of men of their own race. The future of the Burmese provinces of India, as that of Malaya, lies in the development of great natural, mineral, and agricultural wealth by patient Chinese labor." \* \* \*

#### A SPANISH VIEW OF THE LABOR QUESTION IN SPANISH COLONIES.

The following is a report on the conditions of labor in the Spanish colonies, made by Don Antonio Maria Fabie to the meeting of the International Colonial Institute, held at Berlin, September 6 and 7, 1897:

"The labor problem in America originates quite naturally with the arrival of the first conquerors. It was Christopher Columbus, after his second voyage, who, having received the instructions necessary for establishing the Castilian rule in the island of Santo Domingo, gave to this problem the well-known solution by distributing between the newcomers the native Indians of these islands, who received the name of 'reparti mentos.'

#### EARLY METHODS IN THE SPANISH COLONIES.

"It is not so well known that the first industry founded in these regions was that of mining, or rather the working of gold-bearing sand carried by the waters of almost all the rivers of the island. In order to attain the desired end the Indian 'reparti mentos' were taken to the shores of the rivers, where they were employed in the washing of sand, continuing, however, by sheer necessity, their agricultural pursuits. These latter consisted in the production of 'yuca' and 'agis,' of which the first served for the preparation of the bread for 'casave,' the main nourishment of the natives, and the second for the preparation of food stuffs then in use in the country, and which were made up of fish of the river and the seashore, of iguanas, and some birds which constituted the animal nourishment consumed by these natives.

"This system doubtless caused abuses on the part of the conquerors, as is likely to happen always under similar conditions. The fate of the native Indians was pitiable and hard, but still not so bad as would appear by the exposures made by the famous P. Las Casas in his celebrated writings. This régime was surely not the only cause of the depopulation of the islands; the diseases brought from Europe as well as that sort of incompatibility which exists between different races under all latitudes contributed, no doubt, a much larger share.

"The first complaints which arrived in Spain, and more particularly the denunciations of P. Las Casas, caused the Spanish monarchs to enact different laws regarding the treatment of the Indians. The most celebrated, if not the first, was the pragmatic act of Burgos, promulgated by His Catholic Majesty.

"These laws provided that the Indian 'reparti mentos' were to work under the direction of the colonists, but that these latter, in their turn, should be held to furnish them with the necessary food stuffs and clothes. Furthermore, it was provided that the natives should be able to work, for their own profit and account, the lands called 'conucos'—that is to say, the fields given to the cultivation and production of the yuca and agis. Moreover, during certain days they were to work for their former 'caciques' (headmen or chiefs).

"These laws were applied with extreme severity, but the paragraphs favorable to the Indians were very often eluded, causing, just as of yore, the most bitter complaints both on the part of the natives as well as their protectors. This stage lasted until 1540, the year of publication of the 'Nuevas Leyes' (new laws) enacted under the reign of Emperor Charles V. These acts caused great dissatisfaction among the Spanish colonists of the new American countries, and it is chiefly on this account that the rebellions broke out, which for many years continued in the possessions of South America, i. e., the ancient Empire of Peru and the equatorial region of Quito.

"The relations between the masters and the laborers continued to be like before in former years, with such more or less important mitigations as depended on the character of the owners of the *encomiendas* (commandries), until, finally, the ideas advocated with such great ardor by the advocate of the Indians, Father Bartholemew P. Las Casas, prevailed, and the commandries were abolished. In order to favor the natives of America, black slaves were introduced into the newly discovered regions, and by so doing one did no more than transplant to America an institution which existed already in Europe and had received great development after the conquest of the Portuguese in Africa.

"It would be superfluous to indicate here the conditions of labor of the slaves, which differed very little from those which regulated the labor of the Indians, who were dependents of a *encomienda* ('a commandery'). The master or owner disposed of the ones or the others according to his pleasure, and notwithstanding the humane character of the laws enacted for the protection of the negroes and Indians, the fate of these laborers depended in reality only on the character of their masters and the conditions under which they worked.

"Still the Christian sentiments and humane ideas which guided the minds of the Spanish rulers, as well as the desire to induce the Castilian people to leave for and occupy the newly discovered countries, caused the promulgation of different acts which favored the emigration to America of agriculturists and artisans of all kinds, with a view of establishing in the new countries those industries which were then found in Europe, and particularly Castile. Several expeditions were organized for this purpose at the expense of the home Government, and ever since 1520 different edicts were published, which granted many advantages and privileges to those who were to go to the new country. Father Las Casas was ordered to make a tour of all the Castilian towns in order to induce by every means, and particularly through describing the new countries, the Castilian agriculturists to leave for and settle in the new regions.

"All these efforts, however, produced but mediocre results, for the greater part of the immigrants, if not all, scorned agricultural labor, preferring to join the ranks of the conquerors as soon as they had gained a foothold in the newly discovered country.

"In the course of time the Spanish population in America had shown some, if but slow, growth, with the result that in the new regions, more on the continent than in the islands, some Castilian workingmen might be found; but nearly all were owners of land, which they cultivated, and the larger part of people of Spanish stock constituted what we might call the aristocracy among the new colonists, who were either manufacturers or merchants, plying the same trades which existed in Castile.

"Such was the general condition of the Spanish inhabitants of America, and that of labor particularly, until the abolition of slavery in the West India Islands, the remnant of the ancient possessions of Spain in America.

#### LABOR DEVELOPMENTS IN THE SPANISH COLONIES FOLLOWING THE ABOLITION OF SLAVERY.

"The record of events in the islands of Cuba and Porto Rico after the abolition of slavery, particularly in the part known formerly under the name of Bovinguen, deserves particular mention. In this latter region the negroes were declared free without any transition, and by the law of June 3, 1870, a very short period was fixed in the case of Cuba, during which the former slaves were subject to the régime of 'patronage'; this period was then reduced, and by the law of November 4, 1879, negroes were permitted to pass rapidly in either island from the state of slavery to that of Spanish citizens, with all their rights and privileges.

"Such a fundamental change necessarily produced economic consequences; still the new régime did not bring about the same results as in the British or French West Indies, where the abolition of slavery caused the decadence and almost total ruin of the colonies.

"After the abolition of slavery labor became altogether free in the Spanish West Indies, being subject only to the clauses and terms of the contracts which were freely entered into between owners and entrepreneurs on the one hand and the laborers on the other.

#### INDUSTRIES IN CUBA AND PORTO RICO.

"The industries found in Cuba and Porto Rico are three in number—those of sugar, tobacco, and stock raising.

"As regards the first, quite a considerable number of old '*ingenios*' (sugar mills) may be found in which the cultivation of cane and the manufacture of sugar are combined, but there are already a dozen of '*ingenios centrales*' which are engaged in the manufacture of sugar only.

"The owners of these sugar mills buy the cane of the cultivators, who are either the owners of the land which they work, or farmers, or laborers to whom the owners cede the cultivation of the lands with the obligation to furnish to them, at a price fixed in advance, the crops which they may obtain.

"The work required for the manufacture of sugar proper is done by black or white laborers, who receive wages more or less high, according to the condition of the market and the value of the product.

"At present, and even before the last Cuban insurrection, prices had gone down considerably at the time of the harvest ('*zafra*'), but still laborers hired by the month earned normally between 20 and 30 pesos per month over and above the board furnished by the entrepreneur.

"The agriculturists engaged in the cultivation of cane obtained very different remuneration, in accordance with the price of the product and the abundance of the harvest; but this class can hardly be regarded as wage-earners.

"As regards the tobacco industry, we find relations of quite a complicated nature. What may be properly called the agricultural part of the industry is chiefly carried on in the famous plains (*vegas*) of the district of Pinar del Rio, in the region called *Vuelta Abajo*, and that of *Vuelta Arriba*, by white and black families. The first are the more numerous, and all their members, men, as well as women and children, devote themselves to agricultural labor. They begin by sowing, transplant then the plants ('*matas*'), and devote themselves to the destruction of different insects, which attack the leaf of this valuable plant. The next step is the picking or cutting of the leaves and their exposure for purposes of fermentation in barns called '*casas de tabaco*.' The next step is the forming of bunches of tobacco ('*andullos*'). When all these operations are ended, the owners of the factories, who normally are also the landowners, buy the product at prices according to quality.



"These laborers, then, can not be regarded as wage-earners either, for they receive higher or lower remuneration, according to the quality and quantity of the product as it reaches the market.

"The manufacture of cigars (called there 'tabacos'), cigarettes, and cigarette tobacco ('picadura') is carried on in more or less large factories, each of which has its own mark or brand, such as Henry Clay, Gabanos, Garvajal, Partagos, Human, Golorio, and others, which enjoy quite a reputation, and for this reason represent also large capitals.

"The amounts paid in form of wages by these establishments is very large, and the workingmen, particularly those having in charge the manufacture of cigars, oftentimes earn high salaries, in proportion to the number of cigars turned out. It would be impossible to determine, even in an approximate manner, the earnings of these workingmen, but it is well known that some of them manage to earn from 4 to 5 pesos per day, although such cases are exceptional. All these workingmen are employed by purely oral contract made between them and the factory managers.

#### IN CUBA.

"The last of the three principal industries, and the one which constitutes probably nine-tenths of the wealth of the island of Cuba, is that which comprises the production of what is known locally as the 'minor products' (cultivos menores), as the cultivation of vegetables and fruits destined chiefly for the nourishment of the natives, and the cultivation of coffee, of little importance at present. This part will be treated later, when the question of labor in the islands of Porto Rico, Cuba, and principally in the central district called Camaguey is taken up, where this industry constitutes almost exclusively the wealth of the country. In importance, stock raising follows immediately after the industries of sugar and tobacco.

"Of the animals raised in the island of Cuba the most important are horned cattle, although a large number of horses are also found. Both of these classes are raised and fed in the 'potreros,' the name given to large stretches of land abounding in very rich pastures, where they are being guarded by peasants of the white race who are hired by the landowners and receive salaries varying in size according to the region in which the potreros are found. Although not engaged by special and written contract, these laborers generally remain very long in the service of the same employer.

"The 'estancieros,' or those who are permanently occupied in agriculture, are either the owners of the land which they cultivate or farmers for money or on shares (fermiers ou de colons); none of them is subject to a labor contract proper, nor do they receive wages. The 'estancieros,' as well as those who are engaged in stock raising, are known in the country under the name of 'guajiros.'

"Such are the conditions of labor in the island of Cuba.

#### IN PORTO RICO.

"In Porto Rico the chief employment of the guajiros is agriculture on a small scale ("petite culture") principally the cultivation of coffee, which, together with the sugar industry, is the predominant occupation in the island. The coffee plant can be successfully grown only in the shade of trees with thick foliage, and the estancieros of Porto Rico sow and cultivate the plant in the shade of trees which form the forests of the island.

"The entire family takes part in the work of the small plantations; men, women, and children pick the coffee grain, by grain, which they then turn over to the general storekeepers (the keepers of 'tiendas mixtas'). These stores contain all sorts of merchandise, beginning with food stuffs and ending with clothing and articles of dress, and it is here that the coffee is being exchanged by the producer for all the things that he needs.

"In these stores the coffee is being piled up in sacks until it is bought by the wholesale merchants of the towns, and particularly the seacoast towns, whence it is shipped to the different markets of Europe and America.

"There are no central sugar factories ('ingenios centrales') in Porto Rico as yet, the production of sugar not being of great importance, and the old ordinary sugar mills are still met with. The quantity exported abroad above the local supply is very small as compared with that exported from Cuba, which has reached lately a million tons a year.

"Stock raising has developed somewhat, but almost the total product is absorbed by the island consumption; for Porto Rico, it should be remembered, is thickly populated, owing to the division of property and labor.

"Tobacco, although of a quality inferior to that of the Vuelta Abajo region of Cuba, constitutes the principal part of the island's wealth. The mode of cultivation is the same as in the other island, and it is exported in considerable quantities, either in bunches ('torcidos') or in leaves, the lower sort of tobacco being known by the name of 'tabaco boliche.'

"It may be said that in Porto Rico there is neither extreme poverty nor large fortunes. The budget usually shows a surplus, which for the last fiscal year exceeded the amount of 100,000 pesos, and it may be concluded that both from the social as well as financial view the situation of the island is really flourishing.

"Such, it would seem, is the ideal toward which all the colonies of the world ought to strive.

#### IN THE PHILIPPINES.

"The condition of labor in the Philippine Islands is quite peculiar. It is well known that in these islands the native races predominate to the extent of constituting almost the entire population, the number of Spaniards and their descendants reaching hardly 100,000. The number of racial groups is quite considerable, but they may be all grouped in three large classes. The first is formed by a relatively small number of beings called 'Negritos' or 'Buquiles,' a very low race, and akin to that of the Fueguinos, the inhabitants of the island of Fuegos and the races inhabiting the islands of Polynesia and Australia. There is good reason to believe that they were the aboriginal inhabitants of the Philippine archipelago.

"The race improperly called Malayan is more widely spread and more numerous; it shows a stronger constitution and capacity of a higher intellectual development; there are strong indications that it arrived in the country by immigration, for it must be classed among the Asiatic races of more or less yellowish color.

"The last who arrived in these islands by way of invasion and conquest are the people generally known as 'Moros,' who inhabit Gola and the interior of the Mindanao islands, more particularly the shores of the Rio Grande and the Laguna de Lanao, where their number amounts to about 500,000.

"The Negritos or Buquiles live almost all yet in a state of savagery, and may be classed as belonging to the lowest and most rudimentary stage of civilization. They feed on natural products, and have hardly any other pursuits than fishing and hunting, using their bows and arrows with wonderful skill.



"The natives belonging to the second group are almost all subject to authority, with the exception of a few tribes called 'Igorrotes,' who lead an independent existence in the midst of the woods.

"The Moros are in a state of continuous warfare with the Spanish and other native groups, whom they keep in a state of the rudest slavery, using them as laborers on the land, the Moros themselves being given exclusively to the art of war. They feed on the product of the labor of their slaves, and exchange what they can not use themselves for goods which are delivered to them by the Chinese, the only ones who succeeded in establishing themselves among the Moros for the purpose of engaging in commerce, for which they show such special ability.

"This chapter will treat of labor conditions among the most numerous race among those inhabiting the Philippine Islands, and which is completely subject to Spanish authority.

"It must be owned that notwithstanding the state of submission the race as a whole is not devoid of energy. Still, owing to the influence of the Spanish, and particularly to the religious orders, the people of this race have engaged considerably in agricultural pursuits. The chief articles produced are hemp (abaca), coffee, tobacco, and sugar, and large estates are found which are devoted entirely to the production of these articles.

"As regards the production of tobacco, it was free in some provinces, but in others the Government used coercive measures in order to prevent the Indians from engaging in this pursuit, and it was only by the royal decree of June 25, 1881, that the prohibitive enactments in this matter were abolished, and that the cultivation of this article became entirely free like that of the other articles.

"The work in the fields is performed on large estates ("haciendas") by laborers, who discuss and fix with their employers the mode of remuneration as well as the amount of their wages, the latter as a general rule being quite low; but the larger part of the Indians cultivate on their own account the land of which they are the owners. The unoccupied land is of large extent, and the government at different epochs enacted measures which were to enable the natives to acquire ownership of the land, in order to develop their activity and to enhance the productivity of the rich soil.

"All these enactments are found to be brought together in the royal decree dated February 13, 1894, and enacted with the advice of the Philippine council.

#### CONCLUSIONS.

"From what has been said just now it may be seen that the labor problem in this important colony presents the same features as in the other colonies. The number of laborers is relatively small as compared with the population, which, according to the last incomplete census, reaches the number of about 6,000,000 people owning the soil which they cultivate.

"In the cities domestic labor is carried on by natives working for wages.

"Although much yet remains to be done in the Philippine Islands, the established régime has already created large centers of population, and quite important towns and cities are found.

"The budget of the islands provides for a public expenditure of over 14,000,000 pesetas, obtained by means of divers taxes constituting but a very light charge on the natives, who pay only a capitation tax, called "cedula."

"Lately a crisis of the money circulation, caused by the fluctuating relations between the values of gold and silver, has arisen, which caused an abnormal situation in this archipelago. But this is only a passing evil, for which a remedy will be found, though not through the artificial and empirical means which are being proposed by certain people.

"Such are, in a very succinct way, the actual conditions of labor in the various Spanish colonial possessions."

#### NATURAL VERSUS ARTIFICIAL METHODS OF OBTAINING A LABOR SUPPLY.

It will be seen from the above statements that the four methods which have been tried of increasing the labor supply of colonies by artificial methods have in no case been successful. The forced-labor system, whether in the form of actual slavery or in that which was tested in Java, has been abandoned at the demand of public sentiment. The transportation of convicts to the colonies to furnish a general labor supply proved unsatisfactory for obvious reasons. The importation of indentured labor, while it still continues in certain of the West India Islands, is not giving entire satisfaction even in those islands, and the fact that the system has not been extended to other parts of the world is an evidence of its unsatisfactory results and of the force of public sentiment against it. The application of the proceeds of sale of lands to the encouragement of labor importation proved a temporary and unsatisfactory expedient.

These four artificial methods having proved unsuccessful, it remains to consider the two natural processes, namely, the development of communication and transportation, by which the labor of the natives may be made sufficiently profitable to create habits of industry, and the diversification of industries by which individual enterprise will be encouraged.

#### THE DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNICATION AND TRANSPORTATION ROUTES BY WHICH INDUSTRY IN THE COLONY MAY BECOME PROFITABLE AND THEREFORE ACCEPTABLE TO THE NATIVES.

The history of all colonies, and especially those with a large native population, is that the development of industry, and especially profitable industry, was greatly stimulated by the construction of roads, railways, canals, and harbor works, and all facilities by which the product of the soil, the mine, and forest could be transported to the markets of the world. This is more and more recognized as the first essential in the prosperity and development of the colony, and experience has shown that the earnings which they thus bring within the reach of labor has everywhere had the tendency to promote industry. In India roads have grown from nothing, under native control, to more than 150,000 miles maintained by public authorities, and railways have also grown to more than 25,000 miles. Commerce has at the same time increased enormously—the exports growing from £18,000,000 in 1850 to £78,000,000 in 1900—an increase of \$300,000,000 in the surplus produced and distributed in the markets of the world, to say nothing of the great increase in consumption in India meantime.

#### IN JAVA.

In Java one of the earliest works undertaken by the forced-labor system was the construction of a magnificent trunk line of roads throughout the entire length of the island, and to this has been added branches radiating from the central line, and alongside this a second line, so that one may be utilized for the transportation of heavy produce and the other for driving; and while the earlier prosperity of Java was looked upon by many as largely due to the culture system, the fact that the production of the chief staples, especially sugar, has greatly increased in that island since the abolition of the culture system and of forced labor shows that the transporta-

tion routes, which are an inheritance of the forced-labor system, are an important factor in inducing and assuring voluntary industry, and were probably a larger factor in the success under forced cultivation than was generally attributed to them. The forced-labor system has disappeared from Java in everything except coffee, and even in that to a great extent; yet the number of tobacco plantations increased from 88 in 1895 to 110 in 1898, and their product from 9,807,178 kilograms in 1895 to 18,418,575 kilograms in 1900. The tea product has increased from 4,096,863 kilograms in 1894 to 4,757,168 kilograms in 1898. The indigo product has increased from 565,547 kilograms in 1894 to 1,094,225 kilograms in 1898; the sugar crop from 1,076,431,400 pounds in 1894 to 1,538,701,400 pounds in 1898. In coffee there was an increase from 131,832,500 pounds in 1894 to 156,503,866 pounds in 1897, but a material fall in 1898, due presumably to local causes. In cinchona the production increased from 3,233,599 kilograms in 1894 to 4,461,754 kilograms in 1898, and in mineral oil from 111,387,385 liters in 1896 to 311,396,492 liters in 1898. Thus in the single five-year period since the abolition of the forced-labor system all of the great industries of Java have shown a marked increase in production, the transition from a surplus to a deficit which has occurred during that time being due to the heavy expenses of the local war with the Achinese and to the reduced revenue caused by the fall in prices, and not by a reduction in production.

#### IN THE WEST INDIES.

In the British West Indies, in which there has been great complaint of reduction of earning power by reason of the increased production of sugar in other parts of the world and the general reduction in price of that staple, the total exports of products of all kinds in 1900 were £6,260,590 in value against £5,771,000 in 1885 and £5,315,211 in 1898. This is especially suggestive in view of the statements made before the West Indian Commission already quoted to the effect that there is a general disposition among the natives to obtain for themselves small holdings of land, and that the tendency is toward a distribution of the large estates among the native population and a greater production by that population of the articles required for daily life. In Jamaica, where this disposition has been referred to as especially marked, the exportation of 1900 was 38 per cent higher than the average during the decade ending with 1880 and has only been exceeded on three occasions since 1850. A recent report to the British colonial department from Jamaica shows that the number of depositors in the Government Savings Bank increased from 28,385 in 1895 to 32,860 in 1900, and that those whose deposits were £5 and under increased from 19,929 to 21,485.

#### IN THE MALAYAN PENINSULA.

In the Malayan Peninsula the development of industry coincident with the development of means of communication is strongly marked. It is only a quarter of a century since this group of disorganized and warring States, with practically no commerce, roads, railways, or other methods of communication, placed themselves under the general direction of the governor-general of the Straits Settlements, which occupy the terminal section of the Malayan Peninsula in which those States were located. Since that time in this small territory, whose area is about equal to that of West Virginia, over 1,300 miles of roads and about 1,000 miles of bridle paths have been established and maintained, 162 miles of railway constructed and others under construction. The population has increased from probably less than 100,000 to nearly 600,000; the revenue from \$560,997 to over \$14,000,000, while the single State of Perak shows an increase in population from 25,000 to over 200,000; an increase of imports from less than \$1,000,000 in 1876 to over \$11,000,000 in 1899, and of exports from \$739,971 in 1876 to \$25,707,051 in 1899. Selangor, with an area of only 3,500 square miles, which in 1873 had practically no trade at all, shows imports in 1899 of over \$18,000,000 and exports \$20,894,185. In the colony of Ceylon 300 miles of railway have been opened, all owned and worked by the local government, and there are 3,600 miles of roads and 152 miles of canals. The railways, which cost 57,000,000 rupees, show in 1897 receipts of 7,658,887 rupees and expenditures of 4,104,454 rupees. Accompanying this development has come an increase in the value of exports from 57,000,000 rupees in 1890 to 110,000,000 rupees in 1899.

#### INCREASE OF NATIVE INDUSTRY FOLLOWS DEVELOPMENT OF MEANS OF COMMUNICATION.

A study of the history of the colonies of the world shows that in every case where the government established has brought about the construction of roads, railways, and other means of communication great increase in production and exportation has followed, evidencing a marked increase in industry, and in most of these cases by native labor only. As has been shown elsewhere, the cost of this work of opening roads and railways is in most cases borne by the communities themselves. The British Government makes a fixed rule that the colonies must themselves raise, through taxation or loans based upon taxation, the funds for all development of this character. In the Netherlands East Indian colony all improvements of this character have been paid for out of local revenue of the colony, but in the French colonies some aid has been given by the home Government. As a rule it may be said, however, that in all expenses of opening communication, or other steps of this character by which industry is awakened and the condition of the colony improved, the necessary funds are raised by local taxation or by loans based upon future revenues, while in a comparatively few cases the railways have been constructed by private enterprise.

#### THE DIVERSIFICATION OF INDUSTRIES BY WHICH NATIVE ENTERPRISE IS ENCOURAGED.

The development of thrift and industry through diversification of labor and the division of the lands into small holdings has already been referred to in the discussions regarding conditions in the West Indies. The labor difficulty, of which so much complaint has been made in the West Indies, is chiefly realized by the holders of large estates, who complain of difficulty of obtaining native labor for work on the plantation. This is accounted for, according to their own statements and those made before the West Indian Commission, by the fact that large numbers of the natives have become the holders by lease or purchase of small tracts of land. Simultaneously with this increase in individual holdings the experiment stations and botanical gardens established in the islands by the British Government have encouraged new industries with great success, both as to net results in the matter of commerce and in the industry and thrift of the natives. The report on conditions in Jamaica by the acting governor of that island, dated October 31, 1900, shows the exportation of ten principal articles in 1899 and compares the same with 1889. Of cocoa it shows total exports more than four times in value those of 1889; of cocoanuts exports more than treble those of 1889; of bananas exports more than double those of 1889; of oranges exports more than double those of a decade earlier, although the prices in the last two years have been below the average; of Jamaica ginger the value of the exports is more than treble that of ten years ago; of pimenta the value has nearly trebled; of sugar the value of the exports has declined about 40 per cent, but this is attributed largely to decrease in price.

In Java, while the production is still largely upon large plantations, the number of these has greatly increased since the termination

of the forced-labor system, and the European population has also greatly increased, and with it has come a diversification of industries. "Since the new régime was ushered in by the agrarian act," says M. Le Clercq in his work on Java, already referred to, "European colonization has become possible, the government monopoly gives place slowly to private enterprise, and Java, which was formerly but a large estate, of which the cultivators were bound to the soil, is being transformed into a land open to colonization and all sorts of private undertaking. This transformation had one good result. The European population has almost doubled within the last twenty years. There are at present 60,000 Dutch in the Dutch Indies, of whom 50,000 live in Java alone, and of this number the female element constituted more than two-fifths. The intensity of this white invasion appears more and more remarkable if it is kept in mind that the English number no more than 100,000 in all India and the French not more than 5,000 in Indo-China. Owing to the greater stress of population caused by this influx the time of extravagance has gone. No more balls and splendid festivals are given, nor are fortunes made so easily as in olden days; but it will be wrong to think that Java is less prosperous than it was at the time when coffee and sugar would make men rich in ten years. M. Chailley-Bert justly remarks that while there are fewer fortunes rapidly made, and less millions to a few heads, there is more wealth among the masses, a greater division of property, less extravagance, and more well-being."

The figures already quoted showing the rapid growth in the production of indigo, tea, tobacco, cinchona, and mineral oil, as well as coffee and sugar, in the Dutch East Indies indicate in some degree the enlargement of the lines of production, and to this may be added coal, tin, cotton, maize, and many other articles. The Statesman's Yearbook for 1901, commenting upon this development, says: "The extent of the soil of Java and Madura regularly cultivated by the natives was, in 1898, 6,838,533 acres. Owing to the agrarian law of 1870, which has afforded opportunity to private energy for obtaining waste lands on hereditary lease for seventy-five years, private agriculture has greatly increased in recent years, both in Java and in the other islands. In 1898 there were ceded to 752 companies and Europeans 803,478 acres. In 1891 the Government ceased to cultivate sugar. The yield of sugar in 1893 was 1,082,923,700 pounds, and in 1898, 1,538,701,400 pounds; total length of railways open for traffic, 1,272 miles; number of post-offices, 200; letters carried for internal intercourse, 8,672,352, while 6,370,780 newspapers and samples for the interior passed through the various post-offices, and 1,512,289 letters were carried for foreign postal intercourse. There were 637,389 telegraph messages handled on the 6,833 miles of telegraph lines."

Commenting upon the benefits to industry resulting from increased internal communications and encouragement of commerce and diversified productions, Sir W. W. Hunter, in his *Indian Empire*, 1892, says: "Under British rule a new era of production has arisen in India—an era of production on a great scale based upon the cooperation of capital and labor in the place of the small household manufactures of ancient times. Under native rule the country had reached what political economists call the stationary stage of civilization; the husbandman simply raised the food grains necessary to feed them from one harvest to another. If the food crops failed in any district the local population had no capital and no other crops wherewith to buy food from other districts; so, in the natural and inevitable course of things they perished. Now the peasants of India supplement their food supply with more profuse crops than the mere food stuffs on which they live. They also raise an annual surplus of grain for exportation, which is valuable for India's own wants in time of need. Accordingly there is a much larger aggregate of capital in the country; that is to say, a much greater national resource or staying power. The so-called 'stationary stage' in India has disappeared and the Indian peasant is keenly alive to each new demand which the markets of the world may make upon the industrial capabilities of his country, as the history of his trade in cotton, jute, wheat, and oil seeds proves. At the beginning of the last century, before England became the ruling power in India, the country did not produce £1,000,000 a year of staples for exportation. During the first three-quarters of a century of our rule the exports slowly rose to about £10,000,000 in 1834. During the half century since that date the old inland duties and other remaining restrictions have been abolished. Exports have multiplied by tenfold. In 1882 India sold to foreign nations beyond the seas 819,019,600 rupees of merchandise, and in 1891, 1,001,357,220. In 1882 the total sea-borne export and import trade of India in merchandise, exclusive of government stores and treasure, was 1,288,940,440 rupees, and in 1891, 1,691,706,220 rupees, or, including government stores and treasure, 1,960,000,000 rupees. India has more to sell to the world than she requires to buy from it. During the five years ending 1879 the staples which she exported exceeded by an annual average of 220,000,000 rupees the merchandise which she imported. During the next five years the gross surplus of exports over imports rose to 300,000,000 rupees per annum. During the seven years ending with March 1, 1891, this annual surplus has averaged annually 311,809,000 rupees. From one-third to one-half of this favorable balance of trade India received in hard cash; during the five years ending with 1879 she accumulated silver and gold, exclusive of reexports, at the rate of 70,000,000 rupees per annum; during the next five years, at the rate of over 100,000,000 rupees per annum; and during the seven years ending with 1891 at the rate of over 150,000,000 rupees per annum. With about another third she pays interest at low rates for the capital with which she has constructed the material framework of her industrial life—railways, irrigation works, cotton mills, coal mines, indigo factories, tea gardens, docks, steam navigation lines, and debt. For that capital she goes into the cheapest market of the world, London, and she remits the interest, not in cash, but in her own staples, which the borrowed capital has enabled her to bring cheaply to the seaboard. With the remaining third of her surplus exports she pays the home charges of the government to which she owes the peace and security that alone have rendered possible her industrial development. The home charges include not only the salaries of the supervising staff in England and the pensions of the military and civil servants who have given their life work to India, but the munitions of war, a section of the army, stores for public works, and matériel for constructing and working the railways; but after paying off all the home charges, for the interest of capital raised in England for Indian railways and for other reproductive works and for the matériel required for their construction and maintenance, India had, from 1884 to 1891, a yearly balance of 150,000,000 rupees from her export trade, for which she receives payment in silver and gold."

#### THE LESSONS OF THE CENTURY OF EXPERIMENT REGARDING LABOR IN THE COLONIES.

These inquiries which have been made as to the plans tested by the various nations and colonies for the inculcation of habits of industry and thrift among the natives and supplying the necessary labor for the development of industries in the colonies, at least suggest that the primary and most valuable means is the construction of methods of communication by which the natural products of the colony may be transported to market. As has been already pointed out, the temperate zones, with their rapidly growing manufactures, the constantly developing and increasing demand of their people for the natural products of the Tropics both for manufactures and food, are every year relying upon the Tropics for those two great essentials of daily life, raw materials and food stuffs. With this condition, with the hundreds of millions of prosperous people in the temperate zones demanding every day more and more of the natural products of the Tropics, the answer to the question of how to develop native industry in the Tropics seems to be in part, at least, the development of methods by which these natural products, so easily and plentifully produced, may readily find their way to the seaboard and thence to the great markets which are annually demanding more and more of them.

## QUESTION V.

### HOW ARE THE NECESSARY FUNDS FOR THE CONDUCT OF THE COLONIAL GOVERNMENT RAISED, AND IS ANY PART OF SUCH FUNDS SUPPLIED BY THE HOME GOVERNMENT?

On this subject of the raising of revenue it may be said that a greater variety of opinion and method prevails than on any other feature of the management of colonies. In general lines of administration and in the plans adopted for the development of the colonies the great colonizing nations of the world now follow practically similar methods, but in the raising of revenue their methods differ widely.

In general terms it may be said that Great Britain requires her colonies to be self-sustaining financially and leaves to each of them the method by which it will raise the revenue necessary for this self-support. The French, on the other hand, usually make revenue laws for their colonies and contribute from the home Government the sums necessary to supply any deficits which occur. The Dutch so adjust conditions in their chief colony as to make it not only "self-sustaining," but a revenue producer to the home Government, though exceptional conditions in the past few years have temporarily changed the colonial surplus into a deficit, which has been met by contributions from the home Government.

#### WORLD'S COLONIAL REVENUE ABOUT \$750,000,000 ANNUALLY.

The total revenues of the colonies of the world, so far as the figures can be obtained, aggregate about \$750,000,000 annually, and in the raising of this large sum many methods are resorted to, differing widely in general principles, and governed in no small degree by local surroundings and by the practices which prevailed among the people prior to occupation by the present government. In India, for example, a larger share of the revenue is produced from the land than from any other single source, and this method grew out of the fact that the land had always been considered the property of the government of India, from time immemorial the occupants being accustomed to pay to the government an annual rental, either in produce or money, for its use, and the fact that this custom has prevailed for many generations not only led to its adoption by the British, but to its ready acceptance by the people. In Java similar conditions prevailed when the Dutch took possession and similar methods have been followed, and this is true in a few minor cases, especially in the Orient.

In India the land revenue in the 1901 budget was put down at 270,000,000 rupees out of a total of 1,052,000,000 rupees, and was larger than any other single source of revenue. In Java the land revenue from the natives, mainly land taxes, was in 1899, 18,234,000 florins, and the land tax on non-natives 2,138,000 florins, making a total of over 20,000,000 florins out of a grand total of 132,000,000 florins, a sum larger than that supplied by any other single item of revenue.

Next in importance to the land revenue in India comes the salt tax, 87,000,000 rupees, then the tax on opium, 68,000,000 rupees, excise 57,000,000 rupees, stamps 49,000,000 rupees, customs 47,000,000 rupees. In Java the opium monopoly stands next to the land revenues, with about 19,000,000 florins, as against about 20,000,000 florins for land, import and export duties 10,000,000 florins, salt tax 9,000,000 florins, excise 9,000,000 florins, business tax 4,000,000 florins, and poll tax 3,000,000 florins, while there are also considerable receipts from the sales of coffee and tin. In both India and Netherlands receipts from railways figure largely in revenue accounts, but they are in a great degree balanced by expenditures for the operation of the lines.

India and Java are exceptional in their means of raising revenue not only from the share obtained from land, but in the opium and salt monopolies which exist under the control of the government, and from which large sums are raised. In India all persons cultivating the poppy are required to sell their product to the government, which manufactures the opium in its factories and sells it chiefly to China and Java, the net revenue averaging, as already indicated, about 70,000,000 rupees per annum. In Java the opium revenue is obtained through prohibition of local manufacture, the importation by the government of the entire supply from British India and the farming out the privilege of retail trade to the highest bidders. The heavy taxation upon opium is levied upon theories similar to those applied in the taxation of the production and sale of spirituous liquors in the various countries of the world. The salt produced in India is largely from works of the government, which maintains a monopoly of salt manufacturing in certain of the districts, while in other districts which obtain their supply by importation, customs duties at rates equal to those levied under the government monopoly are collected. By this process an annual revenue of about 85,000,000 rupees per annum is realized from salt, being a larger sum than any single item of revenue other than that from land. In Java the government maintains a monopoly of the manufacture of salt and sells the product at a fixed price to the people, justifying this course by the statement that no general poll tax is imposed upon the people and that this process of collecting a general tax from the masses is most easily applied and widely distributed. In India and Java, in each case it may be said, in general terms, that the tax collected from salt averages about 10 cents per capita per annum for the entire population.

In the French colonies the revenue methods differ widely from those described as prevailing in India and Java, and are also materially different from those practiced in the British colonies other than India. In the fixing of tariffs, both on imports and exports, the French Government retains entire control, while in the local revenue other than tariff the methods utilized in France are in most cases applied in modified form, though their details are left, in part at least and in some cases entirely, to the local administration under the supervision of the French officials who administer the government. The direct taxes of the mother country comprise the land tax, the tax on personal and movable property, the poll tax, a tax on rentals, and the door, window, and business taxes. In most colonies the tax on doors and windows is omitted, and for that on personal property and movables a mere poll tax has usually been substituted, while the land and house tax is applied more directly to the land itself than is customary in France. The business tax takes the form of

a business license. Added to this the stamp tax forms, as in France, an important feature of the revenue, as do also the taxes on tobacco and spirituous liquors. Of tariff duties, as already indicated, the rates are fixed by the French Government and are applied to exports as well as imports, though export duties are levied on a comparatively small number of articles. The import duties are in most cases those of the French tariff, with some concessions in the interest of the colonies and some prohibitive duties to protect colonial products, while in still other cases the duties and local taxation are so adjusted as to discourage the manufacture in the colonies of articles produced in and exported from the mother country. This latter method, however, now prevails in but very few instances. The rates of duty applied are generally high, since in most cases they correspond with those of France, whose tariff policy is protective in its character. Customs revenues form the largest single item in the receipts of the French colonies as a whole, though the import duties alone fall slightly below the liquor tax. The revenues of the French colonies in 1898, omitting Algeria, which is governed as a province of France, amounted to about 47,000,000 francs, exclusive of the subventions by the Government, and of this amount about the value of 8,000,000 francs was from liquor tax, nearly 7,000,000 francs from import duties, a little over 4,000,000 francs from export duties, 3,750,000 francs from opium, 3,000,000 francs from sales of stamps, 3,000,000 francs from house taxes, 2,000,000 francs from land taxes, and 1,500,000 francs from poll taxes. The taxes collected from import duties amounted in Cochin China to about 15 per cent of the total revenue, in French Guiana about 20 per cent, and in Senegal more than 40 per cent.

#### THE MOST DIFFICULT OF COLONIAL PROBLEMS.

M. Leroy Beaulieu, discussing the raising of revenue in the colonies, in his very valuable and complete work on colonization, "De la Colonization Chez les Peuples Modernes," says:

"Of all branches of the colonial administration, perhaps the most difficult is that which is concerned with the assessment and collection of taxes. \* \* \* The two best modes of raising colonial revenue, those that weigh least upon the colonies and interfere least with the development of the colony, and furthermore, those whose collection is easiest and least expensive are, first, customs duties on merchandise imported (the 'octroi de mer,' the term normally used in the French maritime colonies), and secondly, the sale of government lands. These are the almost only sources of revenue which were used in the British colonies, and it has always been remarked that provided the assessment be intelligent and the rates moderate, no bad effects resulted, whereas the revenue was sufficiently abundant. The import duties in the colonies should be merely fiscal in character and have no protective character, otherwise they might become obnoxious; provided they strike all sorts of merchandise without distinction of the country of origin, and at a moderate rate merely, not exceeding 5 or 10 per cent ad valorem, these duties will not offer any economic inconvenience. The colonists bear them without grumbling and their collection is very easy, for nearly all the new colonies being accessible only through a few ports, a limited number of agents established in these ports suffices to levy the tax on the cargoes of the entering vessels; there are none of those inquisitorial vexations which constitute a just object of criticism in the case of municipal gate duties (octroi). These import duties fall almost entirely on articles of immediate consumption, for the colonies do not import raw materials for manufactures. From the following facts, taken from the history of British colonies, an idea can be formed of the articles on which these taxes chiefly fall: The revenue of New South Wales in 1836 was £190,000, of which £128,000 came from the tax on imported spirits, and £17,000 from the tax on tobacco, whereas the 5 per cent tax on foreign merchandise yielded no more than £10,000. In New Brunswick, out of £58,000 of revenue, £49,000 came from taxes on strong liquors, sugar, coffee, and ad valorem duties on different articles of merchandise. Most economists disapprove of taxes on consumption and favor direct taxes. Much might be said on this subject, but in the colonies direct taxes are, at least in the beginning, very hard and costly to collect; moreover, their almost inevitable effect is to retard the development of the colony. On the contrary, taxes on consumption are collected easily and at slight cost in the ports of entry, and are being regarded quite favorable by the colonists when they are moderate. All these advantages seem to us sufficiently important to prompt the adoption of these taxes, notwithstanding the objection of many economists. If, in theory, it is easy to reason about the type of tax whose application would be desirable in preference to all others, in practice it becomes necessary to conform with social and geographical circumstances and conditions, the customs and tastes of the public, and the best tax under given circumstances is the one which weighs least on the taxpayers who have to support it, and which brings the most revenue to the state which collects it. \* \* \* As regards the other mode of raising revenue, i. e., the sale of uncultivated land, it is known that the Wakefield system provided for the employment of the entire product of the 'land fund' from the sale of lands for the support of subsidized immigration. With some essential restrictions of such an exclusive system we approve of the British policy, which generally employed a part of the money derived from the sale of lands for different essential public services. As regards the question of prices of virgin land, theory, of course, can not fix them. They depend on the circumstances and advantages which the colony presents for the cultivation of valuable products, varying between a mere nominal price of \$1.25 per acre, as, for instance, in the United States, and a relatively high price of £1 or £1 15s. per acre, as in Australia. But it is nearly always advantageous to sell the land instead of giving it away gratuitously, and the amounts realized from the sales furnish an excellent revenue. In the case of Australia this revenue was at times quite considerable."

#### IN THE BRITISH COLONIES.

In the British colonies, as above indicated, the only requirements of the home Government is that the colony shall be self-sustaining; the remaining details are left to the people of the colony with greater and more nearly complete freedom than perhaps any other government of the world. As a consequence the methods employed differ very greatly. Those of India, which are peculiar by reason of customs long existing, have been above described. In the other colonies import duties form a large share of the revenue, much larger than that supplied in the collection of revenue in the mother country, and in practically all cases except Canada there is no discrimination in favor of the mother country. In practically all of the colonies of Great Britain other than India, import duties are levied on a much larger variety of articles than in the mother country and with rates very much higher.

Taking all the British colonies for which figures are obtainable, other than India, 33 per cent of the revenues are collected from customs, while in the United Kingdom customs form 24 per cent of the revenue. In many of the British colonies customs form a much larger percentage of the revenue than the average above named. In the Australian colonies the proportion of revenues collected from customs ranges from 14 to 37 per cent; in the South African colonies, from 17 to 28 per cent; in Mauritius, 38 per cent; in Jamaica, 46 per cent; in the West Indies, generally from 50 per cent upward; in Fiji, 53 per cent; in Canada, 54 per cent; in British Guiana, 58 per cent, and in the colonies of West Africa, 75 to 80 per cent of the total revenues. The table which follows shows the revenue from

customs, total revenue, and the per cent which customs form of the total in each of the principal colonies of the United Kingdom as shown by the British Statistical Abstract for the colonies. The figures are for the year 1899, except in the case of India, which are for the year 1898. (The figures for India and Ceylon are stated upon the old basis of 10 rupees to the pound sterling.)

## REVENUE OF BRITISH COLONIES, AND SHARE DERIVED FROM CUSTOMS.

COLONIES.	Customs revenue.	Total revenue.	Customs.	COLONIES.	Customs revenue.	Total revenue.	Customs.
	£	£	Per cent.		£	£	Per cent.
India .....	7,284,840	101,426,693	6.1	Fiji .....	52,631	98,621	53
New South Wales .....	1,351,956	9,753,775	14	Bahamas .....	65,500	83,055	78.3
Canada .....	5,202,091	9,661,923	53.8	St. Lucie .....	35,865	71,479	49.3
Victoria .....	2,051,708	7,369,251	27.8	Grenada .....	38,148	68,757	55.9
Cape of Good Hope .....	1,727,247	6,188,882	27.9	North Australia .....	33,691	65,731	50
New Zealand .....	2,124,451	5,699,618	37.3	Gibraltar .....	.....	59,954	.....
Queensland .....	1,367,926	4,174,083	32.8	Honduras .....	28,420	51,535	55
South Australia .....	558,122	2,714,050	2	Gambia .....	36,250	46,840	78.3
West Australia .....	845,548	2,633,081	32	Antigua .....	24,174	42,822	57.1
Natal .....	436,917	2,081,349	20	St. Christopher .....	23,881	42,809	54.8
Ceylon .....	452,641	1,727,543	26	Bermuda .....	33,107	39,956	84.8
Tasmania .....	425,574	943,970	45	St. Vincent .....	16,063	32,210	50
Mauritius .....	346,508	906,631	38.2	Dominica .....	13,700	26,156	50
Jamaica .....	358,501	773,610	46.3	Falkland Islands .....	3,185	13,219	23
Hongkong .....	.....	752,113	.....	British New Guinea .....	9,884	11,683	81.8
Trinidad .....	285,499	611,135	46.6	St. Helena .....	6,548	11,593	54.5
British Guiana .....	315,068	538,839	58.6	Labuan .....	5,250	10,891	50
Straits Settlements .....	.....	505,558	.....	Tobago .....	2,599	8,213	30
Newfoundland .....	322,004	360,357	89.5	Turks Island .....	5,862	8,033	72.5
Malta .....	197,421	354,265	55.7	Montserrat .....	4,792	6,790	70
Gold Coast .....	279,058	322,796	86.6	Virgin Islands .....	732	2,984	2.4
Lagos .....	175,696	192,792	91				
Barbados .....	95,687	176,022	54				
Sierra Leone .....	127,041	168,318	75.6				
				Total .....	26,771,786	160,840,048	16.6

## REVENUE OF THE FRENCH COLONIES.

The following table prepared by Prof. Edwin R. A. Seligman, to accompany his paper on the revenues of the French colonies, extracts from which are published on another page, shows the revenues of the French colonies from various sources in 1898.

## FRENCH COLONIAL REVENUES IN 1898.

COLONIES.	Land tax.	House tax.	Poll tax.	Business tax.	Carriage tax.	Dog tax.	Boat tax.	Total direct taxes.	Export duties.	Import duties.	Per cent import duties.	Tonnage and navigation duties.	Liquor tax.	Tobacco tax.	Opium tax.	Rice tax.	Oil tax.	Match tax.	Taxes on other commodities.	Licenses.	Stamp taxes.	Octroi de mer.	Total indirect taxes.	Post and telegraph.	Total.
Martinique.....	734	30	.....	395	.....	.....	.....	.....	555	810	15.1	144	1,370	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	880	214	.....	118	5,354
Guadeloupe.....	.....	259	.....	230	.....	.....	.....	.....	555	550	10	63	2,232	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	409	110	.....	100	5,552
Guiana.....	.....	36	.....	60	.....	.....	.....	.....	354	276	19	48	260	48	30	.....	.....	.....	.....	297	280	.....	80	1,894	
St. Pierre and Miquelon.....	.....	.....	.....	21	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	230	.....	60	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	18	435	
Senegal.....	.....	50	15	180	.....	.....	.....	.....	140	2,040	52	48	800	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	119	.....	188	8,958	
Guinea.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	320	.....	.....	12	200	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	6	.....	4	5,477	
Congo.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	68	.....	225	8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2,680	
Réunion.....	.....	75	220	243	34	.....	.....	.....	294	18	(1)	40	1,950	120	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	638	60	879	6,243	
Mayotte.....	62	.....	60	22	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	21	9	9	18	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	22	.....	128	2,557	
Nossi-Ré.....	16	.....	20	40	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	14	12	.....	3	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	4	.....	.....	207	
Madagascar.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	9,437	
French India.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	358	.....	.....	.....	39	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	142	.....	10	1,835	
Cochin-China <sup>1</sup> .....	830	.....	688	169	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,660	1,484	14.5	.....	80	.....	3,196	636	.....	.....	.....	.....	90	.....	85	10,200	
Cambodia <sup>2</sup> .....	120	14	334	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	127	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	7	1,413	
Anam-Tonkin <sup>3</sup> .....	6	2,412	.....	10	.....	.....	.....	.....	373	810	12.5	177	362	60	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	95	.....	92	6,400	
Oceania.....	.....	.....	147	81	.....	22	.....	.....	.....	260	20	.....	53	.....	50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	100	.....	31	1,256	
New Caledonia <sup>4</sup> .....	105	.....	.....	140	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	510	212	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	131	.....	70	3,062	
Total.....	1,873	2,876	1,484	1,591	35	23	87	426	4,251	6,724	113	654	7,924	440	3,279	636	31	29	946	6	2,916	384	879	873	59,730

<sup>1</sup> 0.3 of 1 per cent.<sup>2</sup> Piasters.<sup>3</sup> Native taxes.<sup>4</sup> 1893.

## REVENUE OF THE DUTCH EAST INDIES.

The following statement shows the revenues of Java in 1899 by principal articles.

## REVENUES OF JAVA, BY PRINCIPAL SOURCES, 1899.

	Florins.
Land revenue, mainly land tax (on natives) .....	18,234,000
Import and export duties .....	10,887,000
Excise taxes .....	7,974,000
Business tax .....	3,996,000
Poll tax .....	3,146,000
Land tax on nonnatives .....	2,138,000
Opium monopoly .....	18,916,000
Salt monopoly .....	8,807,000
Railroads and tramways .....	11,980,000
Sale of coffee (gross receipts) .....	14,170,000
Sale of tin (gross receipts) .....	8,318,000



## REVENUES OF INDIA.

The following table, taken from the Statesman's Year-Book for 1901, shows the estimated receipts of the Indian government for the fiscal year 1900-1901, the figures being the "Budget estimate."

ESTIMATED REVENUE OF INDIA FOR THE YEAR 1900-1901.

SOURCES OF REVENUE.	Rupees.	SOURCES OF REVENUE.	Rupees.
Land revenue .....	271,180,000	Interest .....	9,460,000
Opium .....	68,397,000	Post-office, telegraph, and mint .....	35,963,000
Salt .....	87,676,000	Civil departments .....	17,663,000
Stamps .....	49,011,000	Railways .....	256,973,000
Excise .....	57,290,000	Irrigation .....	36,094,000
Provincial rates .....	39,196,000	Buildings and roads .....	6,657,500
Customs .....	47,013,000	Military departments .....	10,663,500
Assessed taxes .....	19,597,000	Miscellaneous .....	8,161,500
Forests .....	17,833,000		
Registration .....	4,402,000	Total revenue .....	1,062,407,500
Tribute .....	9,277,000		

The above statements, showing the revenues of the principal colonies of the world and the means by which they are collected, emphasize the assertion already made that methods of raising revenue differ widely with localities and customs which have prevailed in the countries in earlier times.

An examination of the above tables shows, first, that in the British colonies other than India, customs form the most acceptable single means of raising revenue, and that in the smaller colonies and in those less developed the proportion of the revenue raised from customs is greater than in the larger and more completely developed communities of Canada, Australia, and South Africa.

A study of the above group of tables showing the revenue methods of the British colonies, French colonies, Dutch colonies, and British India, respectively, coupled with the statements which precede them regarding conditions in each of those colonies, reveals the very wide range of systems adopted in different parts of the world and the disposition to apply or adapt systems which already prevailed in those communities where definite methods of government and administration existed when control of the territory was assumed by the present administering government.

## RESULTS OF A STUDY BY THE AMERICAN ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION.

These facts are pointed out in a valuable statement made by the colonial committee of the American Economic Association, composed of Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks, Hon. Charles S. Hamlin, Prof. Edwin R. A. Seligman, and Dr. Albert Shaw. This committee, which was constituted at the eleventh annual meeting of the American Economic Association, has collected an admirable series of papers from members of the association, some of them prepared by members of the committee, upon financial methods in the world's colonies, and published the same in copyrighted form in the August, 1900, issue of the publication of the American Economic Association. By the kind permission of the committee, such portions of these studies as relate to financial methods, especially in the East and West Indies, are herewith reproduced, with due credit to author and publisher. The following statement, prepared and signed by the above-named members of the committee, summarizes the result of the detailed studies and presents also the views of the committee upon the subject:

"As a result of this study the committee venture to offer the following general suggestions, some of which are applicable to the United States:

"First the finances of each colony should be managed exclusively for the sake of the colony and for its development, and not for the advantage of the mother country.

"Second. No uniform system of detailed fiscal management for a number of colonies in different parts of the world can be established. Each colony must be considered by itself and its system must be adapted to its conditions.

"Third. Each colony should, as far as possible, be made self-supporting; but the mother country may well sustain the colony's credit or make advances to be repaid at a later date.

"Fourth. In undeveloped colonies whose inhabitants are not capable of managing important public works, such as railways, canals, telegraph systems, etc., these improvements may well be owned by the government and managed by government officials rather than by private companies.

"Fifth. The selection of sources of revenue must in each case be determined in accordance with the economic and social conditions of the colony.

"Sixth. Where the colony is so situated that the development of trade with foreign countries is the chief economic consideration, import duties should be very low or practically nonexistent.

"Seventh. In colonies of undeveloped economic resources the chief reliance for general government income should be on a system of internal-revenue taxes. Excise duties should be levied primarily on a few articles of general consumption, like alcoholic drinks, opium, and rice. When any colony has decided advantages in the production of some specially favored commodities, like sugar, tobacco, hemp, etc., it may be desirable to impose business licenses or similar duties on them. It is even a question whether low export duties on such commodities may not be advantageously employed in exceptional cases, it being assumed that under these circumstances a duty on colonial exports would not be inconsistent with the Constitution of the United States.

"Eighth. It is undesirable to utilize an octroi or a system of taxes on consumption for local purposes. Local revenue should in most cases be derived in a large measure from real estate, business licenses, and kindred specific taxes.

"Ninth. Wherever possible, in the administration of fiscal affairs, natives should be utilized as officials. It should be fully understood, however, that in the last resort the desires of the United States Government, expressed by the proper authority, are to be paramount and its decisions final.

"Tenth. As long as any of the colonies have not attained modern industrial conditions, it may be advisable to continue, as far as possible, native customs during the period of transition. For example, it is quite possible that for some time to come the system of farming out the revenue to contractors, especially to native chiefs, should be retained under such restrictions as may prove practicable.

"Eleventh. For the proper administration of the fiscal system in any of the dependencies of the United States it is absolutely essential to establish a civil service which is beyond question as respects the ability and honesty of its personnel.

"Twelfth. In those dependencies where it is difficult to secure an adequate supply of efficient native labor, the question of the admission of foreign laborers should be seriously considered. While there may be sufficient justification for the exclusion of Chinese workmen from the United States, it by no means follows that they should be excluded from the Philippines." \* \* \*

### FINANCIAL METHODS IN THE FRENCH COLONIES.

The statement which follows is from a paper on the "French colonial fiscal system," prepared by Prof. Edwin R. A. Seligman, copyrighted and published as part of a series issued by the American Economic Association, August, 1900, under the title of "Essays in Colonial Finance," and reproduced by consent of the publishers:

"The home Government is responsible for a number of expenses, the most important of which are those for the army and navy; for the salaries of the civil, judicial, and religious officers; for the penal institutions; and for the so-called common expenses, which include the salary of the colonial minister and his office, as well as of the two colonial inspectors. These expenses may be classed under two main heads: The expenses of sovereignty and the subventions accorded to the separate colonies to aid them in defraying their local expenses. In 1898 the expenses for which the home Government thus made itself responsible amounted to over 91,000,000 francs. In addition to this large sum, France also makes considerable grants in the shape of shipping subsidies (and to a minor extent, cable subsidies) to the lines having relations with the colonies. These grants, which amounted in 1898 to 23,500,000 francs, are also included in the budget of the colonies, which forms a part of the home budget. Thus the total expenses chargeable to the colonies, but paid by the home Government, amounted in 1898 to over 116,000,000 francs.

#### HOME RECEIPTS FROM THE COLONIES.

"Against these expenses which appear in the French budget proper ought to be put the receipts from the colonies which go to swell the income of the mother country and appear in its budget. These receipts are of four kinds: First, the so-called 'contingents' imposed on the colonies; second, the India rent; third, the deductions from salaries for civil pensions; fourth, the sale of State property and the proceeds of prison labor. The contingents comprise a number of small contributions, supposed to be paid by the various colonies. The purposes for which the contingents are paid are fixed by the law of 1866, which, it is to be noted, applies only to the three so-called ancient colonies, Guadeloupe, Martinique, and Réunion; but the principles of the law of 1866 have been extended to the other colonies by subsequent legislation, especially in the eighties. Although the contingents are in general insignificant, the reverse is true of Cochin China. In the budget of 1891 the total contingents amounted to 5,839,000 francs. The remainder was distributed in small amounts among the other colonies. The above figures comprise not only the colonial contingents, so called, as defined by the law of 1866 and its successors, but also the additional colonial contributions as fixed by the arrangement of 1893. In theory the contingents are supposed to be a payment on the part of the colonies in return for the expenses of sovereignty defrayed by the mother country and chargeable to the general French budget. On the other hand, the so-called 'contributions' are supposed to be payments toward the general expenses of the home Government, whether these expenses have been incurred for colonial purposes or not. As a matter of fact, however, most of these contributions go toward defraying the expenses of certain institutions in Paris which have been created for colonial purposes. The contributions themselves are insignificant, amounting to less than half a million francs, as against contingents of more than 5,000,000 francs. Thus the sums raised in the colonies by both contingents and contributions are in fact spent for purposes which redound to the interests of the colonies themselves. \* \* \*

#### THE COLONIAL BUDGETS.

"It may be said in general that the colonies in fixing their own budgets have a large measure of autonomy, modified, however, in some important particulars. On the side of expenses, for instance, there are certain so-called obligatory expenses for which each colony is compelled to provide in its own budget. On the revenue side the colonies have a free hand, except that since 1892 they have lost the right of fixing the rate of the tariff duties. This power is now reserved to the home Government. The colonial budget itself is discussed and fixed by the general council in all the colonies where that institution exists. It must then be submitted to the colonial governor, who represents the home Government. The powers of the governor, however, are carefully defined by the law of 1866. If the budget balances, and if all the obligatory expenses have been provided for, the governor can not modify the budget in any way; his consent is therefore in such cases a simple formality. If, however, there is a deficit, or if no adequate appropriation has been made for the obligatory expenses, the governor may intervene. The same holds true of the so-called supplementary credits, where intervention by the governor is also permissible. \* \* \*

#### THE COLONIAL EXPENDITURES.

"The most marked characteristic of colonial expenditures is their division into obligatory and optional expenditures. This division was clearly brought out by the law of 1866, which fixed the obligatory expenses for the three old colonies of Martinique, Guadeloupe, and Réunion. The law declared the obligatory payments to be eleven in number: First, the payment of the debt; second, the maintenance of the government buildings and of the assistants connected with the governor's residence; third, the maintenance of the buildings for judicial and religious purposes; fourth, the rent and maintenance of the governor's private residence; fifth, the building and clerks of the governor's secretary; sixth, a part of the maintenance of and salaries for public instruction, police, insane, and poor children; seventh, the housing of the policemen; eighth, the return of immigrants; ninth, the cost of the publication of finance accounts; tenth, the contingent imposed upon the colony; eleventh, certain unforeseen expenses. The laws of 1882 and 1885 extended this list to most of the other colonies. As we have already intimated, however, the obligatory expenses in the case of Cochin China are considerably more numerous. All the colonies are obliged to provide for these obligatory expenditures in their budgets, and where they amount to a large sum, as in Cochin China, the discontent is very marked.

"In contradistinction to the obligatory expenditures are the optional and extraordinary expenditures, which may be fixed at will by each colony separately.

## HOW THE COLONIAL REVENUES ARE RAISED.

"The colonial revenues are derived from four sources: First, taxation proper; second, tariff duties (which in France are put in a class by themselves); third, income from colonial property; and fourth, subventions from the home Government.

## SYSTEM OF TAXATION BASED ON THAT OF THE MOTHER COUNTRY.

"The system of taxation is supposed to be based largely on that of the mother country. Indeed, the colonial tax systems resemble those of the mother country primarily in the fact that by far the greater part of the revenue comes from indirect taxation. But, so far as direct taxes are concerned, the colonies differ in many respects, not only from the mother country, but also from each other. This is due, of course, to the influence of local conditions and of the varying degrees of economic and social development. Common to almost all the colonies is the poll tax, the business tax, the export and import duties, the tax on spirituous liquors, and the stamp tax.

"The direct taxes of the mother country, as is well known, are of four kinds. They comprise the land tax, the 'personal and movables' tax (being a combination of a poll tax with a tax on rentals), the door and window tax, and the business tax. Of these four taxes, that on doors and windows is entirely lacking in the colonies; the personal and movables tax has generally shrunk to a poll tax, while the land tax and the business taxes are assessed on very different principles from those observed at home. The land tax is found, with exceptions, in most of the colonies, but in several it applies only to land on which houses are built, thus becoming virtually a house tax. On the other hand, even where the land tax proper exists, it is not levied, as in France, on the annual revenue, but, as in all primitive land taxes, it is assessed on the area or gross produce. In some cases it even takes the shape of a definite rate on different classes of land. In Tunis and Algiers, moreover, the original Arab land taxes are still in force, and in Algiers no real estate tax at all is levied on Frenchmen. In but one case, that of Réunion, is the tax assessed on property value, and even there it is applied only to houses, the rate being thirty-five one hundredths of 1 per cent. In the Antilles sugar lands are exempt from the land tax, which is there replaced by an export duty on sugar. A similar principle applies to salt lands in New Caledonia, India, and Cochin China.

"Of more fiscal importance than the land tax is the poll tax which, as is well known, has all but disappeared in most modern countries. The poll tax is not found in the Antilles, in the newer African possessions, or in Guinea. In most of these it has been replaced by a tax on rentals. But in the older African and more especially the newer Asiatic possessions the poll tax still forms an important part of the revenue.

"The business tax is modeled quite largely upon the French 'patente,' which at home is composed of a so-called 'droit fixe' and a 'droit proportionnel.' In the colonies, however, it is generally either the one or the other. Practically it is a kind of business license. It is found in almost all of the colonies, although it is not of significance in the so-called old colonies. In addition to these direct taxes, we find almost everywhere the so-called tax for the 'verification of weights and measures,' which is in reality nothing but a fee, and which has been rendered necessary by the extension of the decimal system to the colonies. While the poll, land, and business taxes are common to many of the colonies, we also find a few isolated taxes, which are levied only in a single colony, or at most in two or three colonies. Such are the carriage tax in Réunion and India; the boat tax in Cochin China, Anam, and Tonkin; the tax on mine rents in Guinea, and especially in New Caledonia; and finally a kind of income tax from intangible personalty in Martinique and Guadeloupe. This latter tax is, however, for local purposes only.

"In treating of the direct taxes, a word must be said finally about Algiers. Although Algiers, as has already been stated, is treated to a certain extent as a part of France itself, in dealing with fiscal as well as with general administrative principles, a line is drawn between the French citizens proper and the bulk of the native Arab population. In the case of the native population with its entirely different social and economical basis, the revenue system is, as might be expected, completely different. The so-called Arabian taxes to which the native population is still subject are four in number: the hockor, the achour, the zekkat, and the lezma. The hockor is a tax on the lands still held in common, for in Algiers, as in all primitive countries, private property in land is an institution of slow growth. The achour is a tax on the gross produce based mainly on the number of plows. It is still largely paid in kind. The zekkat is a tax on the cattle owned by the nomadic population, while the lezma is in some cases a tax on palm trees and in others a graduated poll tax. In Tunis also the native taxes are still levied.

## INDIRECT TAXES THE IMPORTANT FEATURE OF THE SYSTEM.

"Of greater fiscal significance than the direct taxes are the indirect taxes. Here, as in France, the stamp duties play a great rôle. They are found everywhere except in St. Pierre, and include a large variety of transactions. A still greater revenue is afforded by the tax on spirituous liquors, which is levied in almost every colony. Tobacco is not a state monopoly as in France, but is subject to an excise duty in a number of the colonies. In addition to these imposts we find isolated taxes on oil, on fats, on matches, and on playing cards. Indirect taxes on commodities that do not exist in France are the following: On salt fish in Guadeloupe, on native gold in Guinea, on india rubber in Senegal, on rice in Cochin China, on petroleum in St. Pierre, on dynamite in Senegal. Opium forms a colonial monopoly in Cochin China and in Oceania, and is taxed in Guinea and New Caledonia. Salt is everywhere exempt from taxation except in French India, where it forms a colonial monopoly.

## TARIFF DUTIES.

"Scarcely less important than the taxes on liquors and tobacco are the tariff duties. These are levied on both imports and exports, and, as has been stated above, are now fixed by the home Government, not by the colonies themselves. The export duties are ordinarily confined to a few important articles. Thus in Martinique we find export duties on sugar and molasses; in Réunion, on the so-called colonial goods (sugar, spices, etc.); in Cochin China, on rice; in Oceania, on mother-of-pearl. The import duties are in general those of the French tariff itself, with a few concessions in the interests of the colonies. In several cases particular commodities are absolutely prohibited in order to protect colonial products. This is true of sugar in Martinique and Indo-China, of rum and molasses in Réunion, and of opium in Indo-China and Mayotte.

## THE COLONIES MAY RECOMMEND BUT NOT MAKE THE TARIFF.

"Although the home Government is invested with the duty of fixing the tariff for all the colonies, the colonial councils have the right of pointing out to the home Government the modifications which are desirable for each special colony. A few such changes have been made, chiefly in the direction of lower duties or complete exemption; but the deviations from the general French tariff are insignificant. There are only two colonies without tariff duties, namely, Obock and the towns of French India.

"In addition to the general tariff duties tonnage, navigation, and harbor dues are to be found in almost every colony.

"The purely local and municipal expenses are defrayed to a large extent by the octroi de mer. This is a tax on all kinds of commodities, especially articles of food coming by water. It takes the place of the local octroi in the mother country. The octroi de mer, however, can not be fixed independently by the colonies. They have indeed the right of formulating the tentative scheme, but their decision must obtain the approval of the council of state in Paris, not only as to the tax itself, but also in respect to the methods of administration.

"Of the remaining revenues, in addition to those derived from taxation and tariff duties, the third class comprises the income from colonial property. The most important element in this is the revenue from the postal and telegraph system, which is everywhere a government monopoly. The fourth and final category of colonial revenues is composed of the conventions or subsidies from the home Government which have been considered above.

#### CONCLUSION.

"From this slight summary it will be seen that the French Government wavers between two lines of policy. On the one hand, the movement toward local autonomy has granted the colonies substantial rights of fixing their own sources of revenue and expenditure in accordance with the dictates of local expediency. On the other hand, the movement toward centralization or so-called assimilation has taken away from the colonies the privilege of levying their own tariffs, and has imposed upon many of the dependencies a system of taxation more suitable to the interests of the mother country than to those of the colonies themselves; has declared certain of the colonial expenditures obligatory; and, finally, has complicated the relations between the colonies and the home Government by a series of subventions on the one hand and of contingents and contributions on the other. The most recent and enlightened colonial administrators themselves plead not only for a simplification of the relations between the colonies and the home Government, but also for a larger share of independence and initiative on the part of the colonies themselves."

### EXPENSES OF FRANCE FOR THE COLONIES IN 1898.

#### I. EXPENSES OF SOVEREIGNTY AND SUBVENTIONS.

##### GENERAL EXPENDITURES.

	Francs.
Salaries of the minister employees of the central administration .....	695,000
Office expense of the central administration.....	137,000
Expense of printing, publication of documents, and subscriptions .....	108,000
Expenses of telegraphic communications .....	102,000
Central bureau of markets .....	120,000
Cost of maintenance of colonial service at the ports of entry in France .....	162,500
Inspection of the colonies.....	311,000
Aids (secours) and subventions .....	44,500
Subventions to different countries for submarine-cable service.....	707,500

##### CIVIL EXPENDITURES.

Salaries of the civil service.....	489,561
Salaries of the judiciary .....	1,470,000
Religious establishments (personnel des cultes) .....	602,000
Salaries of department of public works .....	53,000
Office expense, civil service .....	17,103
Traveling expenses by land and sea and accessories.....	325,000
Permanent exposition of the colonies and commercial information; geographic service.....	43,400
Participation in the Universal Exposition of 1900.....	2,000
Missions in the colonies .....	210,000
Colonial fellowships (Bourses coloniales) .....	28,000
Colonial education (Études coloniales) .....	10,000
Emigration of workingmen to the colonies .....	75,000
Fourth annual installment of the fourteen installments to agricultural establishments founded by French settlers.....	360,000
Subvention to the local budget of French Kongo .....	2,353,000
Subvention to the local budget of Madagascar .....	1,800,000
Subvention to the local service of certain colonies .....	765,307
Subvention to the railway and ports expenditures of Réunion .....	2,508,500
Subvention to the railways expenditures of the French Soudan .....	768,000
Railway from Dakar to St. Louis .....	1,270,000

##### MILITARY EXPENDITURES.

Colonial troops and technical committee .....	5,799,372
Colonial police .....	1,630,000
Colonial commissariat .....	871,500
Maritime registry (inscription maritime) .....	60,000
Colonial auditing .....	346,000
Sanitary service (salaries) .....	1,092,000
Sanitary service (office expenses and material) .....	1,474,000
Subsistence and forage .....	3,310,000

	Francs.
Traveling expenses, by land and sea, and accessory expenses .....	1,400,000
Barrack, camp furniture, and bedding .....	274,000
Material for the military .....	1,444,000
Colonial defense .....	1,200,000
Cost of occupation of the French Soudan .....	6,180,000
Route from Konakry to the Niger .....	100,000
Military and naval expenses in Anam and Tonkin .....	23,250,000
Military expenses in Madagascar .....	18,276,000

## PENAL SERVICE.

Administration salaries .....	2,649,500
Administration (hospitals, subsistence, clothing, and bedding) .....	4,129,900
Administration (transportation) .....	1,170,000
Administration (materials) .....	1,439,900
<b>Total</b> .....	<b>91,633,530</b>

## II. SHIPPING AND CABLE SUBSIDIES.

Subvention to New York and West Indian steamship lines, premium for speed .....	11,258,000
Subvention to the Indo-China and Japan lines .....	6,083,688
Subvention to the Australia and New Caledonia lines .....	3,108,936
Subvention to the East African steamship line .....	1,925,640
Subvention to the West African steamship line .....	500,000
Subvention to the franchised cable company connecting St. Louis in Sénégal and the possessions on the Rio Nunez, Grand Bassam, Porto Novo, and Gabon .....	300,000
Subvention to the franchised cable company connecting France with America and the West Indies .....	400,000
<b>Total</b> .....	<b>23,576,264</b>

## THE COLONIAL CONTRIBUTION IN 1896.

	Francs.		Francs.
Cochin-China .....	4,442	Madagascar .....	9,570
Anam-Tonkin .....	109,000	St. Pierre and Miquelon .....	7,992
Martinique .....	65,032	Mayotte .....	2,410
Guadeloupe .....	71,030	Comores .....	2,410
Réunion .....	67,076	Tahiti .....	11,821
Guyane .....	32,435	New Caledonia .....	33,619
Senegal .....	16,805	India .....	25,780
Sudan .....	3,000	Somali coast .....	300
Guinea .....	3,600	Cambodia .....	2,000
Ivory coast .....	3,600		
Dahomey .....	3,600	<b>Total</b> .....	<b>469,472</b>
Kongo .....	4,530		

## COLONIAL RECEIPTS.

[Forming a part of the French budget in 1896.]

	Francs.
Contingents and contributions .....	5,838,972
Revenue of India .....	668,800
Retained for civil pensions .....	859,400
Different receipts .....	966,400
<b>Total</b> .....	<b>8,333,572</b>

## GERMAN COLONIAL FISCAL SYSTEM.

The statement which follows is from a paper on the "German Colonial Fiscal System in the Far East," prepared by Mr. Isadore Loeb, and published as a part of a series issued by the American Economic Association in August, 1900, under the title of "Essays in Colonial Finance."

"The German colonies are of comparatively recent origin. Until the last quarter of the present century the Germans were not in a position to pursue a colonial policy. Lack of internal unity was a bar to the realization of this as well as of other international movements. \* \* \*

## HISTORICAL.

"The action of the German Government was hastened by the fact that the African continent was being taken possession of by the other European powers. Germany took an active part in bringing about the Berlin conference of 1884, which resulted in the Kongo act of 1885. This act established the principle of free trade in the valley of the Kongo, and defined the conditions which must exist in order to render valid the future seizures of unoccupied territory in Africa.

"A negative policy was not sufficient. An active propaganda in favor of the acquisition of colonies was being carried on by individuals and associations in Germany. Before the meeting of the Berlin conference the German Government had commenced to acquire colonies by taking possession of districts through its officials or by granting the protection of the Empire to individuals or associations which had acquired interests in certain territory. By the close of 1885 the following districts had been acquired: Togo, Cameroon, German Southwest Africa, German East Africa, Kaiser Wilhelms land (New Guinea), Bismarck Archipelago, and the Marshall Islands, including the Brown and Providence islands. In November, 1897, the German Admiral von Diederichs took possession of Kiauchou Bay in the Chinese province of Shantung. In the resulting treaty of March 6, 1898, China ceded to Germany for a period of ninety-nine years the exercise of all rights of sovereignty in the treaty district. In February of 1899 an agreement was made with Spain for the purchase of the remaining Spanish islands in the Pacific. By the treaty of June 30, 1899, Spain ceded to the German Empire the complete sovereignty over the Caroline Islands and the Palau and Marianne Islands. \* \* \*

#### TRADING COMPANIES UTILIZED TEMPORARILY.

"It was not the purpose of the Imperial Government to take over the immediate administration of the colonies. In some of the districts private corporations had concluded agreements with the native rulers, by virtue of which the latter ceded rights of jurisdiction as well as economic privileges. The policy of the German Government was to avoid the development of an expensive machinery of colonial administration by placing the rights and obligations of government in the hands of trading companies which had acquired economic privileges in the territory. This policy was carried out in German East Africa, and in a district including Kaiser Wilhelms Land, Bismarck Archipelago, and the Solomon Islands. In each district a charter (Schutzbrief) was given to a colonial company, granting or confirming its right to extensive economic privileges and to the exercise of governmental powers with such district. In the Marshall Islands a similar principle was followed; but in this case the administration was to be conducted by imperial officials, the costs of such administration being borne by the company (Jaluitgesellschaft).

"The Government was unable to extend this programme to other districts. The companies which were engaged in undertakings in the other colonies were not organized for the exercise of such functions, and were unwilling to assume such grants of power with the resulting obligations. The companies which had received the charters had not solicited the grant of governmental functions, and were anxious to be relieved therefrom. In 1890 the German East African Company concluded an agreement with the Imperial Government, by virtue of which it renounced all of its governmental rights. Attempts to bring about the same result in the territory governed by the New Guinea Company had failed. The Diet was unwilling to assume the expenses of government while the company retained its extensive economic privileges. Recently, however, a satisfactory agreement was concluded, and on April 1, 1899, the government of the district was taken over by the imperial authorities. Thus all of the colonies became subject to the immediate control of the German Government. \* \* \*

#### THE COLONIAL SYSTEM DESCRIBED.

"The imperial chancellor, as the personal and responsible representative of the Emperor, stands at the head of the colonial administration. The entire administrative organization for the colonies has been created by ordinances of the Emperor, the chancellor, and the colonial officials. The colonial department, consisting of a director and a number of councilors and assistants, has supervision and control of the entire colonial administration. It is a division of the foreign office, but is immediately responsible to the chancellor in all matters affecting the internal administration of the colonies. In matters affecting foreign relations the department is subject to the foreign office. There also exists a colonial council, the members of which are appointed by the chancellor from those who are exceptionally qualified for the consideration of colonial matters. The colonial council considers measures affecting the administration of the colonies and gives opinions upon questions and policies that are submitted to it. It passes upon the draft budget of the colonies.

"The administrative organization in the individual colonies varies with the development of the colony. In each of the colonies a governor is placed at the head of the administration. The governor is provided with officials for the judicial, financial, and general administration. A colonial military force exists in nearly all of the colonies. Where the colony has been divided into districts an official is placed at the head of the local administration, and the same is true of the municipal organizations.

"The governor in each of the colonies, and in German East Africa the chief justice and the chief of the financial administration, receives an imperial commission. The other officials are commissioned by the chancellor in the name of the Emperor. The chancellor may delegate this function to the governor so far as it applies to subordinate officials. Natives assist in the local administration, and a large item in each budget is for the payment of the services of colored employees.

"No particular provisions exist respecting the training or preparation of colonial officials. The policy of the administration has been to take officials from the home departments, which insures the necessary technical training. For colonial officials this is not sufficient. It is in the highest degree essential that they should possess a knowledge of the language and characteristics of the natives with whom they will have to do. A knowledge of the special geographical features, including climatic conditions, will materially promote their capacity for successful administration. While the Government has not adopted compulsory provisions, it has provided ample means to enable persons to acquire such information and preparation. The Oriental Seminar, which was established by the Prussian Government in 1887 and is connected with the University in Berlin, offers exceptional facilities for instruction in the languages of oriental nations and the native languages of the German colonies. In the winter-semester, 1899-1900, sixty-one courses were offered, embracing fifteen languages. Instruction is also given in tropical hygiene, geography of the African colonies, and economic botany of the Tropics. Persons preparing for the colonial service have taken advantage of these opportunities, and it may be expected that in the course of time colonial officials will be required to have such preparation. \* \* \*

"The ordinances affecting the internal administration of the colony are in general issued by the governor of the colony, though subordinate officials have the right to issue police regulations. This ordinance power has been utilized by the governors in matters affecting the public peace, health, and the economic development of the colonies. The use and acquisition of public or unoccupied lands, mines, forests, etc., and the carrying on of certain occupations, trades, and industries are subject to particular regulations.

"Of particular interest have been the ordinances affecting the native population. In some cases, where agreements were made with native chiefs, the jurisdiction over the natives was reserved to such leaders. Even where this is not the case the policy of the Government has been to respect the customs of the natives and to subject them very gradually to the operation of the laws regulating the legal relations of the white population. Native chiefs are utilized in the administration of affairs affecting the natives. Moreover,



the Government has recognized the obligation of protecting the natives in their dealings with the more intelligent and the less scrupulous white persons. Considerations of public safety as well as the interests of the natives have led to the prohibition or regulation of the sale of intoxicating liquors or of firearms to the natives. Particular rules are provided for the determination of contracts of sale, debt, pledge, etc., when a native is the party bound by the contract. Contracts for the employment of natives and for their transportation out of the colony are subject to governmental approval, and the latter are generally forbidden. Slave trading is prohibited. Slavery and polygamy are tolerated where the Government has undertaken to respect the customs of the natives, but the tendency is to eliminate both of these institutions. \* \* \*

## METHODS OF RAISING REVENUE.

"As previously indicated, the determination of the revenue so far as it arises from colonial sources, excluding loans, is within the control of the Emperor. It is, of course, possible for the imperial legislature to establish in the colonial budget a different income from that estimated, but this would take the form of the determination of a lump sum rather than the establishment or modification of a particular source of income. So long as the executive has the general power of colonial taxation, it is improbable that the legislature will undertake to determine the character or amount of the income.

"The inhabitants of the colony have no voice in the determination of the source or amount of the revenue. The governor determines such matters, subject to the power of the home authorities to overrule or modify his acts.

"No disposition is manifested to accord the citizens of the mother country any privileges in connection with the revenue system. So far as the Kongo act applies, such privileges would be subject to limitation. In certain colonies the citizens of foreign states have by treaty the right to the enjoyment of the same privileges as are accorded to German citizens. Certain colonial companies were granted extensive economic privileges as a return for the assumption of the costs and burdens of administration as well as the exploration and development of the colony. In so far as these privileges still exist they are limited to the right to take possession of unoccupied land, to mining and fishing privileges, etc. \* \* \*

"The colonial revenue may be divided into two classes, according to the sources from which it is derived: (1) Revenue derived from colonial sources; (2) subventions from the mother country.

"1. *Revenue derived from colonial sources.*—Colonial sources of revenue may be classified: (a) Taxation; (b) fees; (c) public property.

"(a) *Taxation.* (1) Direct taxes: Direct taxes have not constituted an important source of income; but there is a tendency to extend this species of taxation. The business or occupation tax was introduced at an early date in some of the colonies and has been gradually extended with the progress of economic development until it exists in nearly all of them. \* \* \*

"The house tax has also been recently introduced in German East Africa. For the purposes of the tax, houses are divided into two general classes: I. Houses built according to European, Hindu, or Arabian models; II. Houses and huts built according to native customs.

"Each of these classes is subdivided into (a) Urban houses and (b) Houses in the country."

The annual tax rate is as follows: Class I (a) 5 per cent of the rental value, not to exceed 100 R.; Class I (b) 3 grades, 10 R., 20 R., 30 R.; Class II (a) 2 grades, 6 R., 12 R., Class II, (b) 3 R.

"An interesting feature is that in Class II payment of the taxes may be made 'in natura.' As such are recognized the fruit of certain nut-bearing trees and labor. In the interior grain furnished the overland caravans may also be rendered in payment of the tax. \* \* \*

"(2) Indirect taxes: Customs form the chief source of revenue from taxation. In German East Africa, Southwest Africa, and New Guinea both export and import duties exist, while in Cameroon and Togo only the latter are imposed. The rates are in general determined by revenue considerations alone. The ad valorem duties range from 1½ to 20 per cent. Specific duties are used to some extent in all of the colonies and are the rule in New Guinea, where the duties are limited, applying only to imports of liquors and exports of copra."

## SPANISH COLONIAL FISCAL SYSTEM.

The statement which follows is from a paper on the Spanish Colonial Policy, prepared by Prof. Frank W. Blackmar, and published as a part of a series issued by the American Economic Association in August, 1900, under the title of "Essays in Colonial Finance:"

" \* \* \* It is easy to infer what the colonial financial system of Spain must have been under the conditions of government like those that have been pictured. That the colonies existed for exploitation by the home Government may not have been fully acknowledged, but was practically carried out by the methods in vogue.

## COLONIES MANAGED AS PART OF THE REALM.

"The colonies were managed as a part of the realm, and the national Government was responsible for their expenditures even as a father is responsible for his minor children. It was but natural that all incomes arising out of the colonies, or in any way accruing on account of them, should flow directly into the Spanish treasury. The small show of local government demanded little expense, and few taxes were collected and expended on local authority. The tax on the imported goods went on increasing from year to year, in accordance with the needs of the home Government. This tax on exports and imports fell heavily, both on the proprietors and the Indians. In the seventeenth century Spain demanded duties on playing cards, alum, copper, hides, quicksilver, gunpowder, ice, and salt. In addition to this were the duties on silver and gold and pulque—a drink used by the natives. The Bull for the crusade was collected every two years of every inhabitant. The *acabala*, or the tax on the sale of effects, was 5 per cent, and later increased to 14. The duty on the exportation and importation of merchandise (*alcabala*) averaged about 15 per cent. The tax for the convoy of ships averaged about 2 per cent of the value of the freight payable by the importer.

## THE KING AND THE CHURCH.

But taxation did not stop here, for the tax on the right to coin money flowed into the King's coffers along with one-fifth of the income of mines, which was later reduced to one-tenth. Also with these went one-half of the ecclesiastical annates and the King's ninth collected from the bishoprics. Nor did the Indians escape on account of their social differences, for each one paid 32 silver reals

each year besides 4 for the King's service. But this did not include the entire category, for the church came in for the local taxes. The above mentioned were for the King and his Government, but the clergy took what was left in parish rates, tithes, and other forms of taxes, by means of which the churches amassed enormous wealth in Spanish America. So great was this later drain that it alone took enough of the wealth from the country for nonproductive purposes to prohibit any normal business arising from the rest of the free capital of the country. In brief, the financial policy of Spain in the sixteenth century was for the Government to tax everything to its fullest extent, and the revenue thus raised was to be exploited by its officers from the King down to the alcalde of the town. Whatever of income left was then taken by the church. Thus the colonists paid practically all they had, and the national Government continued to lose its territory, go in debt, and multiply the number of officials and grantees with interminable titles.

#### MANY CHANGES IN METHODS.

"The Spanish Government made various changes in constitution and laws from time to time, and yet the relation of the mother country to the colonists changed little as respects liberality of trade, commerce, taxation, and officialism. Whatever of improvement took place in the fiscal system of the home Government was eventually tried in the colonies, as they were considered provinces of the Kingdom, or, in fact, parts of the Empire of Spain. It was not until the beginning of the present century, under the influence of the constitution, that the old laws which originated with the Romans and built up through Teutonic and Arabic influences began to decline, and a new scientific classification of the laws began to appear. Nearly a century has been devoted to the organization of the laws and the establishment of a system of a constitutional government in Spain, many of these attempts only increasing the confusion, owing chiefly to two facts—one, that in legislation the reorganizers were not clear and positive in repealing the old laws, and, second, that the conservatism of the Spanish people made them slow to adopt new methods of procedure. Without referring specifically to the development of the Spanish codes, it may be said that after the adoption of the constitution of 1811 frequent revision of codes have taken place until the final revision in 1888. The present civil code was extended to the Philippines, Cuba, and Porto Rico in 1889. The present constitution of Spain was adopted in 1876 and extended to the colonial provinces in 1881. In this organic law provision is made for the government of the colonial provinces by stating that they 'shall be governed by special laws, but the government is authorized to apply to them, with the modifications it may deem advisable, and informing the Cortes thereof, the laws enacted, or which may hereafter be enacted, for the peninsula.' In fact, the Spanish civil, criminal, and commercial codes are the codes in use in the colonial provinces without practical change. Various differences exist in regard to the application of common and statute laws, but these differences are greater in some of the provinces of the peninsula than in the insular provinces. The constitution provided for the representation of Cuba and Porto Rico in the Cortes 'in the manner determined by special law, which may be different for each of the two provinces.' This representation was resumed in 1878 after an interval. The central Government also determined 'when and in what manner the representatives to the Cortes from the island of Cuba should be elected.'

"The constitution provides further for 'provincial deputations and municipal councils.' The law of Spain determines the manner of election of these, but both municipal councils and provincial deputations of each province or town 'shall be governed by their respective laws.'

#### INSULAR GOVERNMENT OVERSHADOWED BY THAT OF SPAIN.

"This appears like a fair promise of local self-government; but, in fact, the government of the peninsula so overshadowed the insular government that in reality it was the government of the provinces. \* \* \*

"No greater subterfuge was ever attempted in politics than the decree of autonomy respecting Cuba by the home Government. Subsequent events have rendered it unnecessary to place any importance on the document except to show that the government of Cuba was practically an extension of the Government of Spain. While, indeed, there is a distinct colonial budget, under the supervision of the minister of the colonies, the procedure in the colonies is always after the plan of the peninsular government and in reference to its needs.

#### SPANISH FINANCIAL SYSTEM EXPLAINED.

"It is, therefore, best to refer briefly to the Spanish financial system as a preparation to a clear understanding of the fiscal system of the colonial provinces. The constitution of Spain provides (Title XI, article 85) that 'every year the Government shall submit to the Cortes a general budget of the expenses of the State for the following year, and the plan of ways and means to cover the same, as well as the accounts of the accounting and application of the public funds, for their examination and approval.' The law provides that this budget shall be made up not by the ministry as a body, but by each minister making an estimate of the annual expenses of his department, which goes finally before the council of ministers for discussion. It is also necessary to propose plans for raising the revenue to meet the expenses before the budget is completed and referred to the Cortes.

"The budget of expenditures is divided into two parts: First, the general obligations of State, and second, the obligations of the departments of ministers. The first part is again subdivided into expenditures of (1) the royal household, (2) legislative bodies, (3) public debt, (4) charges of justice and indemnities, and (5) annuities and pensions. The second part is divided into (1) presidency of the council of ministers, (2) foreign affairs, (3) war, (4) marine, (5) justice, (6) interior, (7) public works, (8) finance, (9) expense of collecting taxes, and (10) the colony of Fernando Po.

The budget of receipts represents six chief resources of income, as follows: (1) Taxes, (2) imposts, (3) customs, (4) Government monopolies, (5) properties and rights belonging to the State, and (6) the public treasury. Each item of the budget is discussed in both houses of the Cortes before an agreement is reached.

"In order to provide revenue to meet the necessary expenditure an elaborate system of taxation prevails, as outlined in the six main heads above. Taxes are laid upon real estate and agriculture, industry and commerce, and the transmission of property, upon consumption, salaries of Government officials, railway tickets and transportation, and certificates of fidelity, tax upon imports, exports, loading and unloading ships, travelers, quarantine dues, and colonial produce; on commercial paper and stamped goods, tobacco, salt, lotteries, etc. Besides this the revenues are increased by income from the State tobacco monopoly, the rental of quicksilver mines and other State property, the payment for exemption from military services, and from the mint and post-office. These are the principal

sources of revenue, but there are other items, such as money left to be expended for the repose of the soul, on which there is a tax of 12 per cent. It is interesting to note that the tax on industries varies according to the locality, the population being a great item in determining this and the nature of the occupation. According to a mediaeval custom the taxpayers arrange themselves into companies according to their occupation and determine the proportionate amount of the total to be raised in a given district by a given occupation by each individual. That is, the guild or gremio is made responsible for the total amount at so much per capita. A guild may assess a number not more than eight times as much, or one-eighth as much as the average per capita rate. This custom of holding guilds or groups of people of a given occupation responsible for a certain amount of revenue is practiced in the colonial provinces in a more or less systematic manner.

#### THE BUDGET OF THE COLONIAL PROVINCES.

"The system of raising revenue in the colonial provinces is similar, almost identical, with that of the Peninsula. The sources of revenue are about the same and the method of assessment and collection of taxes vary but little from those of the Peninsula. The expenditures are along the same general lines and with the exceptions of the colonial government they run about the same. The budget is made up in the colony and is sent to the home Government for approval. The system of taxation is very oppressive on account of the shifting of the excessive export, import, consumption, and business taxes and the evasion of many of the direct taxes by those who have the opportunity. Part of the income goes to Spain for the support of the colonial ministry, and a part to the departments of the army and navy and other important expenditures of the General Government. Thus, the estimates in Cuba for the fiscal year 1888-89 were 26,356,731.41 pesos.<sup>1</sup> Of this amount 22,500,808.59 pesos represented the sovereignty expenses, and the balance of 3,855,922.82 pesos was for local government. There is an insular treasury into which revenues flow, and only a part of this amount is sent to the treasury of Spain. The rest is spent in Cuba carrying on that part of the government which is under the direction of the Spanish Government. It includes expenditures for—

	Pesos.
(1) Interest on the public debt and general expenditures .....	12,574,709.12
(2) Justice and religion .....	329,072.63
(3) Expenditures for war .....	5,896,740.73
(4) Expenditures for navy .....	1,055,136.13
(5) Executive government .....	2,645,149.98
Total .....	22,500,808.59

"Of the balance of the budget the local government estimates are for the following purposes:

	Pesos.
(1) General expenses .....	159,605.50
(2) Justice and religion, charities, and corrections .....	1,612,850.44
(3) Treasury .....	708,987.51
(4) Public instruction .....	247,033.02
(5) Public works and communication .....	1,036,582.10
(6) Commerce, agriculture, and industry .....	108,178.52
Total .....	3,873,237.00

"Of the general expenditure for the local government of the island, the large part, 133,380 pesos, goes for the support of the colonial legislature. But the largest items of public expense are the low, ecclesiastical, and territorial courts and police, the collection of taxes, the management of the treasury, public works, etc. The sources of revenue to meet these expenditures were:

	Pesos.
Taxes and imposts, net.....	6,142,500.00
Custom-house receipts.....	14,705,000.00
Internal revenue, net.....	1,640,650.00
Lotteries .....	1,900,500.00
Income rent of State property.....	112,000.00
Income sales.....	323,000.00
Miscellaneous (claims, coinage, accounts).....	1,536,000.00

"The method of making out the budget in Porto Rico, as well as collecting and expending revenue, vary but little from the method in Cuba. The budget approved by the Cortes at Madrid, November 8, 1898, is as follows:

#### GENERAL BUDGET.

##### ESTIMATES OF EXPENDITURES.

	Pesos.
General obligations .....	* 498,501.60
Justice and religion .....	423,818.80
War .....	1,252,377.76
Treasury .....	260,800.00
Navy.....	222,668.20
General government, interior .....	878,175.83
Total.....	3,536,342.19

<sup>1</sup> The peso is equal to 60 cents.

\* Including expenses of colonial ministry.

"These expenditures were to be met in the following manner:

	Pesos.
Taxes and imposts .....	576,200.00
Custom-house receipts .....	3,132,900.00
State monopolies .....	184,200.00
Property of the State .....	9,300.00
Miscellaneous revenue .....	36,900.00
Total .....	3,939,500.00

#### BUDGET OF THE PROVINCIAL DEPUTATION.

EXPENDITURES.	Pesos.
Administration .....	71,860.00
Lottery .....	23,180.00
Beneficia .....	50,116.00
Miscellaneous .....	76,105.48
Post and telegraph .....	171,506.00
Sanitation .....	38,748.00
Public instruction .....	125,195.00
Public works .....	662,079.00
Colonization .....	3,910.00
Total .....	1,222,699.48

"A review of these budgets will show at once the nature of the fiscal system as to the methods of raising revenue and the expenditure of the same. It shows how great a factor the Government of Spain was in the colonial system.

"A careful examination of the affairs of Cuba and Porto Rico prior to the occupation of the United States reveals the fact that Spain had not abandoned her ancient methods, and had not departed from the principles and practice of a colonial policy presented in the first part of this paper. The governor-general, an emanation for the Spanish Crown, had a large appointive power, which he used to the fullest extent.

"The provincial and municipal governments had some privileges, but they were not practiced. The municipalities, including towns and the surrounding country, had the privilege of electing a mayor and council through the vote of the people. But as the population of the towns was in excess, the councilmen and mayor always came from the town, where the Spanish element was in control, so that native Spaniards nearly always held the power. More than this, the governor-general nearly always appointed all of the municipal employees and alcaldes. The law provided that the council should choose these if the governor-general did not wish to do so. The municipal government, which made a show of local government, could do but little without the consent of the central government, which was immediately subversive to Spanish rule. While it was provided that the council would regulate hospitals, jails, and police, among other municipal duties, it must all be referred to the governor-general for his approval. While the council and mayor must make up the budget, containing estimates of receipts and expenditures, it must be referred to the insular government and incorporated into the annual budget of the island, which must be referred to the Cortes of Spain for its approval.

"In the provincial government the same conditions existed so far as the power of the governor-general was concerned. He appointed nearly all of the officers and removed them at his will. It is true that the legal voters could elect members of the provincial deputations; also the deputies representing Cuba in the Cortes at Madrid. An excessive poll tax of \$25 reduced the representative voters to 53,000 at one time, and reduced the representatives of Cuba to 3 members out of a total of 430 at Madrid. The whole tendency was to make the representation of the insular governments in the Cortes of the Peninsula merely formal and valueless. One-half of the senators sent to the upper house of the Cortes were appointed by the Crown, the other half were elected by the voters of Cuba."

#### FINANCIAL METHODS IN THE BRITISH WEST INDIES.

The statement which follows is from a paper on finances in the British West Indies, prepared by Prof. Chas. H. Hull, and published as a part of a series, issued by the American Economic Association, August, 1900, under the title of *Essays on Colonial Finance*:

"At present the British West Indies, together with British Guiana, present the most serious problem in colonial finance with which the Government of the Empire has to deal. Not even the fiscal difficulties of India are more perplexing or more urgent. The smaller islands have, as a rule, large debts and chronic deficits, while it is impossible—so the secretary of state for the colonies asserts—either to cut down their expenditures without abandoning necessary medical and educational services, or to raise their rates of taxation without decreasing their receipts. Either imperial relief must be afforded or the colonies must be allowed 'to fall into anarchy.' Such is the financial difficulty. Underlying it is an industrial difficulty—the decline of West India sugar. As to the causes of that decline, there may be dispute, but there is none as to the fact. \* \* \*

"The agricultural population of these colonies consists mostly of blacks and colored persons. The climate and soil and their standard of living are such that they seldom find themselves in pressing want of food beyond what a small 'provision ground' spontaneously supplies, or of shelter beyond what a simple hut will afford. Even their clothing is inexpensive, and as they generally exhibit considerable improvidence they do not long retain such small amounts of money as they have occasion to handle. It is, therefore, only with extreme difficulty that direct taxes can be collected from them. For example, in the year 1897-98 there were issued in Jamaica no less than 32,951 warrants for the seizure and sale of property in satisfaction of defaulted taxes, though the total receipts from the direct tax on houses and lands were only £82,183 out of aggregate public revenues of £681,043. Under such circumstances it is not surprising to find that the customs duties are supplemented almost exclusively by indirect forms of taxation, such as rum excise, business licenses, and stamps.

#### REVENUE METHODS IN JAMAICA AS AN EXAMPLE OF THE WEST INDIA SYSTEM.

"A nearer view of the fiscal system of these colonies is best based, perhaps, upon a somewhat detailed account of one of them. For that purpose I have chosen Jamaica, the largest and richest of them all, and the colony possessing the most varied agriculture. It is in

consequence less dependent upon sugar than the other islands or British Guiana, and has suffered less by the fall in that commodity ensuing upon the increase of the beet-sugar bounties in 1896. After describing the finances of Jamaica I shall add a few words comparing the other colonies with it, and pointing out the reasons why they make an even stronger claim for Imperial relief.

"The colony of Jamaica, exclusive of its dependencies, contained, at the census of 1891, 639,491 inhabitants upon a small area of 4,207 square miles. It is thus somewhat smaller than Connecticut, by which it is slightly exceeded in population, and a trifle larger than Porto Rico, which has nearly 50 per cent more people. Jamaica is by much the most important of the British West Indies, exceeding in area all the British islands lying to the south of it, and almost equalling them all in population. Less than 15,000 of the inhabitants are whites. After the disturbance of 1865 Jamaica was brought under Crown Government and many reforms were effected. Schools were established, the judiciary reorganized, and those medical and sanitary services were devised to which the island owes its present exceptionally low death rate among the West Indies.

#### HEAVY EXPENDITURES FOR LOCAL IMPROVEMENTS.

"After 1884, when the legislative council was given control of the finances, improvements were carried on with a lavish hand. In March, 1889, there were 790 miles of main roads under the department of public works. In December, 1897, there were 1,879 miles. Meanwhile the parochial roads had extended from 2,300 to over 4,000 miles. The governor and council seem to have shared the delusion that there was no bottom to the public pocket. Hotels were subsidized by a guaranty of 3 per cent on their cost, which aggregated £48,000. In 1889 a contract was made virtually guaranteeing 3½ per cent on a million and a half sterling of bonds of the Jamaica Railway Company, issued to pay for unprofitable extensions. In addition, £700,000 was borrowed for unproductive public works.

"For a time the revenues almost kept pace with the expenditures. The fruit trade in particular was expanding, and exports increased from £1,280,000 in 1885-86 to £1,983,000 in 1893-94. Such prosperity caused large imports, and customs grew from £247,745 to £320,978, excise from £80,455 to £127,479, total receipts from £557,309 to £746,068. In 1894 the reaction set in. Trade languished and revenues fell off. Customs declined to £282,751 in 1897-98, excise to £104,961, total receipts to £628,481. Expenditures exceeded revenues by £186,182. The railway company failed to earn its interest, and in 1890-1900 the colony will have to add to its expenditures almost £40,000 on account of its guaranty. Under the circumstances it was natural that differences of opinion should rise both as to the proper line of retrenchment and as to the best means of increasing the revenue. The legislative council demanded an immediate revision of the civil list. The new governor, supported by the colonial office, stood upon the 'vested rights' of present officials, and the deadlock was resolved only by the unusual means of filling the council with nominees as already described. Thereupon Sir David Barbour, a member of the West Indies commission of the preceding year, was sent out to report upon the finances of the colony, and it is largely upon his report that the following account of them is based.

#### HOW THE FINANCES ARE MANAGED.

"The finances of Jamaica are in charge of a collector-general of customs, excise, and inland revenue, assisted by his staff, and by a collector of taxes and various assistant collectors in each parish. The parish collector of taxes is also parochial treasurer, and parish expenditures are met directly from the parish treasury, wherever local revenues suffice. But through the operation of the auditor's office all receipts and expenditures find their way into the colonial accounts. It would, therefore, be easy to get a comprehensive view of the expenditures were it not for certain peculiarities in the method of stating the accounts. At present receipts from certain taxes are paid into a general fund, out of which most expenditures are made. But there are other taxes whose yield is specially appropriated to designated purposes. \* \* \*

"Even when this is done there remain minor uncertainties and discrepancies, in part due, apparently, to the incompleteness of the published account, and part to the fact sometimes more and sometimes less than the whole yield of an appropriated tax in any year is spent within the year in question. It may be inferred that the balances in the special fund may vary from time to time, but I have not been able to get figures of those balances. \* \* \*

#### SOURCES OF REVENUE.

"The sources of Jamaica's revenue for 1897-98 are revealed by the following table, which gives the amounts in thousands of pounds and indicates the percentual importance of each sort of revenue:

SOURCES OF REVENUE.	Thousand pounds.	Per cent.
Customs .....	282.8	45.4
Excise .....	105.0	16.6
Stamps .....	18.0	2.8
Fees and fines .....	11.0	1.8
Tax in lieu of school fees .....	9.7	1.5
Post and telegraph .....	27.2	4.3
Savings bank .....	4.8	0.8
Miscellaneous .....	29.4	4.7
Total general revenue .....	487.9	77.9
Poor rate .....	38.7	6.2
Sanitary rate .....	7.6	1.2
Fire and gas rate .....	4.8	0.7
General parochial rate .....	4.5	0.6
Grade licenses and market dues .....	12.8	2.0
Main road revenues .....	27.0	4.3
Parochial roads (including the proceeds of the acreage and holdings taxes, the spirit licenses, and the horse and vehicle tax) .....	35.9	5.7
Miscellaneous .....	9.2	1.4
Total appropriated revenue .....	140.5	22.1
General revenue .....	487.9	77.9
Total revenue .....	628.5	100.0
Loans issued .....	214.8	
Total receipts .....	843.3	

## CUSTOMS REVENUE THE MAINSTAY OF JAMAICAN FINANCE.

"The customs duties are thus seen to be the mainstay of Jamaican finance. The tariff consists of specific duties on special goods and an ad valorem duty on all other imports except those enumerated in the free list. The general rate in 1897-98 was 12½ per cent. In the tariff for 1899-1900, passed in April, 1899, it was raised to 16½ per cent, and at the same time a number of articles were stricken from the free list. The more important specific duties are high, e. g., \$1.92 per barrel on flour; \$1 per hundredweight on bread and crackers; \$4 per hundredweight on hams and bacon, sausages, and butter. Sir David Barbour estimates that in 1897-98 the duties were equivalent to 19.8 per cent on salt fish; 22 per cent on bread, biscuits, and salted beef; 34 per cent on rice, and 36 per cent on wheat flour. He also prints, with apparent approval, a table of cost prices and of specific duties per hundredweight actually paid upon 'fourteen articles—foodstuffs and necessities of life—which the people in Jamaica can only get at a fair living price from the United States.' The average rate of duty is therein shown to be 54 per cent. If we leave out of account matches and kerosene which occupy an anomalous position, the rate for the rest is 32½ per cent, which is probably a more typical average. Put in another way, duties of £282,751 were collected in 1897-98 upon total imports valued at £1,674,380, or an average of about 17 per cent on all imports, including those on the free list.

## THE EXCISE DUTY.

"Next in importance to the import duties is the excise, consisting chiefly of the rum duty. By law 10 of 1875, as amended by law 8 of 1890, it is a tax of 6 pence per gallon upon all rum or other spirits distilled in the island and sold for consumption. The rum tax is very sensitive, falling off rapidly with a decline of general prosperity. The excise includes a cigar and cigarette tax which produced £4,500 in 1897-98. But this is so hard to collect, and is thought to interfere so seriously with a growing industry, that Sir David Barbour favored its abandonment.

"The stamp taxes, which are numerous, follow the general lines of the English stamp duties, taxing commercial paper, deeds, leases, mortgages, customs warrants, bills of lading, probate of wills, and all sorts of insurance policies. A complete list of the rates is given in the 'Jamaica Handbook.'

## THE PROPERTY TAX.

"There is no general property tax in Jamaica, but no less than seven taxes or 'rates' are levied upon various forms of real property. First, there is a quitrent of 1 penny per acre on patented land. The yield in 1897-98 was £7,349. Second, there is an acreage tax upon agricultural land, differing with the sort of agriculture pursued. The rate is 3 pence per acre on all land under cane, coffee, ginger, tobacco, cotton, cocoa, vegetables, bananas, cocoanuts, or ground provisions, 3 half-pence upon guinea grass, 3 farthings upon common pasture or pimento (the tree that bears the commercial 'allspice'), and 1 farthing on wood or 'ruinate' (land exhausted by ginger culture). This tax is obviously unfair, and is said to be much evaded. It produced, in 1897-98, £5,404. Third, there is a holdings tax (law 17 of 1890 and law 11 of 1891), as follows: Holdings of less than 5 acres, 2s.; of 5 to 10 acres, 3s. 4d.; of 10 to 20 acres, 4s. 8d.; of 20 to 50 acres, 5s. 4d.; of 50 to 100 acres, 6s. 8d.; of 100 to 200 acres, 10s.; of 200 to 500 acres, 20s.; of 500 to 800 acres, 30s.; of 800 to 1,000 acres, 36s. 8d.; of 1,000 to 1,500 acres, 53s. 4d.; over 1,500 acres, 60s. The total yield of the holdings tax in 1897-98 was £11,309. Fourth, there are a number of house taxes. These are called by different names and are appropriated to different purposes, but they are all levied upon the same principle. For purposes of assessment houses are divided into three classes: (a) Houses of the annual value of £4 and upward; (b) huts in provision grounds, used as a temporary shelter, the owner having another residence in respect of which he pays rates; (c) other houses. The houses of class a are taxed at an amount determined by reference to their annual value. Classes b and c are taxed a specific sum. \* \* \* In 1897-98 these four general rates on houses yielded over £60,000.

## THE BUSINESS TAX.

"Business licenses also constitute a productive form of taxation. Some of the more important rates in the last year for which data are at hand were as follows:

	£	s.
Wholesale dealers in spirits in Kingston .....	10	00
Wholesale dealers in spirits elsewhere .....	5	00
Retail dealers in spirits in Kingston .....	25	00
Retail dealers in spirits in 27 other towns .....	20	00
Retail dealers in spirits elsewhere .....	10	00
Each still .....	5	00
Sellers of gunpowder and firearms .....	5	10
Dealers in metals .....	5	00
Buyers of agricultural produce .....	2	00
Merchants .....	12	10
Storekeepers .....	7	10
Retail storekeepers .....	10s.	to 5 00

"The receipts from such licenses were £12,789 in 1897-98. There were also 'general internal taxes' on horses varying from 7s. to 11s., on asses at 3s. 6d., and on vehicles at from 6s. to £1 per wheel, with a surtax in Kingston for repairing the city streets. The proceeds of the licenses and of the horse and vehicle tax are appropriated to the roads, and furnished between them over £50,000 of the £63,000 of 'expenditures from appropriated revenue' made upon the roads in 1897-98.

"The remaining British West Indies are geographically divisible into a group lying north of Jamaica, in which no sugar has ever been raised, and one lying south of Jamaica, in which, as in British Guiana, sugar raising is, or has been, the exclusive industry.

"The area of the 600 islands to the north—the Bahamas—exceeds that of Jamaica, but they are inhabited by less than 50,000 people. Their chief source of revenue is their tariff. Specific duties are levied on flour and food stuffs, liquors and oils, ad valorem duties on hardware and textile fabrics, and on boots and shoes, and there is a general ad valorem rate upon unenumerated commodities which was raised in 1895 from 20 to 25 per cent. \* \* \*



## TAXATION IN THE OTHER BRITISH WEST INDIAN COLONIES.

"The islands to the south of Jamaica, on the other hand, once enjoyed a prosperity of which their present dense population is the chief surviving witness. They differ from Jamaica in two important respects. First, they have a far less diversified agriculture. \* \* \* In the second place, the southern islands differ from Jamaica in that their arable surface is chiefly held in large estates and often by absentee owners. In Dominica, St. Vincent, and Barbados estates are often unused, and some are cultivated at a loss, merely to give employment to the swarming negroes. But everywhere there is a strong disposition to sell in small holdings on reasonable terms, or, in many cases, to a negro on any terms. Meanwhile, the practice of 'squatting' on abandoned estates, by which Jamaica has gradually acquired a peasantry whose fruit crops and ground provisions keep up relative prosperity in that colony, is vigorously suppressed in the southern islands, and the negro is thus prevented from supporting himself directly upon the soil, whose cane product is ceasing to be his indirect support.

"On account of the above-mentioned differences, the southern islands, whose revenue system is in general similar to Jamaica's, but with less direct taxes, have shown even less fiscal elasticity or recuperative power, and the treasuries of some of them were admittedly on the verge of bankruptcy when Imperial relief was extended. The following table presents the salient features of their financial situation:

AREA, POPULATION, REVENUE, EXPENDITURES, IMPORTS, AND DEBT OF BRITISH WEST INDIAN COLONIES.

COLONIES.	Area.	POPULATION IN 1891 IN THOUSANDS.		REVENUES, 1897 (OR 1898), IN THOUSANDS OF POUNDS.						IMPOSTS.		Expendi- tures.	Debt.
		Total.	Whites.	Total.	Shillings and pence per capita.	Customs.	Per cent.	Excise.	Licenses.	Total value.	Per cent of customs upon.		
	<i>Sq. miles.</i>				<i>s. d.</i>					<i>£</i>		<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>
Bahamas.....	5,450	47.6	11.0	63	20 7½	58	0.84	(1)	(1)	186	0.29	68	11'
Jamaica.....	4,492	639.5	14.7	687	20 1½	284	.41	(1) 105	13	1,694	.17	775	1,99
Leeward Islands.....	701	127.7	5.1	132	20 2½	64	.45	(1)	(1)	426	.15	141	33
Windward Islands.....	508	143.8	(1)	142	19 8½	67	.47	(1)	(1)	480	.14	142	33½
Barbados.....	166	182.3	(1)	185	20 2	107	.55	(1) 27	6	1,089	.10	173	409
Trinidad.....	1,888	218.4	(1)	575	52 9	447	.78	(1)	(1)	2,173	.21	587	526
British Guiana.....	109,000	278.3	2.5	506	36 4	295	.59	(1) 50	109	1,341	.23	563	949

¹ Not given.

² Including the royalty on gold mining.

## ENGLISH COLONIAL FISCAL SYSTEM IN THE FAR EAST.

The statement which follows is from a paper on the "English Colonial Fiscal System in the Far East," prepared by Prof. Jeremiah W. Jenks and published as a part of a series issued by the American Economic Association, August, 1900, under the title of "Essays on Colonial Finance":

"In the study of the government of the British dependencies one finds a most interesting group in the Far East. In the Malay archipelago we find British influence dominant in the north and west of Borneo, where the British North Borneo Company has acquired the government of a large tract in British North Borneo and Labuan, and in the little kingdom of Sarawak, where the successors of Rajah Brooke, though technically independent in internal affairs, keep that little kingdom as an English protectorate under the influence of English ideas. The still less advanced British New Guinea, acquired at the instance of the Australasian colonies, with Fiji, lying still farther east, illustrate each a different method of dealing with dependencies.

"Of far more importance is Hongkong, with its adjoining piece of territory, the promontory of Kowloon, lying opposite the most important foreign trading post in China. For political rather than financial reasons, the new acquisition of Weihaiwei, on the Gulf of Pechili, opposite Port Arthur, which Russia has lately acquired, is also noteworthy.

"At a much earlier period the Straits Settlements, which practically hold a commanding position on the highway from Europe to the Far East, were seen to be of great importance, and to-day, with the Federated Malay States under their direction, furnishes us with perhaps the best illustration of British success in dealing with the problem of partly civilized Malay peoples, while Ceylon, also an early colony, in different surroundings, with a different type of natives, furnishes an example of an entirely different kind, which the English Government has administered from the fiscal standpoint in a materially different way.

## THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

"These settlements derive their name from the Straits of Malacca, separating the Malay Peninsula from the island of Sumatra. They consist especially of the island of Penang, with the adjoining strip of territory known as the Province Wellesley, lying opposite, the islands and mainlands of the Dindings, connected with Penang in its local governments; Malacca, some 240 miles southeast of Penang, on the Straits; and Singapore, a small island at the southern extremity of the peninsula, on the main entrance to the China Sea. The total area of these settlements, with some small islands attached thereto for administrative purposes, is only some 1,542 square miles; but their commanding position and their large and rapidly growing trade, together with the control that they at present exert over the adjoining protected Malay States, render them of great significance.

"*Finances.*—The colony is composed of small settlements, which, while in some instances are quite productive, are still not large enough to be of special significance themselves. Its prosperity is due rather to the fact of its being an important port for transshipment of goods, its profits being made mainly from importing and exporting goods produced elsewhere. More than fifty lines of steamers stop at Singapore. Regular communication is had with Europe, China, and Japan, some of the lines sending steamers weekly. The local trade is also large and increasing.

"Owing to these facts, it has been considered wise for the Government to levy no import or export duties, but to secure its revenues in other ways. Even tonnage dues are not levied for general purposes, the only tax to which shipping is liable consisting of a very moderate one of 1 anna per ton register in support of the abundant light-houses on the coast.

*"Revenues.*—The chief sources of revenue are: A stamp tax, which provides for stamps on legal papers, bills of exchange, checks, promissory notes, etc., and a land revenue, which provides that the annual rate of assessment shall not exceed one-tenth of the value of the produce.

*"Licenses.*—On opium, the most important and profitable of all; on liquors for distillers, \$50; public houses of the first class, \$240 per annum; second class, \$120; third class, \$96; retail liquor shops, \$72 per annum; and a farm shop, not to exceed \$24.

*"Petroleum.*—A license for twelve months for quantity not exceeding 50 cases, \$6; exceeding 50 cases but not exceeding 5,000, \$24; for every additional 5,000 cases, \$24.

*"A farm shop license fee for opium not exceeding \$25 a year.*

*"There are also license fees for burial and burning grounds of from \$25 to \$100, which may be changed by the governor; upon brokers' shops at a fee prescribed by the governor.*

*"A license fee on carriages is levied in addition to the municipal tax mentioned later.*

*"Expenditures.*—The chief items of expenditure are for the establishment, including salaries of all officials, pensions, and buildings; for railroads, streets, bridges, and canals; for education; for police; for military and naval expenditures.

*"In 1896 an ordinance was passed appropriating 17½ per cent of the colonial revenues as a contribution for the defense of the colony, this to include 'gross receipts of revenue from all sources, but not proceeds of land sales and premiums on leases or statutory land grants. The said percentages shall be deemed to be a fixed contribution payable by the colony in full return for the annual cost of the imperial garrison, including cost of maintenance, of military works and buildings, but not capital expended for military lands, and buildings, nor charge for lodgings in lieu of barracks.'*

*"The new harbor of Singapore, which has been fully armed and fortified, cost for the fortifications £100,000, which expense was defrayed by the colony. The forts have been armed and equipped by the mother country.*

*"In the year 1876, as a consequence of the rebellion of the Malay States, a considerable debt was incurred, which in the year 1877 amounted to £120,455. That has, however, been gradually paid off, the final payment being made in 1890, leaving the colony out of debt at present, except for an occasional temporary loan.*

*"On the other hand, the Straits Settlements have acted in this regard as a mother country to the Federated Malay States, having loaned to them quite large sums, especially for the building and equipment of railroads, this loan forming at the present time the main item of the government's assets. \* \* \**

*"Local government.*—There are municipal boards at Singapore, Penang, and Malacca, the members of which are partly elected by the ratepayers and partly nominated by the Government. The municipal revenues are derived mainly from:

*"A rate on the assessed annual value of all houses, lands, buildings, and tenements. Twelve per cent is levied if the property is situated within the water limit; 9 per cent if outside. A tax on carriages and other vessels and draft animals varying from \$12 on a four-wheeled carriage on springs to \$4 for a cart of any kind drawn by a man, while \$2 is paid on a horse or a mule. A dog tax of \$1.50 per annum. A business license for many trades, especially those dangerous or likely to be offensive, such as fish curing, making or storing matches and fireworks, boiling offal, blood, or oils, petroleum depots, etc. \* \* \**

#### THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES.

*"History.*—Previous to the year 1874 the native States of the Malay peninsula, while having some previous relations of a semicommercial, semipolitical character with the Straits Settlements, had nevertheless been independent. The prevailing disquiet, amounting in many instances to anarchy in several of the States, disturbed the Straits Settlements much, and was a great hindrance to the prosperity of the country. In consequence Sir Andrew Clark strove, by the Pangkor treaty of the 20th of January, 1874, to bring about a better relation, securing the right then to advise the ruler of Perak, and within a year those of the other two leading states, Selangor and Sungei Ujong, respecting the collection of revenues and their administration.

*"In 1887 Sir F. Weld made an agreement with the Rajah of Pahang, in accordance with which the control of his foreign relations was surrendered to the British Government, and in 1888 a further agreement brought the State under British protection on the same terms as the individual States above mentioned on the west coast of the peninsula.*

*"In 1895 the establishment of the Federated States, known as Negri Sembilan (the nine States), a union of Sungei Ujong with other small States, gave the impulse for still closer relations among these different Malay States and the Straits Settlements.*

*"Later, to take effect July 1, 1896, a federation of them all was formed (Perak, Selangor, Pahang, and the Negri Sembilan) with the name of the Federated Malay States, to be governed under the advice of a British officer styled the resident-general. Their estimated population is 593,000. \* \* \**

*"Government.*—At the present time the residents of these four States, assisted by a corps of European officers, aid the native rulers by advice, and in general carry out the chief executive functions. In each State the supreme authority is vested in a State council which consists of the highest native authorities and the principal British officers. The British residents are appointed by the British secretary of state for the colonies, and are subordinate to the resident-general of the Federated Malay States and to the high commissioner, an office held by the governor of the Straits Settlements.

*"The resident-general supervises the work of the residents in each State and arranges mutual communication between the State governments and the high commissioner. Subject to this authority the preceding system of administration remains, being shaped largely by the residents. The States attempt to furnish each other assistance in men and money, the wealthier States assisting the other in need of help. Perak, for example, has been able to loan money to Selangor and to Pahang for the building and equipment of the new railways in those States. \* \* \**

*"Revenue.*—The chief source of revenue in all the Federated Malay States comes from an export duty on tin. The total amount from this source in 1898 was \$3,210,699. Owing to the depreciation in the price of tin some two or three years ago, a new sliding scale was adopted, which varies with the price, the average export duty being from 10 to 15 per cent of the value.

*"The revenue next in importance comes from taxes on land. The regulations relating to the land held by the natives under Malay tenure were made in 1890, each native to pay an annual quit rent to the Government in consideration of such holding. The chief rates in Pahang, which are typical, are as follows: On garden land, 40 cents per acre; on swamp padi, 40 cents per acre; on dry padi, 20 cents; on plough land, 20 cents; building lots in towns, 2,400 square feet or under, pay per annum, \$2; village lots, \$1. For areas of forest land exceeding 100 acres, an assessment of \$3 is paid, with an annual quit rent of 3 cents per acre; for abandoned land or land with*

secondary growth of timber, a premium of \$1, or sometimes no premium, with a quit rent of from 10 to 20 cents per acre. The amount received from land in 1898 was \$636,927.

"Licenses are also required for mining in all the different States, as well as for cutting of timber, or the capture or killing of large game—elephants, rhinoceroses, etc.—the fees to be notified by the English resident.

"Under an enactment of the 29th of November, 1897, the residents were empowered to constitute farms of the exclusive right of collecting duty payable on opium imported, of spirituous liquors imported (import duties are collected only on opium and spirits), of issuing licenses for selling opium and spirituous liquors, keeping public gambling houses, licensing gaming, carrying on the trade of pawnbroker, collecting tithes and other duties, slaughtering cattle, etc. In the same year a new stamp duty providing stamps for various legal instruments, conveyances, checks, bills of exchange, etc., was passed. As in the Straits Settlements, there is also a license required for the sale of petroleum, the annual amount for twelve months for any quantity not exceeding 50 cases being \$6, for that exceeding 50 cases and not exceeding 5,000 cases, \$24, and for every additional 5,000 cases, \$24. Further business licenses of a minor nature are also found in the several States. \* \* \*

#### BRITISH NORTH BORNEO.

"This territory was ceded by the Sultans of Brunei and Sulu in 1877-78 to Sir Alfred Dent, and was transferred in 1882 to the British North Borneo Company. It was placed under the protection of England in 1888 with some further cessions. The territories are administered by the court of directors in London appointed under the charter and a governor and residents appointed by them, the appointment of the governor being subject to the approval of the secretary of state. Since 1889 he serves also as governor of Labuan.

"The revenue is derived from import duties, especially one on rice, a stamp duty, royalties on various exports, exemption taxes for natives, licenses for the sale of opium, spirits, and tobacco, and from the sales and rent of lands. \* \* \*

#### SARAWAK.

"Sarawak was ceded by the Sultan of Brunei in the year 1842 to Sir James Brooke, who became the well-known Rajah Brooke of Sarawak. In 1861, 1882, 1885, and 1890 still further cessions were secured. In 1888 an agreement was entered into with the Rajah, under which this independent State was placed under British protection. The English Government does not interfere with the internal administration, but determines any questions that arise regarding the succession. It controls foreign relations and has the right to establish consular officers. None of the territory can be alienated without the consent of England.

"The principal sources of revenue are the opium, gambling, arrack, and pawn farms, together with some harbor and light dues and some personal poll taxes.

#### HONGKONG.

"The system of government of Hongkong, including its financial system and the sources of income and expenditure, are so similar to those of the Straits Settlements, owing to the fact that the colony is similarly situated and has the same inducements for encouraging trade, that it does not need special treatment as regards sources of revenue and expenditures. \* \* \*

#### Fiji.

"The Straits Settlements and the Federated Malay States are chiefly noteworthy from a fiscal point of view from the fact that, lying on the main highway of commerce between the Indian Ocean and the Eastern Seas, they have found it advisable to limit the import duties entirely to those on opium and spirits, where the idea of police regulation is joined with that of revenue.

"A typical colony of a somewhat different nature, whose inhabitants are nevertheless comparable with those of the Federated Malay States, is Fiji. This island, lying as it does separate from any of the other colonies and not so situated that it forms a convenient port for the transshipment of goods, has its revenues arranged on an entirely different basis. \* \* \*

"*Revenues.*—A considerable portion of the revenue, 'varying from £15,000 to £19,000,' is raised from taxation of the natives as follows:

"The colony is divided into provinces, each under the control of a chief native officer. Each province is subdivided into districts with a subhead. Once every year the provinces are severally assessed by the legislative council for the fixed amount of tax to be delivered in the form of produce, consisting of sugar cane, copra, tobacco, yamgona, cotton, maize, bêche-de-mer, and occasionally green fruit and yams. These products are either disposed of under permanent contracts at a fixed price per ton or are sold by public auction. The provincial council, consisting of these native officers, distribute the provincial taxes among the different districts, and there is further subdivision among the different villages. The amount and kind of produce paid by each province and district is recorded, and if the total value in any case exceeds the amount of the assessment, the surplus is returned in the form of money.

"A large proportion of the revenue in Fiji, however, is derived from import duties. The new tariff which went into force on the 10th of March, 1898, increased the duty on some articles, and, undoubtedly increased also largely the total amount of revenue from this source. Duties are levied on probably a hundred different articles, but the duties are in most cases low. The highest rate ad valorem is 20 per cent, levied on jewelry; 15 per cent is levied on perfumed oils and soaps and one or two luxuries of a similar nature. Five per cent, 10 per cent, and 12½ per cent are the rates most generally levied on ordinary articles.

"Specific duties are levied on iron products of different kinds, on various kinds of chemicals, including oils, and on some few articles of food.

"*Local revenues.*—Rates for local purposes are collected on land and house property, which rates are limited to 1 shilling on the pound on the assessed value of ratable property, but special rates not exceeding 1 shilling in the pound are further provided for.

"Likewise grants in aid, not exceeding one-fifth of the sum received in general tax may be paid from the general revenue to any town board. These grants in aid are especially provided for educational purposes.

"*Expenditures.*—The chief items of expenditure in 1898 were the charges on account of the public debt and the different departments of the government, the legal and judiciary department requiring the largest sum. This was followed by the emigrant and treasury departments, then by the public works department and other salary accounts.

"*Debts.*—In the years 1875 to 1878 the mother country advanced as much £105,000 to the colony, all in aid of local revenue. A small part of this was repaid, some of it directly, some indirectly, by disbursing, for the account of the Imperial Government for expenses of the Western Pacific High Commission, sums out of the colonial funds.

"In 1892 arrangements were made for the repayment of the balance by an annual installment of 1 per cent. The amount paid on account of the public debt in 1898 was £9,290 5s. and 1d. The colony is at present entirely self-supporting.

"A comparison of the financial system of Fiji with those of the Straits Settlements and the Federated Malay States calls especial attention to the difference in the sources of revenue, import duties being the chief source in Fiji and export duties on tin a chief source for the Federated Malay States. In both cases it was noteworthy that the revenues to be raised by licenses are administered largely by native officials under the supervision of English officers.

#### BRITISH NEW GUINEA.

"Owing to its situation near Australia, the public men of that colony had advocated the annexation by Great Britain of as large a portion of the island of New Guinea as possible for some time before the British Government was willing to undertake the task. In the meanwhile part of the country had been taken possession of by Germany and part by Holland. The French Government had established in the neighborhood penal settlements in New Caledonia, so that the advisability of controlling the unoccupied portions of this island became more apparent. In 1883 the government of Queensland annexed the southeastern part of New Guinea, but the annexation was not ratified by the Imperial Government. At length, however, the Australasian colonies agreeing to guarantee £15,000 a year to meet the cost, a protectorate was established in 1884 over the present territory. Later, in 1887, the colonies of Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria undertook to guarantee, in equal shares for ten years, £15,000 for defraying the cost of administration, with the understanding that English sovereignty would be proclaimed. Queensland became responsible for the payment of the guaranteed sum. The Imperial Government during the last ten years has contributed some £52,000 toward the foundation of the possession, while the local revenue has been paid over to Queensland for distribution among the guaranteeing colonies in reduction of their contributions mentioned.

"The government is that of a crown colony—a lieutenant-governor with an executive and legislative council—but instead of dealing directly with the home Government, the communications with the lieutenant-governor pass through the governor of Queensland, and that colony exercises supervision over the affairs of the possession. All laws passed are submitted to the governor of Queensland, and the general law is that of the colony. Likewise, appeals from the courts go to the supreme court of Queensland. Of course, final authority rests in the English Government.

"*Finance.*—There is a low customs tariff, not exceeding 10 per cent ad valorem, and the trade, mostly with Queensland and New South Wales, though small, seems to be on the whole steadily increasing.

#### MAURITIUS.

"Without entering into details regarding the revenue system of Mauritius, it will serve to call attention to one or two items of special interest from the fiscal point of view.

"In 1890 the system of levying a surcharge of 10 per cent on the principal items of customs revenue was adopted. In 1895 this provisional duty was made permanent, and customs duties on several important articles were increased or decreased.

"In 1892 a loan of £600,000 was raised to meet the wants and necessities created by a hurricane, and to provide for certain needed public works. The home Government was requested to guarantee this loan, and did so. \* \* \*

#### CEYLON.

"Ceylon, lying off the southern extremity of Hindustan, contains a little more territory than Holland and Belgium together—something over 25,333 square miles. The population in 1897 was estimated at 3,391,443. Of this number 6,545 were Europeans and 23,663 burghers or European descendants. The largest part of the inhabitants consists of the Singhalese, 2,174,200, and the Tamils, including the South India immigrants, 960,745. \* \* \*

"*Revenue.*—The revenue is principally derived from customs duties, excise and other internal revenue, and from the railways, although considerable sums come from port, harbor, and light-house duties, court fees, telegraphs, rent and sale of government property. The largest amount of the customs duties is received from those on grain, the total amount in 1896 being 2,464,438 rupees. The rates levied on some of the leading articles are, 1 rupee per hundredweight on wheat flour; 13 cents per bushel on paddy and barley imported for brewing; 29 cents per hundredweight on rice, wheat, pease, brans, and other grain, except those mentioned above. Next in importance to grain are spirits and cordials, which pay a duty of 5 rupees per imperial gallon on all spirits under proof, with an increase of 50 cents for every 10 degrees over proof. Sugar, refined, and candy pay 3 rupees per hundredweight. Cotton goods of various grades pay, generally speaking, about 5 per cent. The import duties on some 130 articles, grouped under some twelve or fifteen heads, are levied, though the list of exemptions is a long one. \* \* \*

"Export duties are levied also on plumbago, hides and horns, elephants, chanks, and cinchona, the largest income being from the exportation of plumbago—90,266 rupees—the rate being 25 cents per hundredweight. A royalty of 200 rupees per head is levied upon elephants exported, but none can be shipped without a permit from the district from which they have been captured. In accordance with an ordinance of 1892, an export duty of 20 cents was levied on every 100 pounds of tea, to provide revenue for the expenses of the Ceylon exhibit at the Chicago Exposition. In 1894 this was continued, the proceeds to go into a fund to increase the use of Ceylon tea in foreign lands. The most important excises as a source of revenue are those on arrack, rum, and toddy, amounting in 1896 to 2,487,770 rupees, the rate being 100 rupees for general sale.

"A large revenue is derived, also, from salt—999,800 rupees in 1896. Salt is a government monopoly. The cost is about 40 cents per hundredweight, and it is sold to the dealers at about 2.36 rupees per hundredweight, or 2½ cents per pound, the difference being the profit from the revenue monopoly. When salt can be spared for export it is sold from the government stores at from 4½ to 5½ rupees per ton.

"Nearly 1,000,000 rupees—939,894 in 1896—are derived from the port, harbor, wharf, and light-house dues. There are special tonnage dues at each leading port, ranging from 2½ rupees for smaller vessels up to 120 for larger ones. Additional dues are also payable upon cargo discharged or loaded, together with warehouse charges for goods which remain in store.

"The Crown lands in Ceylon furnish a considerable item in the revenues, both from royalties on timber cut on a permit in Crown forests and from the sale of Crown lands. In 1896 timber and firewood cut on Crown lands brought a revenue of 462,546 rupees, while from the sale of lands 443,089 rupees were realized. From 1833 up to the end of 1896, 1,471,272 acres had been sold, realizing 443,089

rupees. Probably two-thirds of more than 900,000 acres have been purchased by Europeans for coffee, tea, and other plantations, while in all probability the natives hold nearly three times this amount, a large part of these lands being held by title more or less good, obtained previous to 1833. \* \* \*

"The largest single item of revenue is that from the railways, all of which are owned by the government, the income in 1897 being 7,325,916 rupees. In 1897 the Ceylon government owned 297½ miles of railroad track, not including some 31 miles or more of sidings, all of 5½ feet gauge. The original cost of these roads was 52,996,780 rupees, an average of 173,595 rupees per mile. The average speed of trains on these roads is some 21 miles per hour. Against the large income of more than 7,000,000 rupees in 1897, as given above, should be offset, of course, the working expenses of the lines, etc., amounting to 3,428,899 rupees, leaving a profit on the whole of 3,898,017 rupees. The cost of the different lines of road, with the expenses of management, vary of course materially, but all of the lines yield a large net revenue.

"*Expenditures.*—The principal items of expenditures are the establishments, contributions toward military expenditures, pensions, interest on loans, and public works.

"Besides the amount expended in building and improving the railways, the public works department has expended in the different provinces large sums of money in building and improving hospitals and dispensaries, in roads and bridges, in maintaining canals, irrigation works, and public buildings. Of special importance are the breakwaters protecting the harbor at the city of Colombo and the waterworks system of the same city. Of metaled roads there were in 1896, 2,333 miles; of graveled and natural roads, 673 and 487 miles, giving a total of 3,493 miles, on which there was a total expenditure during that year of 1,239,800 rupees. There was also in 1895 165 miles of canals. The roads mentioned are exclusive of roads within municipal limits, and of those which are not in charge of the department of public works. Every male between the ages of 18 and 65 is bound to perform six days' labor a year on the roads, or to contribute a rupee and a half by way of commutation. The total amount expended on irrigation works from 1867 up to and including 1896 was 8,060,030 rupees. \* \* \* The total customs revenue in 1897 was 5,973,785 rupees, being 6 per cent of the imports. \* \* \*

"The general principles followed in determining the fiscal system of Ceylon differ materially from those of the Straits Settlements and Hongkong, owing to the different situation. The development of those two colonies depends upon the development of their trade, and, in consequence, revenues have been raised by internal taxes, no duties whatever being levied on imports excepting that on opium in the Straits Settlements as a police regulation, and one on spirits and opium in the Federated Malay States for similar reasons. In Ceylon, however, where the prosperity of the colony depends upon the development of its internal taxes, an entirely different plan has been followed, as in some of the minor colonies mentioned before. A large percentage of the revenue is derived from import duties, which, while they are mostly levied with reference to the production of revenue, have, nevertheless, apparently in one or two cases somewhat of a productive idea, although this is perhaps due chiefly to the delay in changing taxes to meet new conditions rather than from premeditated purpose. In both cases an effort has been made to retain, to a considerable extent, the taxes to which the natives were accustomed, even though they seemed at times to bring hardship upon the community. This has been especially true in Ceylon of the grain taxes and the paddy tax before its abolition in 1893.

"Export taxes, which are so entirely contrary to the principles of the United States, are found in many of the colonies; in fact wherever the colony has a distinct advantage over the rest of the world in its productions. A noteworthy instance of this kind, however, is found in the export tax on tea in Ceylon, the receipts from which are used for the extension of the Ceylon tea market, and can hardly, therefore, be considered properly a part of the budget of the colony.

#### GENERAL CONCLUSIONS REGARDING THE BRITISH COLONIAL FISCAL SYSTEM IN THE FAR EAST.

"This brief study of the colonies of England in the Far East leads to the following conclusions: Great Britain makes her dependencies, even though they are small and not yet completely developed, self-supporting. In certain instances the home Government grants favors in the way of loans, as for example, those to Fiji, but these loans are made with the expectation that they will be paid off. In one case, Mauritius, of which no full account has been given here, the home Government has guaranteed a loan raised to meet an emergency caused by a hurricane.

"The mother country expects the colonies to pay also for a military contribution, which shall cover the expense due to protection of the interests of the colony itself. Whatever ports are fortified, with reference to the interests of the British Empire as a whole, the mother country bears the expense. No further favors are granted to the colony by the mother country beyond the keeping of order and the protection against other countries.

"On the other hand, the mother country asks no favors from the colonies. No discriminating tariffs are levied as against the rivals of England, but the supremacy of England in the colonial markets is due entirely to the association natural with the mother country and to the fact that England can supply goods to better advantage. Wherever this is not the case other countries may take the markets on equal terms. The only apparent exception to this principle among the British colonies is one in Canada, where a reduction of 25 per cent is made upon imports from the mother country. Even this, however, may fairly be considered as of the nature of a reciprocity arrangement, inasmuch as other countries do not admit Canadian imports on the same liberal terms as does the mother country.

"The mother country holds generally the final power of determining what the system in each colony is to be, but except in cases of emergency the colony is generally allowed through its officers, a majority of whom in the smaller colonies are appointed by the home Government, to determine its own system.

"In every case the system is one adapted to local needs and conditions, and no attempt is made to keep uniform the systems in the different colonies."

#### FINANCIAL METHODS IN THE DUTCH EAST INDIES.

The statement which follows is from a paper on the "Dutch Colonial Fiscal System," prepared by Dr. Clive Day, and published as a part of a series issued by the American Economic Association, August, 1900, under the title of "Essays on Colonial Finances:"

"The financial policy pursued by the Dutch in their eastern dependencies can be divided chronologically into three periods.

"The first, extending from 1800 to 1830, was a period of experiment. The East India Company had left the native taxes as they were and had made its gains for the most part by tribute levied on the princes. An attempt to establish a uniform system of taxation based mainly on the land tax and modeled on the system of British India, failed by reason of the difficulty of administration and the demands for greater revenue to meet extraordinary expenditures in the Indies and the Netherlands.

"In the second period, extending from 1830 to about 1860, the policy of reform gave way to the policy of net surplus (*baatig slot*) for the benefit of the governing country. The possessions were exploited without mercy. The land tax established in the former period was retained, but the Dutch found that in raising revenue the old customary dues in labor and in kind offered the line of least resistance, and these were extended and adapted to form the 'culture system.' \* \* \*

"No date can be set as marking the end of the culture system, and, in fact, a remnant of it is still in operation, but changes in the financial system occurred in the period immediately following 1860, so important that a new period may be said to have then begun. These changes can be summarized as follows: The forced cultures were abolished in favor of free cultivation, those going first that were most burdensome to the natives and least profitable to the Government. Up to 1880 the receipts from the sale of products by the Government amounted to more than half the total revenues, but the proportion has now sunk to one-fifth or less. In absolute amount the receipts from this source of revenue have declined from 70,000,000 or 80,000,000 florins to 20,000,000 or 30,000,000 florins. The decline in Government revenues from the sale of products forced an amendment and extension of the other sources of revenue, which has given them a much more important place in the fiscal system. So far as possible the Government made up for its losses on sales by direct taxes on production, or by export duties. The taxes on natives were subjected to a thorough revision, and the system of farming out the taxes gave way in most cases to direct administration by the Government. Finally the taxes on Europeans were extended to accord with the increase in the class of merchants and planters, who had been given little encouragement to settle in the islands while the culture system was in operation, but who have grown constantly in numbers since the chance to profit in industrial enterprise has been more freely opened to them.

"Aside from annual fluctuations, due in large part to the aleatory character of the receipts from the sale of products, the revenues have varied but little from the figure of 130,000,000 florins during the last thirty years. The change from a surplus to a deficit is due to an increase of expenditures, partly the ordinary ones necessary for proper government of natives, but especially the military expenditures occasioned by the stubborn resistance of the natives of Atjeh, northern Sumatra, to the extension of Dutch rule. The war in Atjeh began in 1873 and is still going on. \* \* \*

#### LAND REVENUE.

"Aside from some small special taxes on lands and fish ponds this source of revenue is made up of one item, the land tax (*landrente*), the most important single direct tax in Dutch India, though confined to Java and Madura. This tax was introduced during the period of British rule in Java, 1811-1816, and has been retained ever since as a tax on that part of the land which is held by customary native tenure, while land held by nonnatives is now reached by a parallel tax, the *verponding*. A law passed after long agitation, in 1872, attempted to define the principles and regulate the details of the land tax. Before that date the tax had been raised by a system of bargaining (*admodatie-stelsel*) between the Government officials and the village headmen, and the best fighting side came out ahead, inside the broad limits set by the needs of the Government and the prosperity or adversity of the village. Now all was to be strictly regulated. All villages were to be put in one of ten classes, according to the gross product of the land, villages in each class were to pay a different sum per unit of area, the classification was to be revised every ten years, etc. The law has been severely criticised for some of its provisions—the imposition village-wise and not on individuals, the adoption of the gross and not the net product for the basis of assessment, and other features seemed faulty. Into the details of this criticism it is not worth while to enter, for the law has really never been carried out. Native custom is too strong and knowledge by Europeans of the actual individual conditions of the lands and villages is too slight. A village pays a certain land tax now not on any statistical basis, but simply because it has paid that sum in the past and because experience has shown its ability to pay it. From time to time there are rough readjustments that lower or raise the tax of certain villages as conditions change or knowledge of the conditions increases, but the attempt to regulate the whole land tax by general legislation has been given up. Cadastral surveys are going forward, and with them an approach to the imposition on individuals, which is an essential preliminary to any systematic reform of the tax. Under the present system investigation has shown that in each village the land tax is apportioned by a different method. \* \* \*

#### THE POLL TAX.

"The poll tax, which in many countries is regarded as one of the most oppressive taxes, has been in Java and Madura a boon to the people in relieving them from the labor dues that used to be exacted by the officers of the native States. Under the primitive conditions of native government these dues formed one of the most important sources of public revenue. The imposition of taxes by the Dutch and the extension of the culture system, with its demand for special labor dues, did not lead to an abolition of the *heerendiensten*, 'services due to the Lord,' which were exacted by the Dutch Government and by the native chiefs and headmen without reasonable limit. No part of the tax system bore so heavily on the subjects in comparison with the small amount of benefit that it brought to the rulers. The poll tax represented originally the commutation of a certain part of these services, the *pantjen-diensten*, which included all services owed to natives above the rank of village headmen. This class of services was abolished in 1882, and a tax of 1 florin was levied on each man who had owed services to recompense the official class of natives for the loss. The revenues proved to be more than necessary for this purpose, and the surplus has been appropriated to the abolition of other services. At the present time more than half of the total is available for this extension of commutation. It is the desire of the Government to raise the poll tax in each district as rapidly as the conditions permit and to apply the proceeds to the abolition of labor dues in the same district, but experiments made from time to time have shown that the process of commutation is difficult and must be slow. For a complete transformation of labor into money dues it is estimated that a tax of from 2 to 3 florins per head would be necessary. It is especially difficult to reach and regulate the dues owed to the headmen from the members of the village, and these will probably remain long after the more public services have been abolished. At present the amount of time required by the Government itself is very moderate in comparison with the amount that used to be exacted. Taking all of Java and Madura together, the mean number of days given by each man owing services is about six in a year. In some residences the number goes down to one, and the highest mean of any residence is ten. The labor is applied to the construction and maintenance of roads, bridges, irrigation works, public buildings, etc., the manning of watchhouses, and the watching of waterworks. In the outer possessions there is a great variety of conditions. The maximum number of days required in any district, exclusive of communal service, is forty-two, and, in general, the progress is much behind that which has been made in Java and Madura. The poll tax levied in many of the outer possessions seems to have no bearing on the commutation of labor dues.



## STAMP TAXES.

"Of the indirect taxes, duties and excises are by far the most important. Of the revenue from stamp duties, transfers, and successions, more than half comes from the stamp duties, zegelrecht, which are imposed in all of the Indian possessions, and to which natives are subject, as well as other Orientals and Europeans. The inheritance tax imposed on Europeans, recht van successie en overgang, yields but 72,000 florins, as estimated in the budget of 1900, while the tax on transfers of real property, recht van overschrijving van vaste goederen, yields 644,500 florins. This last tax, however, is not strictly confined to real estate (it includes ships), and it shares the field of the inheritance tax in some respects.

## IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

"During the early part of the century the system of differential duties to protect Dutch products and shipping was consistently maintained, limited only by the treaty obligations to other powers. In spite of the fact that the Dutch paid but half of the import duty imposed on foreigners, they were unable to secure control of the markets from Americans and English, and when the differential duties were lowered, in the years after 1865, and finally abolished in 1874, the trade not only of the Indies but of the Netherlands as well gained by the change. Since 1874 the Indian tariff has been on a purely revenue basis. A nearly uniform rate of 6 per cent was maintained until 1886, when the demand for more revenue from this source led to an increase to 10 per cent on some articles. Out of a total of 9,141,785 florins raised by import duties in 1897, more than half was levied on five articles—woven goods, spirits, food stuffs (excluding fish and butter), gambier (called cutch in British India, being used with betel for a masticatory), and fish. Both specific and ad valorem duties are in force. Articles not specified in the tariff pay 6 per cent ad valorem. The free list includes most metals, raw materials, tools, and cattle. All goods are free, moreover, when imported from some other possession in the Dutch Indies in which the same tariff is in force, or when imported for the use of the Government. Most of the possessions are under the one tariff, but some are free from it entirely (Celebes, Timor, etc.), some have much lower rates (East Sumatra), and some have special individual tariffs (Indragiri). Export duties used to be imposed on a very large number of articles, but the number has been constantly diminished. In 1886 a proposition to abolish them entirely was lost by only two votes in the Dutch Chamber, while a counter proposition to abolish them only for exports to the Netherlands (so reestablishing a differential) was overwhelmingly voted down. In 1897 the export duties gave to the treasury 2,010,389 florins, the most important articles contributing as follows, in thousands of florins: Sugar 774, coffee 420, tobacco 367, tins 187, indigo 79. The export duty on sugar was suspended for a number of years after 1887, owing to the depression of the sugar industry, and was finally abolished in 1898. A royal decree of December 30, 1899, established an export duty upon forest products in the outer possessions. An attempt had been made in 1880 to impose such a duty, but there was such strong opposition from the interests affected that at that time the plan was rejected by the Second Chamber.

## EXCISE TAXES.

"Under this head are included internal taxes imposed on the production, or, in the case of tobacco, on the movement from one possession to another, of articles subject to import duties. In 1897 the excise on petroleum gave about three-fourths of the total revenue received under this head, and the remainder came from matches, distilled liquors, and tobacco.

## OPIUM TAX.

"Opium takes in the Eastern world very much the same position as that taken by spirits in the Western, and imposes on the statesman very similar problems. Prohibition has, in the past at least, proved impracticable in most cases, and all that can be done is to provide that the people should get as little harm and the treasury as much money as possible. In practice the Government has assumed the monopoly of the wholesale trade in opium, importing the entire supply from British India and prohibiting home production, and has got its revenue by farming out the privilege of retail trade to the highest bidder. The twofold object—gain to the treasury and prevention of harm to the people—would seem to be obtainable by charging the opium farmers a high price for the drug, but smuggling became so prevalent when this was done that both the treasury and the people suffered. To prevent smuggling, the 'tiban and siram' system was introduced. An estimate was made of the amount of opium which the people of a district were sure to want, and this amount (tiban) the farmer was forced to buy at a high price. If he wanted more it was furnished him (siram), up to a certain maximum, at cost. An experiment with the abolition of the upper limit led to a tremendous increase in consumption, and the Government returned to the policy of setting a maximum for the amount furnished each district, but charged the same price for all quantities. Smuggling was prevented so far as possible by elaborate administrative regulations and by a liberal policy in setting the maximum. This is the policy followed in the main at present. Its most serious fault is the natural tendency of the opium farmers to make up for the price that they pay the Government for their privilege by increasing their sales in any way possible. In 1893 an experiment was made in certain districts with Government administration of the retail trade by salaried officials, and the success attained has led to an extension of the system, which will undoubtedly become universal in time. The greatest part of the receipts from opium represent net revenue, the cost of the drug and the expenses of administration being only about 2,000,000 florins.

## THE SALT TAX.

"The salt monopoly has often been attacked as an undue burden on the natives, but in view of the fact that no general poll tax is imposed in Dutch India this source of Government revenue seems justified. The Government maintains a monopoly of the manufacture of salt and sells the product at a fixed price to the people. The Government price used to vary considerably in different parts of the archipelago, but the price of 6.72 florins per picul is now almost universal.

## THE RAILWAY REVENUE.

"Of the railroads in Dutch India three-fourths in mileage were constructed and are run by the State. The net returns, above operating expenses, amounted to 4,621,673 florins, a return varying on the different lines from 1.66 per cent to 6.75 per cent of the cost of construction. A steam tramway in Atjeh gave a net return of 46,301 florins, and the State received in addition 162,000 florins from the private lines.

## THE COFFEE REVENUE.

"Coffee is still cultivated on the plan of the old culture system, by forced labor. As lord of the land the State reserves land suitable for coffee culture that has not already been brought under cultivation by the natives, and imposes on villages in its vicinity the obligation of maintaining coffee plantations on it. With the exception of certain classes, all landholders in a village in the coffee district are required each year to plant a certain number of trees, fifty at the most; to cultivate them, pick and prepare the product, and deliver it to the Government at a fixed price per picul (133 pounds). Natives who are not bound to the coffee culture are allowed to grow coffee, but must sell the product to the Government at a fixed price. In 1896-97 287,915 families were subject to the system of forced culture, but less than half of these were required to plant new trees, the others simply maintaining those that were already under cultivation. The total number of trees under forced cultivation was estimated at 66,000,000, while the number under free culture, the product of which had to be sold to the Government, was 180,000,000. The price paid at present is 15 florins per picul for coffee of good quality, 7.5 florins for an inferior grade, and the total cost to the Government, including the price, is from 17 to 20 florins, taking the means of the years 1893 to 1897. In that period the Government sold its coffee in the Netherlands for about 69 florins, gross, or 57 florins after deducting the expenses of transportation and sale. The gain in some years is very considerable, but varies greatly, of course, with the crop and the price that can be obtained for it. In the estimates for 1900 the receipts from coffee is put down at 10,185,815 florins, and the specific expenses of the administration for coffee at 5,713,461 florins."

## SPANISH FISCAL METHODS IN THE PHILIPPINES.

[From Forman's *Philippine Islands*, 1900.]

After the first occupation of these islands the supreme rule has been usually confided for indefinite periods to military men, but circumstances have frequently placed naval officers, magistrates, the supreme court, and even ecclesiastics at the head of the local government.

Of late years the common practice has been to appoint a lieutenant-general as governor, with the local rank of captain-general during his three years' term of office. The first exception to this recent rule was made (1883-1885) when Joaquin Jovellar, a captain-general in Spain, was specially empowered to establish some notable reforms, the good policy of which was doubtful. In 1897 another captain-general in Spain, Fernando Primo de Rivera, held office in Manila.

## EARLY METHODS OF GOVERNMENT AND TAXATION.

Since the conquest the colony has been divided and subdivided into provinces and military districts as they gradually yielded to the Spanish sway. Such districts, called *encomiendas*, were then rented out to *encomenderos*, who exercised little scruple in their rigorous exactions from the natives. Some of the *encomenderos* acquired wealth during the terms of their holdings, whilst others became victims to the revenge of their subjects. They must indeed have been bold, enterprising men who, in those days, would have taken charge of districts distant from the capital.

The *encomenderos* were, in the course of time, superseded by judicial governors, called *alcaldes*, who received small salaries, from £60 per annum and upward, but they were allowed to trade. The right to trade—called "*indulto de comercio*"—was sold to the *alcaldes*-governors, except those of Tondo (now Manila province), Zamboanga, Cavite, Nueva Ecija, Islas Batanes, and Antique, whose trading right was included in the emoluments of office.

In 1840 Eusebio Mazorca wrote thus: "The salary paid to the chiefs of provinces who enjoy the right of trade is, more or less, \$300 per annum, and after deducting the amount paid for the trading right, which in some provinces amounts to five-sixths of the whole, as in Pangasinan, and in others to the whole of the salary, as in Caraga, and discounting again the taxes, it is not possible to honestly conceive how the appointment can be so much sought after. There are candidates up to the grade of brigadier, who relinquish a \$3,000 salary to pursue their hopes and projects in governorship."

This system obtained for many years, and the abuses went on increasing. The *alcaldes* practically monopolized the trade of their districts, unduly taking advantage of their governmental position to hinder the profitable traffic of the natives and bring it all into their own hands. They tolerated no such thing as competition; they arbitrarily fixed their own purchasing prices, and sold at current rates.

By royal decree of 1844 Government officials were thenceforth strictly prohibited to trade, under pain of removal from office.

In the year 1850 there were 34 provinces and 2 political military commandancies. Until June, 1886, the government of a province under civil rule still remained in the hands of the chief judge of the same—the *alcalde mayor*. This created a strange anomaly, for in the event of the judicial governor issuing an edict prejudicial to the commonweal of his circuit an appeal against his measure had to be made to himself as judge. Then if it were taken to the central authority in Manila it was sent back for "information" to the judge-governor, without independent inquiry being made in the first instance; hence protest against his acts was fruitless.

## A REFORM INTRODUCED.

Under the regency of Queen Maria Christina a great reform was introduced by a decree dated in Madrid on the 26th of February, 1886, to take effect on the 1st of June following.

Eighteen civil governorships were created, and *alcaldes*' functions were confined to their judgeships; thus the anomaly of the chief ruler of a province and the arbiter of legal questions raised therein being one and the same person henceforth disappeared. Under this recent law the civil governor was assisted by a secretary, so that two new official posts were created in each of these provinces.

The archipelago, including Sulu, was divided into 19 civil provincial governments, 4 military general divisions, 43 military provincial districts, and 4 provincial governments under naval officers, forming a total of 70 divisions and subdivisions. \* \* \*

## DUTIES OF THE CIVIL GOVERNOR.

As it was intended, in due course, to appoint a civil governor to every province in the islands, it may be interesting to note here the principal duties and qualifications of this functionary.

He was the representative of the governor-general, whose orders and decrees he had to publish and execute at his own discretion. He could not absent himself from his province without permission. He had to maintain order, veto petitions for arms licenses, hold

under his orders and dispose of the civil guard, carabineers, and local guards. He could suspend the pay for ten days of any subordinate official who failed to do his duty. He could temporarily suspend subordinates in their functions with justifiable cause, and propose to the governor-general their definite removal. He had to preside at all elections of native petty governors and town authorities, whom he could also remove at his discretion, to bring delinquents to justice, to decree the detention on suspicion of any individual and place him at the disposal of the chief judge within three days after his capture, to dictate orders for the government of the towns and villages, to explain to the petty governors the true interpretation of the law and regulations.

He was chief of police, and could impose fines without the intervention of judicial authority up to \$50, and in the event of the mulcted person being unable to pay, he could order his imprisonment at the rate of one day's detention for each half-dollar of the fine; it was provided, however, that the imprisonment could not exceed thirty days in any case. He had to preside at the ballot for military conscription, but he could delegate this duty to his secretary, or, failing him, to the administrator. Where no harbor-master had been appointed, the civil governor acted as such. He had the care of the primary instruction, and it was his duty specially to see that the native scholars were taught the Spanish language. Land concessions, improvements tending to increase the wealth of the province, permits for felling timber, and the collection of excise taxes were all under his care. He had also to furnish statistics relating to the labor poll tax, draw up the provincial budget, render provincial and municipal accounts, etc., all of which must be countersigned under the word "Intervine" by the secretary. He was provincial postmaster-general, chief of telegraph service, prisons, charities, board of health, public works, woods and forests, mines, agriculture and industry.

Under no circumstances could he dispose of the public funds, which were in the care of the administrator and interventor, and he was not entitled to any percentages (as alcalde-governors formerly were), or any emoluments whatsoever further than his fixed salary. \* \* \*

Every male adult inhabitant or resident (with certain exceptions) had to give the State fifteen days' labor per annum, or redeem that labor by payment. Of course thousands of the most needy class preferred to give their fifteen days. This labor and the cash paid by those who redeemed their obligation were theoretically supposed to be employed in local improvements.

The budget for 1888 showed only the sum of \$120,000 to be used in road making and mending in the whole archipelago.

It provided for a chief inspector of public works with a salary of \$6,500, aided by a staff composed of 48 technical and 82 nontechnical subordinates.

As a matter of fact, the provincial and district governors were often urged by their Manila chiefs not to encourage the employment of labor for local improvements, but to press the laboring class to pay the redemption tax, to swell the central coffers, regardless of the corresponding misery and discomfort and loss to trade in the interior. But labor at the disposal of the governor was not alone sufficient. There was no fund from which to defray the cost of materials, or, if these could be found without payment, someone must pay for the transport by buffaloes and carts and find the implements for the laborers' use. How could laborers' hands alone repair a bridge which had rotted away? To cut a log of wood for the public service would have necessitated communications with the inspection of woods and forests and other centers and many months' delay. \* \* \*

#### ABUSE OF OFFICIAL PRIVILEGES.

The system of controlling the action of one public servant by appointing another under him to supervise his work has always found favor in Spain and was adopted in this colony. There were a great many Government employments of the kind which were merely sinecures. In many cases the pay was small, it is true, but the labor was often of proportionately smaller value compared with that pay. With very few exceptions all the Government offices in Manila were closed to the public during half the ordinary working day—the afternoon—and many of the civil-service officials made their appearance at their desks about 10 o'clock in the morning, retiring shortly after midday when they had smoked their habitual number of cigarettes. \* \* \*

This colony therefore became a lucrative hunting ground at the disposal of the Madrid cabinet, wherein to satisfy the craving demands of their numerous partisans and friends. \* \* \*

In the whole of the colony there are about 725 towns and 23 missions. Each town was locally governed by a native—in some cases a Spanish or Chinese half-caste—who was styled the petty governor or *gobernadorcillo*, whilst his popular title was that of captain. This service was compulsory. \* \* \*

#### ALL SUBDUED NATIVES PAID TRIBUTE.

From the time the first administration in the Philippines was organized up to the year 1884 all the subdued natives paid tribute.

Latterly it amounted to the nominal sum of 4 shillings and 5 pence per annum (\$1 and 17 cuartos), and those who did not choose to work for the Government during forty days in the year paid also a poll tax (*fallas*) of \$3 per annum.

#### LITTLE OF THE FUNDS COLLECTED REACHED THE TREASURY.

But as a matter of fact thousands were declared as workers who never did work, and whilst roads were in an abominable condition and public works abandoned, not much secret was made of the fact that a great portion of the poll tax never reached the treasury.

These pilferings were known to the Spanish local authorities as *caidas* or droppings, and in a certain province I have met at table a provincial chief judge, the nephew of a general, and other persons who openly discussed the value of the different provincial governments (before 1884) in Luzon Island, on the basis of so much for salary and so much for fees and *caidas*. \* \* \*

In 1890 certain reforms were introduced into the townships, most of which were raised to the dignity of municipalities. The titles of *gobernadorcillo* and *directorillo* (the words themselves in Spanish bear a sound of contempt) were changed to captain municipal and *secretario*, respectively (municipal captain and secretary), with nominally extended powers. For instance, the municipal captains were empowered to disburse for public works, without appeal to Manila, a few hundred dollars in the year (to be drawn, in some cases, from empty public coffers or private purses). The old established obligation to supply travelers, on payment thereof, with certain necessities of life and means of transport, was abolished. The amplified functions of the local justices of the peace were abused to such a degree that these officials became more the originators of strife than the guardians of peace. \* \* \*

In 1839 the first Philippine budget was presented in the Spanish Cortes, but so little interest did the affairs of this colony excite that it provoked no discussion; excepting only the amendment of one item the budget was adopted in silence.

## PHILIPPINE BUDGETS OF RECENT DATE.

There is apparently no record of the Philippine Islands having been at any time in a flourishing financial condition. Of late years the revenue of the colony has invariably resulted much less than the estimated yield of taxes and contributions. The figures of the last three years prior to the budget of 1888, which I give in full, stand thus:

FINANCIAL YEAR.	Income in budget.	Income realized.	Difference.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
1884-85.....	11,288,508.98	9,893,745.87	1,404,763.11
1885-86.....	11,528,178.00	9,688,029.70	1,840,148.30
1886-87.....	11,554,379.00	9,324,974.08	2,229,404.92
1896-97.....	17,086,423.00	( <sup>1</sup> )	( <sup>1</sup> )

<sup>1</sup> No official returns procurable.

## ANTICIPATED REVENUE, YEAR 1888.

Direct taxes .....	\$5,206,836.93
Customs dues .....	2,023,400.00
Government monopolies (stamps, cockfighting, opium, gambling, etc.) .....	1,181,239.00
Lotteries and raffles .....	513,200.00
Sale of State property.....	153,571.00
War and marine department (sale of useless articles; gain on repairs to private ships in the Government arsenal).....	15,150.00
Sundries.....	744,500.00
	<hr/>
	9,837,896.93
Anticipated expenditure, year 1888.....	9,825,633.29
	<hr/>
Anticipated surplus .....	12,263.64
* * * * *	

The following are a few of the most interesting items of the budget:

## REVENUE.

2,760,613 documents of identity (cedulas personales), costing 4 per cent to collect (gross value).....	\$4,401,629.25
Tax on the above, based on the estimated local consumption of tobacco.....	222,500.00
Chinese capitation tax.....	236,250.00
Tax on the above for the estimated local consumption of tobacco.....	11,250.00
Recognition of vassalage collected from the unsubdued mountain tribes.....	12,000.00
Industrial and trading licenses, costing $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent to collect (gross value).....	1,350,000.00
Yield of the opium contract (rented out) .....	483,400.00
Yield of the cock-fighting contract (rented out).....	149,039.00
Lotteries and raffles, net profit, say.....	501,862.00
State lands worked by miners.....	100.00
Sale of State lands.....	50,000.00
Mint—profits on the manipulation of the bullion, less expenses of the mint (\$46,150), net.....	330,350.00
Stamps and stamped paper.....	548,400.00
Convict labor hired out.....	50,000.00

## THE REVENUE SYSTEM OF INDIA.

The land revenue system of India is described in the Statesman's Year-Book as follows:

"The most important source of public income to which the rulers in India have, in all ages, looked is the land, the revenue from which, in the year before the mutiny, furnished more than one-half of the total receipts of the East India Company. At present, when the necessities of the Indian exchequer require that government should resort more largely to the aid of indirect taxation, the revenue from land produces not quite so much in proportion, but it still forms about one-third of the total receipts of the Empire.

"The land revenue of India, as of all Eastern countries, may be regarded less as a tax on the landowners than as the result of a joint proprietorship in the soil, under which the produce is divided between the ostensible proprietors and the State. From time immemorial the people of India have been accustomed to yield a portion of their crops to their immediate ruler. The Mogul emperors founded a system of land administration under which this share of the crops became a fixed tribute, payable to the central authority. In Mohammedan times governors were practically identical with tax collectors, and the whole machinery of administration was organized with this sole object. Under English rule this machinery has been modified in various ways in the different provinces.

"In Bengal a permanent settlement was made by Lord Cornwallis (1793) which converted revenue collectors into zemindars (landlords), who were responsible for the tribute or tax. The actual cultivators have thus become mere tenants. In Madras, what is known as the ryotwari system prevails, according to which the State recognizes no one but the occupier of cultivated land, and assesses him, or rather his fields, upon certain recognized principles. Such an assessment is called a 'settlement,' and involves first a survey of the entire area of cultivated land, then an estimate of the produce and of the value of that produce with reference to all the circumstances, and finally an apportionment of the share which should equitably belong to the State. Bombay enjoys a settlement tenure similar to that of Madras, though not so universally spread. The settlement holds good for thirty years only, at the end of which term it is liable

to be revised. In the Northwest provinces, the Punjab, and the Central province, the village is the unit, and not the holding or field. The assessment is levied upon the owners of the village, who may be either landlords in the English sense or peasant proprietors with separate rights, or a village community. The settlement here records the most minute details of all rights over the village lands. This settlement is also good for thirty years. In Oudh, after the mutiny, the talukdars, or local potentates, were for the most part guaranteed in the possession of large estates, with even greater power than the zemindars of Bengal. In Assam a system akin to the ryotwari, but simpler, prevails. In British Burma also, where, as in Assam, cultivation is still backward, the system is simple and the taxation light.

"In the thirty years' revision only public improvements and a general change of prices, but not improvements effected by the ryots themselves, are considered as grounds for enhancing the assessment. The ryot's tenure is permanent, provided he pays the assessment.

"The important questions of the expediency of settling in perpetuity the amount of revenue to be paid to the government by landholders, of permitting this revenue to be redeemed forever by the payment of a capital sum of money, and of selling the fee simple of waste lands not under assessment have been within the last few years considered by the government of India. The expediency of allowing owners of land to redeem the revenue has long been advocated as likely to promote the settlement of European colonists; but experience seems to show that advantage is very rarely taken of the power which already exists in certain cases to redeem the rent by a quit payment, and it appears unlikely that such a permission would be acted upon to any great extent while the rate of interest afforded by an investment in the purchase of the land assessment is as low as at present in India.

"Next in importance to the land revenue as a great source of Indian receipts is the income derived from the opium monopoly. The cultivation of the poppy is generally prohibited except for the purpose of selling the juice to the officers of the government at a certain fixed price. It is manufactured into opium at the government factories at Patna and Ghazipore and then sent to Calcutta and sold at auction to merchants who export it to China."

#### LARGE REVENUES RAISED.

"A few figures will show what India has become financially, and they will illustrate the remarkable changes of the past fifty years," says Strachey in his "India."

"In 1840 the gross revenues of India were Rx. 21,000,000; in 1857, the year before the assumption of the Government by the Crown, they were Rx. 32,000,000; in 1892 they were Rx. 90,000,000. In 1840 the total value of the foreign trade was Rx. 20,000,000; in 1857 it was Rx. 55,000,000; in 1892 it was Rx. 197,000,000. Equally remarkable figures might be given for public expenditure. I will give one example only: In 1840 the gross expenditure on account of all classes of public works in India hardly exceeded Rx. 200,000; in 1857 it had risen to nearly Rx. 3,000,000; in 1892, including the cost of working the railways and interest on the public works debt, it exceeded Rx. 30,000,000.

"It is true that few of these figures are really comparable, but I give them to illustrate the magnitude of the changes that have taken place in India. One fact is sufficient to show that it is only for this purpose that such comparisons can usefully be made. Since 1840 six great provinces, covering some 500,000 square miles, with a population of more than 60,000,000, have been added to the Empire.

"The immense growth of the revenues has been in no degree due to increased taxation. If, without going back to a time with which no comparisons are possible, we compare the present revenues of British India with those of twenty-five years ago, we shall find that under almost every head there has been a diminution rather than an increase in the public burdens. The land revenue, measuring it by its incidence on the area assessed, is everywhere lighter than it was. The salt duties were generally higher than they are now. Heavy customs duties were levied in the former period on every article of import and export, whereas until lately there has been almost absolute freedom of trade.

"I do not propose to speak of the present financial position of India, of surpluses, deficits, and so forth. The amount of the public income and expenditure is affected in all countries by conditions which are constantly changing. But I shall describe the principal sources from which the revenues are derived, and give some of the more important facts connected with Indian taxation, trade, and economical interests.

"The gross annual revenues of British India at the present time amount to more than Rx. 90,000,000, but it would be a mistake to suppose that this sum represents the amount taken from the people by taxation. The State in India has resources which render heavy taxation unnecessary, and there is certainly no country in the world possessing a civilized government in which the public burdens are so light. The taxation falling annually on the population of British India is less than 2s. per head. If we were to include the land revenue it would be about double that amount, but this would be no more reasonable than, in a similar calculation for our own country, to reckon as taxation a large proportion of the rent paid to private landholders. \* \* \*

#### THE LAND REVENUE.

"The most important of all the sources of revenue in India is the land revenue, which yields a gross amount of nearly Rx. 25,000,000 a year, and this, as I have explained, is not derived from taxation properly so called.

"From time immemorial the ruling power throughout India has been entitled to a share of the produce of every acre of land, and this share is the so-called land revenue. \* \* \*

"In the last fifty years the land revenue of British India has more than doubled in amount, but it must not be supposed that the burden on the land has become heavier. The truth is that the process, described by Mr. Mill as 'a continued series of reductions of taxation,' has gone on during this period without intermission. The increase of land revenue has been due mainly to the extension of the empire. Since 1840 there has been an addition of some 500,000 square miles of territory. In our older provinces the growth of the land revenue has been entirely the result of increase in the area of cultivation, and in the value of agricultural produce, and in no instance has it been due to enhancement of the incident of the government demand. \* \* \*

"There has never, so far as our knowledge goes, been a government in India that has taken so small a share in the profits of the soil as that taken by ourselves.

#### THE OPIUM REVENUE.

"Next to the land revenue the most productive source of the public income in India is opium. A portion of the opium revenue, amounting on an average to about Rx. 730,000 a year, is derived from opium consumed in India, and this is credited in the public accounts under the head of excise. Including this, the average amount of the net opium revenue for the five years ending 1892-93 was about Rx. 7,100,000. \* \* \*

## THE SALT TAX.

"The equalization of the salt duties throughout India at a reduced rate was completed in 1882 under the government of Lord Ripon. The duty was then fixed at 2 rupees per maund (82 pounds). In January, 1888, in consequence of financial pressure, the duty was raised to 2½ rupees per maund, but it may be confidently hoped that this will be again reduced when circumstances permit. At the present rate the duty is about equivalent to an annual tax of 5 pence per head of the population.

"This is the only obligatory tax which falls upon the masses of the population of India, and, although they are very poor, it can not be said that the additional price which they have to pay for their salt is felt as an appreciable burden. The case was different twenty or thirty years ago, when high duties and, still more, the absence of means of communication made it difficult for the poorer classes in some parts of India to obtain a sufficient supply of salt. In 1877 the Government declared that its policy would aim at giving to the people throughout India the means of obtaining an unlimited supply of salt at the cheapest possible cost; that the interests of the people and of the public revenue are identical, and that the only just and wise system is to levy a low rate of duty on an unrestricted consumption. This principle has been acted on ever since with satisfactory results. The consumption has steadily increased, and the combined effect of reduction of duty, the extension of railways, and the general improvement in the means of communication has been to make salt cheaper in the greater part of India than it had ever been before, while the revenue is larger than before the reform of the old system was begun.

"Unfortunately the temptation is always great in time of financial pressure to have recourse to the easy expedient of increasing the duty on salt. The vast majority of the people throughout India are probably unaware even of the existence of the tax; but it is on them—that is, on the poorer classes—that the actual burden falls. The masses remain unmoved and silent, while the small and wealthier minority, who alone can make their voices heard, give loud approval to measures which impose no appreciable obligation upon themselves. No efforts consistent with financial prudence should be spared to reduce to the utmost the price of salt throughout India, and thereby to stimulate consumption. \* \* \*

"The stamp revenue is derived partly from stamps on commercial papers, and partly from fees, levied by means of stamps, on proceedings in the judicial courts. It amounted in 1892-93 to Rx. 4,458,000, of which more than Rx. 1,250,000 was derived from commercial stamps, the rest from court fees.

## THE EXCISE TAX.

"The revenue under the head of Excise, is derived from duties on spirits and intoxicating drugs. The people of India generally are extremely abstemious; the consumption of spirits is for the most part confined to the lower classes, but even among them there is, in the words of the Government of India, 'a condition of things, which, if it existed in England, would almost be regarded as the millenium of temperance. Drunkenness in the English sense of the term hardly exists in India.' There has been a large and steady increase in the excise revenue. In 1870 it was less than Rx. 1,250,000; in 1880 it was Rx. 2,840,000; and it was Rx. 5,204,000 in 1892-93. Benevolent people in this country, carried away by the enthusiasm of ignorance, have found in such figures as these the opportunities for indignant protest against the wickedness of a government which, with the object of obtaining revenue, affords, in defiance of native opinion, constantly increased facilities for drinking. There is no foundation for such assertions. The sole cause of the increase of revenue has been improved administration and the suppression of illicit distillation and sale. \* \* \*

## HOW REVENUE IS RAISED IN THE MALAYAN PENINSULA.

The following statement regarding methods of raising revenue in the Malayan Peninsula is from a paper read before the Royal Colonial Institute, London, 1896, by Hon. F. A. Swettenham, "British resident" in the Federated Malay States:

"The combined revenues of the five States were estimated to amount last year to about \$8,000,000, which means that in the time British residents have controlled the finances of the protected States they have succeeded in increasing the revenues at least twenty-fold. I should like to go into details of that revenue, for you may wonder how it is raised after what I have said about the abolition of imports and exports.

## THREE MAIN SOURCES OF REVENUE.

"In all the States there are three main sources of revenue. First, an export duty on tin. It is a very high duty, about 12 per cent of the value of the metal, but we are justified in imposing it, because it is the country's capital, and the Chinese can work at such low rates that while the Malay Peninsula produces five-sixths of the world's tin it is able to command the market in this sense, that it can undersell every other tin-producing country; and when the price of metal falls so low that our miners have to curtail their operations, it will mean that in other countries the mines have already been shut down, and the consequence will be a smaller production and a rise in price. The tin duty is, then, our principal source of revenue, and I have consistently held the opinion, hitherto justified by results, that the rise and fall of prices in European markets need cause us no great anxiety; and if, by reason of a further fall, our production should be reduced, I do not think that fact should be regarded as an unmitigated evil.

## THE OPIUM DUTY.

"Our next principal source of revenue is the heavy duty we impose on all opium imported. In some States the right of collecting this duty is sold for a term of years at a fixed monthly rental. That plan has objections, and I prefer the collection of the actual duty by Government officers. The opium question has so recently been the subject of exhaustive inquiry that I will refrain from further allusion to it, except to say that Eastern people are not altogether lacking in intelligence, and they, unfortunately, know that if the great mass of Europeans are free from the opium habit, they indulge in intoxicants, and European governments profit by the indulgence. To the Eastern it appears preposterous and illogical that people at the other end of the world, alien to him in religion and sympathy, should busy themselves over his moral obliquities, when their own are so open to criticism.

The third principal source of revenue is a monopoly of the import duty on spirits, and the exclusive right to manufacture them for native consumption. This monopoly is usually 'farmed,' as it is termed, to Chinese, and there is often included with it a similar monopoly of the right to license public gambling places and pawnbroking shops. It was perhaps natural that those in this country, who understand nothing of the conditions of society in the Malay Peninsula, who judge Chinese and natives of the Malay Peninsula and



Archipelago by their own standards of morality, and their own somewhat narrow—I had almost said ignorant—conception of the daily life of human beings in parts of the world beyond the reach of their study, should desire to see licensed gambling abolished in countries where British officers influence the administration; but while I must deny myself the opportunity of giving you the multitude of reasons advanced by those who, with full knowledge and experience of the subject, hold contrary views, I will only say that where the gamblers are Chinese and the conditions of life such as prevail in the Malay States you may stop licensed gambling, but you can not put a stop to the far more pernicious practice of unlicensed gambling. In the wake of unlicensed gambling follows a train of evils that make the attempt at cure—and that a fruitless attempt—far more objectionable than the disease. This is exactly one of those points where it is assuredly wise to remember that our position in the Malay States is that of advisers.

#### THE LAND REVENUE.

“I have told you the main sources of revenue in all the States, sources which existed long before the days of British residents, but I must now mention two new items for which we are responsible. One is a land revenue. We put the people in absolute possession of the land they required, and in return for that we charge them with the payment of a quitrent, which varies in accordance with the class of land occupied. The revenue raised from this source in 1894 was:

In Pérak .....	\$235,666
Selangor .....	138,216
Sungei Ujong .....	35,537
Negri Sembilan .....	32,797
Pahang .....	28,387
Total .....	470,583

“This item of revenue is capable of great expansion, especially when we undertake, as we have already in Pérak begun to do, large schemes of irrigation to enable us to produce a rice crop at least sufficient for the consumption of our own people, and possibly surplus enough to feed the native population of the neighboring British colony.

#### THE RAILWAY REVENUE.

“The other source of revenue is derived from railway receipts, and it is considerable. In Pérak the railways are expected to produce this year \$622,750, and in Selangor \$720,000, sums which give a very high rate of interest on the capital invested. In Sungei Ujong there is also a railway, but it belongs to a private company; it carries a Government guarantee, and so far has been a source of expense to the government of the State, though of course it has been a great public convenience. I trust these railways will, as funds permit, be considerably extended, and though it can not be expected that such proportionately high returns will be secured, still, the total receipts may be largely increased. The revenues derived from land and railways, the result of British advice and direction, are more satisfactory contributions to public funds than the monopolies which, as far as the railways are concerned, have supplied the means to construct them.”

### REVIEW BY BRITISH OFFICIALS OF COLONIAL TARIFF RELATIONS TO THE MOTHER COUNTRY IN ALL COLONIZING COUNTRIES EXCEPT GREAT BRITAIN.

An analysis of the tariff relations existing between the colony and mother country, in countries other than the United Kingdom, was presented to the British Parliament in 1895 in the form of a series of reports made by British representatives located at the capitals of the countries in question. The question upon which they were directed to report was, in form, “The fiscal advantages accorded by foreign countries to goods imported from their colonial possessions, and conversely by the said colonial possessions to goods from their mother country.” The following is the full text of the reports in question:

#### THE FRENCH COLONIES.

The commercial relations between France and her colonies and foreign possessions are now governed by articles 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 of the Customs Law of January 11, 1892, which run as follows:

“ART. 3. The duties and immunities applicable to products imported into the mother country from colonies, from French possessions, and from countries of the Indo-Chinese Protectorate are established in Schedule E, annexed to the present law.

“The French territories of the western coast of Africa (with the exception of Gaboon), Tahiti and dependencies, the French establishments in India, Obock, Diego-Suarez, Nossi-Be, and Sainte Marie, of Madagascar, are exempt from the stipulations of Schedule E. French longcloth proceeding from the French establishments in India shall, however, be free of duty. Exemptions or reductions may, in addition, be granted for other natural products, or for those originally manufactured in the above-mentioned establishments. Such reductions and exemptions shall be established by means of decrees issued by the council of state. Natural products, or those originally manufactured in the aforesaid establishments, for which no exemption or reduction has been granted, shall pay, when imported into France, the duties stipulated in the minimum tariff.

“Foreign products imported into colonies, French possessions, and countries of the Indo-Chinese Protectorate, with exception of the territories enumerated in the preceding paragraph, shall be subject to duty as if imported into France.

“Decrees in the form of public administrative regulations, issued on the proposal of the minister of commerce, industry, and colonies, with the advice of the general councils or the administrative councils, shall designate the products which, in exception to the preceding provision, shall be subject to special duties.

“Paragraphs 1 and 3 of the present article shall not be executory for any colony until the regulations mentioned in paragraph 4 have been issued. The effect of this provision is limited to one year. The Government may, however, immediately grant all or part of the privileges stipulated in Schedule E to colonies which at the present time levy on foreign products the whole of the tariff duties of the mother country, or who subject colonial goods coming from abroad to the duties stipulated in the said tariff.

“ART. 4. The general councils and the administrative colonial councils may also suggest that modifications be made in the tariff of the mother country. The suggestions shall be submitted to the council of state, whose decisions thereon shall be issued in the same manner as the public administrative regulations mentioned in the preceding article.

“ART. 5. Native products of a French colony which are imported into another French colony shall be exempt from customs duty.

“Foreign products imported from a French colony into another French colony shall be subject in the latter to the payment of the difference between the duties of the local tariff and those in the tariff of the exporting colony.

"ART. 6. The method of assessment, the regulations for collection and for the repartition of the sea octroi ("octroi de mer"), shall be established by the general or the administrative councils, and ratified by decrees issued in the form of public administrative regulations.

"The sea octroi tariffs shall be voted by the general or administrative colonial councils. They shall be rendered executory by decrees issued on the proposal of the minister of commerce, industry, and colonies.

They may, however, be temporarily put in force in virtue of a governor's decree. The expenditure of the customs service for salaries, etc., shall be entered as obligatory expenses in the local colonial budgets.

"ART. 7. The provisions of article 10 of the law of the 29th December, 1884, relating to Algeria, are maintained in force.

"ART. 8. The government is authorized to levy surtaxes on, or to prohibit the importations of, all or part of goods the product of countries who levy or may levy surtaxes on, or prohibit the importation of, French goods.

"These measures must be submitted immediately to the chambers for ratification, should they be sitting; should the chambers not be sitting, they must be submitted at the opening of the following session."

The tariff for products imported into the mother country from French colonies and possessions, and from countries of the Indo-Chinese Protectorate, are set forth in Schedule E, referred to in article 3, section 1, as follows:

## SCHEDULE E.

ARTICLES.	Duties (additional taxes included).
Products of colonial origin: <sup>a</sup>	
Sugar, molasses not for distilling purposes .....	Duties stipulated in the tariff of the mother country.
Syrups and bonbons, sweet biscuits .....	Do.
Jams and fruits of all kinds preserved with sugar or honey .....	Do.
Cocoa .....	One-half of duty stipulated in tariff of mother country.
Cocoa, ground .....	Do.
Chocolate .....	Do.
Coffee, in the bean, or roasted, or ground .....	Do.
Tea .....	Do.
Pepper, pimento, cloves, cinnamon, cassia, lignes, amomums and cardamoms, nutmegs, mace, and vanilla .....	Do.
All products not above mentioned, the origin of colonies or possessions .....	Free.
Products of foreign origin:	
Imported from Algeria—	
After having been nationalized there through the payment of the duties specified in the tariff of the mother country .....	Do.
After payment there of special duties .....	Pay the difference between the duties of the Algerian tariff and that of the mother country.
Having paid no duty in Algeria, or arriving after being warehoused or transhipped there .....	Duties stipulated in the tariff of the mother country.
Imported from other French colonies or possessions .....	Do.
The prohibitions or restrictions established by the customs tariff, whether in the interest of public order or in consequence of the existence of a monopoly, are applicable to goods imported from the French colonies and possessions, whether such articles be colonial or the produce of foreign countries.	

<sup>a</sup> The products of French colonies and possessions shall only enjoy this favor on condition that the importation be direct, and on production of the proper certificates of origin.

## TWO CLASSES OF COLONIES.

By implication, all French goods imported into the colonies, etc., are admitted free of duty.

The application of this law is not, however, as yet universal, as by article 3, section 2, certain colonies are excepted from its provisions, the practical result being that, as regards tariff legislation, the French colonies may be divided into three groups:

GROUP 1.—COLONIES WHERE ALL FRENCH IMPORTS ARE FREE, BUT FOREIGN IMPORTS PAY THE DUTIES OF THE FRENCH TARIFF.<sup>1</sup>

These colonies are as follows:

Algeria.	
Comoro Islands.	
Gaboon.	
Guadeloupe and dependencies.	New Caledonia and dependencies.
Guiana.	Réunion.
Indo-China (French).	St. Pierre and Miquelon.
Martinique.	(Madagascar. <sup>2</sup> )
Mayotte and dependencies.	

The customs law (article 3, paragraph 2) authorizes, however, the Government to alter by decree the French tariff as applied in the colonies. This faculty has been freely used, and it is only by carefully comparing these decrees with the French tariff that an exact knowledge of the French colonial rates can be arrived at.

In all the colonies of this group French products enjoy a privileged treatment as compared with those of foreign countries.

## GROUP 2.—COLONIES WHERE FRENCH PRODUCE, AS A RULE, PAYS THE SAME IMPORT DUTIES AS FOREIGN PRODUCE.

These colonies are:

Benin (Gulf of).	Oceania, French establishments of.
Congo, French (Conventional Basin).	Sénégal.
Guinea, French.	Soudan, French.
Ivory Coast.	Tahiti and dependencies.
Nossi-Bé.	

In all these colonies, with the exception of Sénégal, Nossi-Bé, and Oceania, French goods pay the same rates as those of foreign origin. In Sénégal, however, there are certain additional ad valorem duties imposed on foreign produce from which French produce is exempted.

In Nossi-Bé and Oceania the customs tariffs apply only to foreign goods.

## GROUP 3.—COLONIES WHERE NO CUSTOMS DUTIES EXIST.

In Obock and the French possessions of India, at Sainte-Marie de Madagascar and Diego-Suarez, there are practically no customs duties.

<sup>1</sup> In the case of countries having commercial treaties with France this will be the minimum tariff.

<sup>2</sup> Since the above was written Madagascar has been added to this list.

## COLONIAL PRODUCE IMPORTED INTO FRANCE.

As regards duties on colonial produce imported into France, all the colonies in group 1 are exempt from any duty except those duties specified in the table given above.

As regards colonies in group 2, their produce pays the rates of the French minimum tariff, but Article III of the law of the 11th of January, 1892, provides that special exemptions or reductions can be made by decrees of the Conseil d'Etat, and there is scarcely one of the colonies which has not obtained in this manner considerable privileges for their produce.

## ALGERIA.

Algeria, as shown above, is classed among the colonies in group 1, where all French imports are free, but foreign imports pay the duties of the French tariff. There are, however, certain special rates for salted meats, coffee, sugars, tobacco, cigars, etc. Matches, which are a Government monopoly in France, and are altogether prohibited, may be imported into Algeria, where there is no monopoly.

Goods, the produce of Tunis and Morocco, are admitted free when imported by land, the only exception being for barks from Tunis, which are prohibited.

All Algerian goods imported into France are free of duty.

## TUNIS.

There is an ad valorem duty of 8 per cent on foreign goods, generally, imported into Tunis from France and other foreign countries.

Up till 1890 all Tunisian produce imported into France was subject to the duties of the general tariff. By the law of the 19th of July, 1890, however, certain produce, such as cereals, olive oils, animals, etc., are admitted free up to a certain quantity, which is fixed annually by decree. All other produce pays the rates of the minimum tariff.

Export duties are levied on dates, sponges, hafia, olive oil, fresh olives, wool, bones, skins, and a few other articles.

It may be useful to add that the commercial relations between Great Britain and Tunis are fixed by the convention of the 19th of July, 1875, Article VII of which provides that in no case shall the rate of duty exceed 8 per cent ad valorem, while Article XI stipulates that the convention shall remain in force until its revision shall have been accomplished by common consent after the expiration of seven years from the date of its conclusion.

## COLONIAL SUGARS.

By article 2 of the law of the 13th of July, 1886, sugars from the French colonies imported into France are entitled to an allowance called "déchet de fabrication," equivalent to the average of the excess of yields obtained by native sugars during the previous season's working. The amount of this allowance is fixed every year by decree. In the years 1892-93, 1893-94, 1894-95, and 1895-96 it has been 23 francs 80 centimes, 19 francs 47 centimes, 21 francs 19 centimes, and 21 francs 73 centimes per cent, respectively. Though not a bounty in the proper sense of the word, its effect is to protect colonial sugars.

## "OCTROI DE MER."

Goods imported into the French colonies are subject to a tax called "octroi de mer," which is levied upon all produce, whether of French or foreign origin.

These taxes are fixed by the colonial administrations, and vary considerably in the different colonies. They are local taxes and devoted to local purposes.

## "TAXES DE CONSOMMATION."

In many, if not all, the French colonies special taxes ("taxes de consommation") are levied on spirits, wines, beers, tobacco, etc., of foreign and local origin.

This memorandum only gives the general principles on which the commercial relations of France with her colonies are established. Their intention has been to protect, as far as possible, the produce of each colony in competition with foreign countries, and to bring the colonies, as far as circumstances will permit, within the French customs frontier.

In the case of the colonies in group 2, however, geographical conditions or diplomatic obligations have hitherto prevented a complete fulfillment of the object aimed at; but every opportunity will no doubt be taken of putting the law of the 11th January, 1892, into full execution, and of thus placing French produce imported into the colonies on a privileged footing as regards the produce of foreign countries.

The following tables show briefly the position of the customs relations of the French colonies as regards their import and export trade with France and foreign countries:

## IMPORTS.

COLONIES AND PROTECTORATES.	RÉGIME APPLICABLE TO PRODUCTS—	
	Of foreign origin imported into the colony.	Of French origin imported into the colony.
Algeria .....	French customs tariff, with modifications.	Free.
Comoro Islands .....	do	Do.
Gaboon .....	do	Do.
Guadeloupe and dependencies .....	do	Do.
Guiana, French .....	do	Do.
Indo-China, French .....	do	Do.
Martinique .....	do	Do.
Mayotte and dependencies .....	do	Do.
Réunion .....	do	Do.
St. Pierre and Miquelon .....	do	Do.
Benin (Gulf of) .....	Special tariff <sup>1</sup>	Special tariff. <sup>2</sup>
Congo, French (Conventional Basin) .....	do	Do.
Diego-Suarez and dependencies <sup>2</sup> .....	do	Do.
Guinea, French .....	do	Do.
India, French <sup>2</sup> .....	do	Do.
Ivory Coast .....	do	Do.
Nossi-Bé .....	do	Do.
Obock <sup>2</sup> .....	do	Do.
Oceania, French establishments of .....	do	Do.
Sainte-Marie de Madagascar <sup>2</sup> .....	do	Do.
Senegal .....	do	Do.
Soudan, French .....	do	Do.
Tahiti and dependencies .....	do	Do.

<sup>1</sup> French and foreign produce pay in principle the same duties.

<sup>2</sup> Practically no customs duties.

## EXPORTS.

COLONIES AND PROTECTORATES.	Régime applicable to products of colonial origin imported into France.
Algeria.....	Free.
Comoro Islands.....	Free, with modifications.
Gaboon.....	Do.
Gadeloupe and dependencies.....	Do.
Guiana, French.....	Do.
Indo-China, French.....	Do.
Martinique.....	Do.
Mayotte and dependencies.....	Do.
New Caledonia and dependencies.....	Do.
Réunion.....	Do.
St. Pierre and Miquelon.....	Do.
Benin (Gulf of).....	Minimum tariff, with modifications.
Congo, French (Conventional Basin).....	Do.
Diego-Suarez and dependencies.....	Do.
Guiana, French.....	Do.
India, French.....	Do.
Ivory Coast.....	Do.
Nossi-Bé.....	Do.
Obock.....	Do.
Océania, French establishments of.....	Do.
Sainte-Marie de Madagascar.....	Do.
Senegal.....	Do.
Soudan, French.....	Nothing indicated.
Tahiti and dependencies.....	Do.

## THE GERMAN COLONIES.

According to the legislation actually in force, the German colonies, in so far as customs tariff regulations are concerned, are treated by Germany as foreign countries ("Zollausland"); the goods exported from the colonies into the German customs union are consequently subjected to the same treatment as regards customs rates and charges as the like products imported here from foreign countries.

Previously to 1893 German colonial products imported into the customs union did not even get the benefit of the conventional tariff, but came under the operation of the so-called "autonomous" tariff.

This state of things was regarded as a gross injustice by those engaged in colonial trade, and on the 2d of June, 1893, the Bundesrath adopted a resolution whereby the conventional tariff was for the future to be applied to the products of German colonies and protectorates.

In 1890 a representation, drawn up by those interested in the trade of the colonies, was addressed to the Imperial Government, pointing out the advantages which would accrue if, following the example set by Spain in regard to her colonies, differential duties were established in favor of German colonial produce imported into the German customs union.

The Government referred this representation to the Hamburg Chamber of Commerce for its opinion as to the adoption of the suggestion made therein, and in consequence of the chamber reporting strongly in favor of the maintenance of the existing system, and in particular against the introduction of differential duties, the application of the petitioners was rejected.

In the report upon the trade of Hamburg for 1891, issued under the sanction of the Chamber of Commerce of that city, the matter is referred to in the following terms:

"Our colonial policy has unhappily claimed during the past year numerous regrettable sacrifices; at the same time the economic development of most of our colonies seems to be progressing steadily, if slowly; we should, however, regret if the scheme which under various shapes has recently found advocates, viz, to favor German colonial imports by means of differential duties, should be realized. We took last year the opportunity, when a recommendation to this effect was submitted for our opinion, to express the conviction that, whilst the keystone of the commercial development of the German colonies is to be found in Germany herself and in the trade of those colonies with the Empire, that development can not fail to benefit by the participation of other nations in our colonial trade, and by full liberty being left to colonial produce to seek its natural market wherever the most favorable conditions for value may exist."

From inquiries since made, it may be taken for granted that no change has taken place in the attitude adopted upon this subject by the ruling commercial authorities at Hamburg, who continue to adhere to the opinion indicated above.

On the other hand, the introduction of a preferential treatment in favor of German colonial products is undoubtedly still one of the desiderata put forward in colonial circles, but I am informed that the question has not been officially raised during the last few years.

With regard to the treatment accorded in the German colonial possessions to goods imported from the mother country, Germany is likewise treated by her colonies, as regards customs duties, as a foreign country ("Zollausland"), and no especially favored treatment has hitherto been accorded by the German colonial customs administration to the imports from other foreign states.

With regard to the hypothetical question, What might be expected to be the bearing of a policy of differential duties upon the obligations incurred through the most-favored-nation clause in commercial treaties? The general impression in this country appears to be that differential duties in favor of the trade of the motherland with her colonies, and vice versa, might be introduced, in spite of the most favored-nation clause, in the absence of an express stipulation to the contrary in the treaties.

## THE NETHERLANDS COLONIES.

In compliance with the instructions contained in the Earl of Kimberley's circular dispatch of the 25th ultimo, I have the honor to report that no fiscal advantages are accorded in the colonial possessions of the Netherlands to goods imported from the mother country over goods imported from foreign countries; and that, similarly, Dutch colonial goods enjoy no preferential treatment on their introduction into this country, no differential duties of any kind existing here.

Previous to the year 1872 certain products of the Dutch East Indian colonies were charged at a lower rate of the duties levied on exportation from those colonies, and thus practically enjoyed a more favored treatment on their introduction into the mother country than that applied to similar goods imported from foreign countries. The last Dutch East Indian differential export tariff dates from the year 1865 ("Indisch Staatsblad," No. 99, p. 22), and since the 1st January, 1874, when the reform of the Indian export tariff decreed in 1872 finally came into operation, all Dutch colonial products have been and are treated on exactly the same footing as similar products imported from elsewhere.

I may add that by clause 2 of the treaty of the November 2, 1871, between Great Britain and the Netherlands, the conditions of British and Dutch trade with the island of Sumatra were completely assimilated.

## THE PORTUGUESE COLONIES.

Merchandise which has been produced in the Portuguese transmarine provinces and conveyed direct in Portuguese vessels pays in the custom-houses of the mother country or the adjacent islands one-half of the duties fixed in the general tariff.

Merchandise which has been produced in the provinces of Mozambique, Portuguese India, and Timor enjoys a similar privilege, whatever the flag under which it is conveyed.

Tobacco is excepted in both cases.

Rice, spices, and fibers, after having been nationalized in any of the custom-houses of Asia or East Africa, are placed on the same footing for the enjoyment of the aforesaid advantage as if they were actually produced in the transmarine provinces.

All merchandise brought from Macao in Portuguese vessels and accompanied by a certificate of origin from that city enjoys, when cleared for consumption in the custom-houses of the mother country and the adjacent islands, a reduction of 50 per cent upon the duties of the general tariff.

Sugar grown in the island of Madeira pays, when cleared for consumption at the custom-houses of the mother country and the Azores, one-fourth of the duty chargeable upon foreign sugar of the same quality.

Maize in grain imported into the island of Madeira from foreign ports pays one-third of the duty levied upon it under the general tariff when imported into Portugal, and when grown in the archipelago of Cape Verde it pays no duty upon entering the island.

The produce and manufactures of the mother country and the adjacent islands imported into the colonial province of Cape Verde enjoy a reduction of 20 per cent from the general tariff for that colony, with the exception of alcohol and plain spirit, the reduction in favor of which is 40 per cent, and tobacco, which if of Portuguese growth pays 50 reis (2½d.) per kilogram in leaf, roll, or cake, 300 reis (1s. 4d.) per kilogram of cigars, and 200 reis (11d.) per kilogram of other kinds of manufactured tobacco, as compared with 1,800 reis (8s.) per kilogram for raw tobacco, or 3,600 reis (16s.) per kilogram for the manufactured article, which are the duties levied upon the foreign product.

Merchandise reexported from the custom-house of the mother country and the neighboring islands to the province of Cape Verde pay 80 per cent of the duties charged in the general tariff, tobacco excepted.

Constructions of iron or mixed materials for habitation or manufacturing or industrial purposes, fishing nets and cord for making them, wood, vehicles and parts thereof, sacking, flooring, tiles, stonework, and barrels enter the Province of Cape Verde free of duty if of Portuguese manufacture.

Merchandise produced or manufactured in the mother country or the adjacent islands or nationalized in the custom-houses thereof, imported into the island of St. Thomas, pay 10 per cent of the duties fixed in the general tariff for that island, with the exception of fermented liquors, spirits, and tobacco. As regards the former, the following differences are established:

ARTICLES.	Portu- guese.	Foreign.
	<i>Reis.</i>	<i>Reis.</i>
Wines, vinegar, and beer .....per 10 liters..	600	{ 12,000 24,000
Wines, effervescing .....do.....	600	{ 24,000 48,000
Alcohol or plain brandy .....do.....	600	{ 24,000 48,000
Tobacco:		
Leaf, roll, or cake.....per kilogram..	25	1,800
Cigars.....do.....	150	3,600
Manufactured (other kinds).....do.....	100	3,600

<sup>1</sup> If in casks.

<sup>2</sup> If in bottles.

All Portuguese manufactures and produce enter Princes Island free of duty, except alcohol and distilled liquors and tobacco, which pay at the rate just given. The articles of Portuguese manufacture which are exempt from duty at St. Thomas are sacks and sacking, constructions of iron of mixed materials for habitation, agricultural or industrial purposes, vessels under 200 tons, fishing nets and cord for making them, wood, vehicles and parts thereof, tiles of all kinds, barrels, and stonework.

The export duties for coffee and cocoa shipped from St. Thomas to other parts of the Portuguese dominions may be roughly given as one-half of those levied upon shipments to foreign parts in Portuguese bottoms or one-third of their amount when the destination and the vessels are foreign. For all other merchandise they bear the proportion of 1, 5, and 15 per cent of the value, respectively.

The manufactures and produce of the mother country and the neighboring islands imported into Ambriz pay 10 per cent of the general tariff for goods of foreign origin entering that port. Reexports from the same source enjoy a reduction of 20 per cent. Merchandise produced in other districts of Angola and the other Portuguese transmarine provinces pays an all-round duty of 6 per cent upon their value when entering Ambriz, while nationalized foreign goods or the produce of the mother country reexported from the same sources enter duty free.

There is no differential rate as regards merchandise reexported from Ambriz. Whatever its destination or the flag under which it is conveyed, it pays 2 per cent upon the value.

The articles of Portuguese manufacture which are entirely exempt from duty are the same as at St. Thomas.

At the Loanda, Benguella, and Mossamedes custom-houses articles produced or manufactured in Portugal or the neighboring islands or nationalized there pay only 10 per cent of the duties levied upon similar goods of foreign origin, with the exception of alcohol and plain brandy, which pay 60 per cent of the duties of the general tariff, and tobacco, which pays 25 reis (1½d.) per kilogram if in leaf, roll, or cakes, 150 reis (8d.) per kilogram of cigars, and 100 reis (5½d.) per kilogram of other manufactured kinds.

Raw tobacco of foreign origin pays 1,800 reis (8s.) per kilog., and double that when in manufactured forms.

The goods of Portuguese origin which enter duty free are the same as at St. Thomas.

The duty upon goods reexported is 2 per cent upon the value, whatever be the destination or the flag.

The export duties levied at these custom-houses upon the majority of the produce of the colony are 15 per cent when the destination is a foreign port and 3 per cent on the value when a Portuguese port. Ivory is an exception as regards the amount of the duty, although the proportion is the same. It is 10 and 2 per cent, respectively.

In Portuguese India the import duties upon goods of Portuguese origin are one-half of those levied upon similar articles of foreign origin.

At Mozambique, Portuguese or nationalized goods pay but 10 per cent of the tariff charged upon foreign goods.

Merchandise reexported from other parts of the Portuguese dominions pays 80 per cent of that tariff, with the exception of distilled drinks, which pay 60 per cent.

The exemptions from duty are the same as at St. Thomas, with the addition of leguminous produce.

No duty is levied upon reexports from Mozambique to other parts of the Portuguese dominions. Reexports to foreign ports pay 2 per cent upon their value, without distinction of the flag under which they are conveyed.

Exports to Portuguese ports pay half of the duty levied when the destination is a foreign port if the duty does not exceed 4 per cent of the value. Above that percentage they pay three-quarters of it. The highest export duty is 10 per cent upon Indian cloves and ivory.

A recent law (April 29, 1895) has considerably reduced the duty levied upon the Portuguese wines in the wood at all the African possessions, and has increased by 50 per cent the duties upon fermented liquors of foreign manufacture, whether imported direct or nationalized previously.

#### THE SPANISH COLONIES (IN 1895).

Before proceeding to examine the preferential treatment accorded by Spain to her colonial possessions, it may be well to point out the existing relations of these latter to the mother country.

1. Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Canaries are no longer considered as colonies, but have been declared provinces of the Kingdom, with direct representation in the Cortes. There is, however, a fundamental difference in the administration of the two former islands and

of the Canaries. Cuba and Porto Rico, though styled Spanish provinces, are still administratively under the "Ultramar," or colonial office, whereas the Canaries are under the administration of the home office.

2. A second group consists of the Philippines and their outlying dependencies, which are colonies without any direct representation in the Madrid Cortes.

3. A third group is formed by the Spanish settlements in the Gulf of Guinea, under the supervision of the government of Fernando Po.

4. Lastly, there are the Spanish garrison towns and adjacent territories in Morocco.

The basis of the commercial relations of Spain with all these possessions (excepting the Canaries and the fourth group) is absolute freedom for all products imported direct thence into Spain and for all Spanish goods exported direct from the mother country to the several islands.

Such is the general theory, but in practice it is not strictly applied, and certain categories of colonial goods are set apart and pay a duty equivalent to an octroi tax, but in every case below the customs duties levied on the same categories of goods of foreign origin.

Commerce between the mother country and her transmarine possessions is considered as forming part of the coasting trade of the Kingdom, and as such is regulated by the general rules of the home coasting trade ("ley de cabotage"), the only exception to this being the Canary Islands, where trade with the Peninsula is restricted, for economic reasons, to the eight "free ports."

The products of Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippine Islands and the dependencies of that archipelago are admitted free of customs duties into the Peninsula and Balearic Islands when imported direct under the national flag, with the single exception of tobacco, which is subjected to a special royalty.

In conformity with the budget law of June last the coasting trade ("comercio de cabotage") between the Spanish transmarine provinces and possessions and the ports of the Peninsula can only be carried on in Spanish ships.

When the Spanish colonial products are carried under a foreign flag they are subject, when imported into the Peninsula and Balearic Isles, to the duties leviable under the new special tariff ("segunda tarifa") and to an octroi duty.

Until last year certain colonial food stuffs, though exempt from customs duty, were subject to the following "transitory" and municipal charges, the former imposed with the object of affording "temporary" assistance to the Spanish treasury, the latter being handed over to the local authorities:

ARTICLES.	Transitory dues.	Municipal charges.
	Pes. c.	Pes. c.
Sugars of all sorts.....100 kilograms..	8 80	8 80
Cocoa.....do.....	16 00	16 00
Coffee.....do.....	27 00	27 00
Brandies.....hectoliters..	8 75	Free.

These transitory and municipal charges were abolished by the budget law of 1892, and in lieu thereof the customs are authorized to levy a charge equivalent to an octroi duty, the list of taxable articles being at the same time considerably augmented, as will be seen from the following table:

SPECIAL TARIFF No. 5 (AUGUST, 1892).

No.	ARTICLES.	Duty.
		Pes. c.
1	Sugar and foreign glucose.....100 kilog..	50 00
2	Sugar and foreign glucose produced in Spanish transmarine provinces and possessions.....do.....	38 50
3	Codfish.....do.....	6 00
4	Cocoa of all sorts, in the bean.....do.....	45 00
5	Cocoa ground, in parts and cocoa butter.....do.....	65 00
6	Coffee in the berry, produced in and imported direct from the Spanish transmarine provinces and possessions.....100 kilog..	60 00
7	Coffee in the berry, from elsewhere.....do.....	80 00
8	Ground coffee, chicory root, roasted and unroasted.....do.....	140 00
9	Ceylon cinnamon, and its like.....do.....	100 00
10	Cinnamon of other sorts.....do.....	100 00
11	Cloves.....do.....	70 00
12	Nutmeg, with the husk.....do.....	20 00
13	Nutmeg, without husks.....do.....	40 00
14	Pepper.....do.....	120 00
15	Tea.....do.....	160 00
16	Vanilla.....do.....	20 00
17	Chocolate.....do.....	70 00

The above table shows that a preferential treatment in regard to the octroi duty is accorded to sugar and coffee produced in Spanish colonial possessions.

Last year's budget law authorized the imposition of a special duty on brandies and spirits imported into the mother country from Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines; till this has been passed the "transitory" duty of 3 pesetas 75 centavos on each hectolite of spirits produced in those islands is maintained.

The following is a translation of the special tariff fixing the "regalia" duty on manufactured tobacco imported into Spain:

SPECIAL TARIFF No. 3 (AUGUST, 1892).

TOBACCO "REGALIA."

No.	ARTICLES.	Duty.
		Pes. c.
1	Snuff, produced in and exported from Cuba and Porto Rico.....per kilog..	8 50
2	Tobacco dust, produced in and exported from Cuba and Porto Rico.....do.....	18 25
3	Cigars, packed up, produced in and exported from Cuba and Porto Rico.....do.....	9 75
4	Cigars, in bulk, produced in and exported from Cuba and Porto Rico.....do.....	13 00
5	Paper cigarettes and shipped tobacco, produced in and exported from Cuba and Porto Rico.....do.....	8 50
6	Cigars, packed up, produced in Cuba and Porto Rico, forwarded from foreign ports.....do.....	15 00
7	Cigars in bulk, forwarded from abroad.....do.....	18 25
8	Paper cigarettes and chipped tobacco, produced in Cuba and Porto Rico, forwarded from foreign ports.....per kilog..	14 00
9	Snuff, of foreign production.....do.....	10 75
10	Foreign tobacco, made up in cigars, cigarettes, or cut, proceeding from all parts.....do.....	16 25
11	Cigars known as "Tusas".....do.....	21 50
12	Cigars produced in and exported from the Philippines.....do.....	9 75
13	Paper cigarettes and chipped tobacco, produced in and exported from the Philippines.....do.....	6 50
14	Extra register duty.....do.....	2 50



From the above it appears that—

	Pes.	c.
Snuff from Cuba or Porto Rico pays a "regalia" of.....	8	30
While foreign snuff is taxed at .....	10	75
Cigars from Cuba, Porto Rico, or the Philippines pay .....	9	75
Foreign cigars are taxed at .....	16	25
Cigarettes from Cuba or Porto Rico pay .....	8	50
Cigarettes from the Philippines pay .....	6	50
Foreign cigarettes are taxed at .....	16	25

Special regulations are enforced with regard to the export trade of the Canary Islands, commerce with the Peninsula and the Balearic Islands being confined to the following free ports: Santa Cruz de Tenerife Oratavo, Ciudad del Real de las Palmas, Santa Cruz de las Palmas, Arecife de Lanzarote, Puerto de Calvas, San Sebastian, and Valverde.

The following products of the archipelago are admitted free of duty into the mother country: Spurge oil, almonds, lupines, French beans, vegetable alkali, chestnuts, barley, onions, rye, cochineal, sweets, straw for hats, etc.; fruits, chick-pease, seeds, maize, archil, potatoes, filter-stones, fish, flagstones, silk in cocoon, raw and worked, wheat, and wine.

Common sugar made in the islands from indigenous canes is also admitted free of customs duty, provided—

- (1) That it is exported from one of the three ports of Santa Cruz de Tenerife, Las Palmas, or Santa Cruz de las Palmas.
- (2) That the manufacturer's certificate is signed by the mayor of the district in which the manufactory is situated.
- (3) That the quantity of sugar imported does not exceed a certain specified amount in proportion to the license duty.
- (4) That the importer of Canary sugar pays the octroi duty imposed on sugar in the ports of the Peninsula.

Food stuffs, fruits, and effects imported into the Canaries from the Peninsula and the Balearic Isles lost their nationality of origin, and would be considered as foreign goods reimported into Spain.

On the other hand, merchandise the produce of and arriving from Spanish transmarine possessions which touch at the Canaries preserve their nationality of origin on reaching the Peninsula, the merchandise being considered as having been merely in depot while in the ports of the archipelago.

The settlements on the coast of Morocco, Ceuta, Melilla, Alhucemas, Penon de la Gomera, and the Chafarine Islands are subject to a separate customs arrangement.

Food stuffs, fruits, and effects, no matter what may be their country of origin, imported into Spain from these ports are treated as foreign goods and have to pay duty as such.

Fish and munitions of war are imported into Spain from these settlements free of duty.

The Spanish possessions in the Gulf of Guinea, consisting of the Islands of Fernando Po, Annobon, and Corisso, and Elobey, and Cabo de S. Juan on the African mainland are treated much more favorably, and the produce of these settlements imported direct into Spain is admitted free of duty, the commerce with the settlements being considered as coasting trade. Moreover, the duty on all produce of the west African Coast exported direct from Fernando Po and its dependencies into Spain is reduced to three-fifths of the customs duty fixed in the general tariff, but if such produce is unloaded at and reshipped to Spain from the Canaries it is considered as foreign goods and taxed accordingly on arrival in the Peninsula.

Cocoas in grain, ground or in parts, and cocoa butter imported from Fernando Po are subject to a tax equivalent to an octroi duty in place of the former transitory and municipal charges.

With this solitary exception, all goods produced in and arriving direct from Fernando Po and its dependencies are admitted into Spain free of duty.

With regard to the bearing of the most-favored-nation article in the commercial treaties on the preferential treatment accorded by Spain to her colonial possessions, I am assured by competent authorities that there is no present intention of changing the commercial régime now obtaining in respect to the Spanish colonies. They are, and as far as known will continue to be, treated on another and more favorable footing to that accorded to all foreign countries. The list of articles liable to the "droit de consommation," or octroi duty, may be (as it was last year) modified from time to time according to the exigencies of the Spanish treasury, but every effort will be made to maintain, and, if possible, to strengthen the commercial ties which bind the Peninsula to her outlying possessions.

#### BELGIUM.

Imports into Belgium from the Congo State enjoy no preferential treatment, but continue to be treated merely on the footing of imports from the most favored nation. As regards exports from Belgium to the Congo State, the independent State is precluded by the stipulations of the general act of Berlin from giving them any special advantage.

## QUESTION VI.

**THE COMMERCIAL RELATION BETWEEN THE COLONY AND THE MOTHER COUNTRY—THE ABILITY OF THE COLONY TO SUPPLY THE ARTICLES REQUIRED IN THE HOME COUNTRY AND TO ABSORB AND DISTRIBUTE THOSE PRODUCED BY THE MOTHER COUNTRY, AND THE EXTENT TO WHICH THE TARIFF AND OTHER RELATIONS BETWEEN THE COLONY AND THE MOTHER COUNTRY ARE ADJUSTED TO PRODUCE THIS MUTUAL INTERCHANGE.**

The questions that naturally present themselves in considering the subject of the commercial relation between the mother country and the colony are:

(A) Whether the colony can produce articles required by the home country, and whether its facilities for their production excel those of the mother country?

(B) Does the colony offer to the mother country special facilities for obtaining the articles which it produces and which the mother country requires?

(C) Does the colony require in exchange for its products the class of articles produced in the mother country, and whether they can be more successfully produced there than in the colony?

(D) Will such interchange of products between the mother country and the colony stimulate production in the colony and increase the mutual demand and interchange?

(E) Whether the colony may also prove valuable as a distributing station for the products of the home country.

(F) Whether the trade of the mother country with the colony grows more rapidly than that with other countries.

(G) Do the mutual advantages of interchange of the natural products of the colony and the mother country lead to the removal in part or in full of tariff or other trade restrictions between the two sections?

A large share of the colonies of the world are located in the Tropics and all of the governing countries are located in the Temperate Zone. Of the 140 colonies, dependencies, and protectorates of the world more than 100 are in the Tropics; and of the 500,000,000 people governed by people other than that of the immediate territory which they occupy, fully 450,000,000 are in the Tropics. Practically all of the people within the Tropics, except those on the American continent, are governed by Temperate Zone nations. It is also in the tropical colonies that commerce and commercial relations remain yet chiefly to be developed, the more advanced colonies lying in the Temperate Zone and peopled by natives of the mother country or their descendants having already developed to a great extent their commerce and commercial relations with the world and with the mother country. It is therefore with reference to the relations between the tropical colonies and the mother countries located in the Temperate Zone that this study will be directed.

### **(A.) CAN THE TROPICAL COLONY PRODUCE ARTICLES REQUIRED BY THE HOME COUNTRY AND DO ITS FACILITIES FOR THEIR PRODUCTION EXCEL THOSE OF THE MOTHER COUNTRY?**

Tropical productions now form a large share of the importations of all Temperate Zone countries. The foodstuffs, the coffee and tea and cacao, the tropical fruits, formerly considered a luxury but now a necessity, the fibers, the india rubber, the ivory, the cabinet woods, and the numerous other articles required for use in manufacturing and entering so largely into the great industries and requirements of the daily life of the entire world, form each year a larger share of the requirements and importations of the Temperate Zone countries. Mr. Benjamin Kidd, in his "Control of the Tropics," calls pointed attention to this fact. "If we turn at the present time," he says, "to the import lists of the world and regard them carefully, it will soon become apparent to what a large extent our civilization already draws its supplies from the Tropics. It is curious to reflect to what a large extent our complex, highly organized modern life rests on the works and productions of a region of the world to which our relations are either indefinite or entirely casual." (See p. 1230.)

**TROPICAL AND SUBTROPICAL IMPORTS OF THE TEMPERATE ZONE AGGREGATE \$1,000,000,000 ANNUALLY.**

An examination of the import statements of the principal countries of the world fully justifies this assertion. The tropical and subtropical importations of the United Kingdom in 1899 amounted to about \$300,000,000; including india rubber and gutta percha, about \$35,000,000; tea, about \$50,000,000; fibers, over \$25,000,000; coffee and cacao, nearly \$25,000,000; tropical fruits and nuts and nut oils, about \$30,000,000, and chemicals, drugs, dyes and cabinet woods, \$20,000,000.

In the United States the share which tropical products form of the total imports is even larger than that in the United Kingdom or perhaps any of the European countries in which foodstuffs necessarily form a considerable share of the imports. The importation of tropical and subtropical products into the United States, including all sugar imported, has averaged during the last decade more than \$300,000,000 a year, and in several of those years has exceeded \$350,000,000, or an average of about \$1,000,000 per day. The principal items are: Sugar, \$100,000,000; coffee from \$55,000,000 to \$90,000,000 annually; raw silk, from \$25,000,000 to \$35,000,000 annually; india rubber, from \$20,000,000 to \$30,000,000 annually; fibers, from \$15,000,000 to \$20,000,000 per annum; fruits and nuts, a like sum; tobacco, from \$12,000,000 to \$18,000,000 annually; tea, from \$10,000,000 to \$14,000,000 a year; cotton, chiefly Egyptian, from \$5,000,000 to \$6,000,000 per annum; cocoa, from \$3,000,000 to \$5,000,000 annually; and many other articles of equal importance and necessity for food stuffs or manufacture.

The import figures of other countries also show that they draw largely upon tropical and subtropical territory for their supplies. The imports of Netherlands from her tropical possessions in the Orient alone aggregate more than \$100,000,000 per annum; and when

to this is added the similar importations of the other Temperate Zone countries, the above estimate of an annual importation of one billion dollars' value annually of tropical and subtropical products by the Temperate Zones seems fully justified. Practically all of this, it will be observed, is food stuffs and raw materials for use in manufacturing, and the demand therefore must be continuous, increasing with the growth of population and of the adaptation of tropical products to the daily life of the Temperate Zone people.

VALUE OF TROPICAL IMPORTS INTO THE UNITED STATES.

The table which follows shows the value of tropical and subtropical products imported into the United States in each year from 1891 to 1901:

VALUES OF TROPICAL AND SUBTROPICAL PRODUCTS IMPORTED INTO THE UNITED STATES DURING THE YEARS ENDING JUNE 30, 1891, to 1901.

ARTICLES.	1891	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900	1901
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Sugar.....	105,728,216	104,408,813	116,255,784	126,871,889	76,462,836	89,219,773	99,066,181	60,472,749	94,964,120	100,250,974	90,487,800
Coffee.....	96,123,777	128,041,930	80,485,558	90,314,676	96,130,717	84,793,124	81,544,384	65,067,631	55,275,470	52,467,943	62,861,399
Silk, raw.....	19,076,081	25,069,325	29,896,986	16,234,182	22,626,056	26,763,428	18,918,283	32,110,066	32,479,627	45,329,760	30,051,365
India rubber.....	17,856,280	19,718,216	17,809,239	15,077,993	18,353,121	16,603,020	17,457,976	23,386,010	31,707,630	31,376,867	28,455,383
Fibers, vegetable and textile grasses.....	21,286,705	19,124,094	21,371,555	12,163,481	13,282,081	12,870,694	12,836,418	13,446,186	20,300,093	26,373,805	22,932,506
Fruits and nuts.....	25,983,196	20,943,906	23,687,422	18,754,771	17,239,923	19,032,439	17,126,532	14,566,950	18,314,206	19,263,592	19,586,703
Tobacco and manu- factures of.....	16,763,141	13,258,474	17,619,546	13,139,572	16,888,612	18,703,942	11,681,702	9,092,114	12,044,252	15,661,360	19,770,526
Tea.....	13,828,993	14,373,222	13,857,482	14,144,243	13,171,379	12,704,440	14,835,862	10,064,283	9,675,081	10,558,110	11,017,876
Gums.....	6,906,914	6,089,546	6,915,003	5,179,730	5,560,322	6,922,111	5,755,247	5,040,688	5,868,765	6,894,704	6,639,139
Cocoa, raw and pre- pared.....	3,823,057	3,822,470	4,517,775	2,857,112	3,678,343	2,797,327	3,441,470	3,782,877	5,360,116	5,970,844	6,761,669
Cotton, unmanufac- tured.....	2,825,004	3,217,521	4,688,799	3,003,888	4,714,375	6,578,212	5,884,262	5,019,503	5,013,146	7,960,945	6,787,828
Rice and rice flour, rice meal, and broken rice.....	4,559,540	3,080,883	2,790,151	2,374,835	3,445,512	2,185,579	3,517,160	3,746,833	3,930,149	2,279,036	2,321,898
Spices.....	3,151,833	3,047,825	3,300,010	2,262,553	2,640,235	2,378,519	2,576,716	2,404,629	2,782,301	3,401,265	3,563,109
Cabinet woods <sup>1</sup> .....					1,245,203	1,099,166	1,201,466	1,699,336	2,091,277	2,430,702	2,983,349
Indigo.....	1,600,630	1,772,507	3,137,511	1,218,576	2,015,975	1,073,170	1,696,641	1,815,411	1,698,583	1,446,490	1,402,894
Licorice root.....	896,597	1,601,028	1,688,716	1,209,728	1,404,563	1,401,748	1,022,650	1,171,621	1,566,830	1,667,256	1,737,097
Cork wood and cork bark and manu- factures of.....	1,674,950	1,709,790	2,006,731	1,280,982	1,400,830	1,619,337	1,751,652	1,447,188	1,542,367	1,903,483	2,270,995
Vanilla beans.....	694,744	803,696	763,935	727,853	495,273	1,013,608	884,865	279,756	1,235,412	1,238,334	875,229
Dyewoods.....	2,010,435	1,376,601	1,397,706	1,450,283	1,589,773	1,631,833	790,726	915,841	988,433	1,083,644	1,274,445
Sponges.....	431,873	354,416	418,165	259,446	350,008	499,766	487,143	401,725	430,231	536,303	717,550
Barks, cinchona and other from which quinine may be ex- tracted.....	801,070	301,385	197,856	143,249	117,297	165,699	142,512	273,228	846,576	568,065	1,025,546
Chocolate.....	91,430	37,911	118,479	198,425	174,805	198,417	239,819	149,866	201,439	240,141	141,892
Gutta percha.....	164,524	114,874	155,428	84,540	122,261	178,513	100,187	159,381	167,577	178,616	130,957
Total.....	345,178,980	372,210,433	353,019,837	328,951,807	303,109,500	311,633,865	302,400,254	258,503,871	307,983,681	339,044,239	323,810,155

<sup>1</sup> Not separately specified prior to 1895.

An examination of the above table readily answers the above questions as to whether a colony situated in the Tropics can produce articles required by the mother country, and whether its facility for production is greater than that of a mother country located in the Temperate Zone. All of the articles enumerated in this large list are of tropical or subtropical production, and, with a very few exceptions, are not successfully or readily produced in other than tropical territory. That practically all of them, with perhaps the exception of sugar and raw silk, can be produced more conveniently and with greater facility in the Tropics than in the Temperate Zone goes without saying.

THE UNITED STATES MUST RELY UPON THE TROPICS FOR A LARGE SHARE OF ITS NECESSARY IMPORTS.

The grand total of imported articles included in the above list forms about 40 per cent of the total importations into the United States. They are of such character and form such an important factor in the food supply and in the manufacturing industries that the demand for them must continue indefinitely and increase as population and consumption increase. On the other hand, the other classes of importations which do not come from the Tropics are liable to be reduced by the growth or manufacture at home of certain articles now imported from the Tropics; while of the tropical importations, none except sugar seems likely to be produced in the United States, and the Tropics must therefore be relied upon to supply the constantly growing demand.

The answer to the above question as to whether the colony can more readily produce important articles required by the mother country seems therefore to be in the affirmative, especially when the colony is located in the Tropics and the governing country in the Temperate Zone.

(B.) DOES THE COLONY OFFER TO THE MOTHER COUNTRY SPECIAL FACILITIES FOR OBTAINING THE ARTICLES WHICH IT PRODUCES AND WHICH THE MOTHER COUNTRY REQUIRES?

The principal advantage likely to accrue to the mother country in its ability to draw upon the colony for those tropical products which it requires is found in the steadiness and certainty of supply likely to arise from the investment of capital from the mother country for production within the colony of those articles required in the mother country and known to its capitalists to be articles of constant consumption and therefore constant demand. The experience of all colonizing nations, especially Great Britain, is that capital from the mother country is largely invested in the colonies, and particularly for the purpose of producing those articles demanded in its markets. That the capitalist who sees a hundred million dollars' worth of sugar imported into his own country annually, or seventy-five million dollars' worth of coffee, or thirty million dollars' worth of india rubber, or raw silk, or fibers would invest his money in the production

of these articles much more readily in a territory controlled by his own Government than elsewhere goes without saying. The question of permanence of government and thus of the safety of investment is one of the first to be considered by the capitalist or investor, and this is illustrated by the slow development of production through invested capital in the great tropical areas of Central and South America, where frequent revolutions and changes of government render such investments unsafe and profits therefrom uncertain.

Another advantage which capital finds in investment in territory having a permanent and reliable form of government is that in such territories facilities for transportation and communication, which are absolute necessities to successful business undertakings of this character, are more numerous and trustworthy and more likely to be extended as occasion requires. To this may be added the further fact that articles produced in the colony from investments by residents of the home country go more directly from the producer to the consumer, without passing through the hands of as many middlemen or contributing a profit to a large number of intermediate dealers and thus increasing their cost to the consumer.

Still another advantage to the mother country in the control of tropical territory lies in the application of the enterprise, energy, and inventive characteristics of citizens of the Temperate Zone to the soil and natural products of the tropical territory, some results of which are illustrated in the enormous development of tea industry in India and Ceylon, the cinchona industry in Java, Ceylon, and India, the rubber industry which is now being developed in Africa, India, and the East Indian islands; the sisal industry in certain of the West Indian islands; and the development of fruit culture in the West Indies in general. For many of the tropical products required by their people European countries having tropical colonies have come to rely upon their colonies with a certainty of a supply of these important requirements, and by reason of this ample supply have greatly increased their consumption. England's largest importation from the Tropics—tea—come almost exclusively from her own colonies, India and Ceylon, as do also jute, cinchona, and numerous other of her important importations; and with this steadiness and reliability of supply have come a great reduction in cost to her people of those articles. The average price of tea is now but about one-third that of a quarter of a century ago, and this is due almost exclusively to the great production of tea in England's colonies of India and Ceylon; while the price of quinine has fallen in even larger proportion and is due largely to the introduction and culture of the cinchona tree in the British and Dutch colonies, as described on another page.

The question as to whether the colony offers to the mother country special facilities for obtaining the articles which it produces and which the mother country requires seems thus to be answered in the affirmative.

**(C.) DOES THE COLONY REQUIRE IN EXCHANGE FOR ITS PRODUCTS THE CLASS OF ARTICLES PRODUCED IN THE MOTHER COUNTRY AND CAN THEY BE MORE SUCCESSFULLY PRODUCED THERE THAN IN THE COLONY?**

The answer to this question is obvious. Naturally the importations into colonies, especially tropical colonies, are almost exclusively foodstuffs and manufactures—provisions, meats, clothing, and agricultural and mining machinery. Add to the difficulty of obtaining reliable and satisfactory labor in the Tropics, the rapid deterioration of machinery by reason of climatic conditions, and the growing disposition to operate manufacturing industries in great groups and with costly plants, and it is apparent that practically all of the manufactures consumed in the Tropics must be drawn from the Temperate Zone, while the fact that nearly all the tropical world depends upon the Temperate Zone for its breadstuffs and a large proportion of its meats adds to the assurance that the tropical colony will remain permanently a consumer of the products and manufactures of the Temperate Zone. This is illustrated in the fact that of the imports of India, valued in 1900 at 960,000,000 rupees, cotton manufactures formed nearly 300,000,000 rupees; metals, hardware, and cutlery 82,000,000; railway plant and rolling stock, 27,000,000; machinery and mill work, 25,000,000; sugar, 33,000,000; and oils, 34,000,000 rupees. Taking an example nearer home—of the £1,660,000 importations into Jamaica in 1898, cotton manufactures constituted in value £208,317; flour, £162,378; boots and shoes, £44,987; lumber, £37,374, and fish, £116,240. Indeed, of the entire importations of Jamaica, practically all were food stuffs or manufactures from the Temperate Zone. Another marked example of the demand of tropical territory upon the foodstuffs and manufactures of the Temperate Zone is found in the class of exports from the United States to the Hawaiian Islands. Among the exports in 1900 to the Hawaiian Islands were iron and steel manufactures to the value of \$5,064,306; breadstuffs, \$1,024,604; manufactures of cotton, \$572,551; leather and manufactures of, \$307,270; tobacco manufactures, \$332,759; and wood and manufactures thereof, \$1,314,957. Of the exportations from the United States to Porto Rico in the fiscal year 1901, valued at \$6,861,917, the value of over \$1,000,000 was cotton cloths; nearly a million dollars provisions, comprising meat and dairy products; another million breadstuffs; a million and a quarter rice; nearly a half million manufactures of iron and steel; more than a quarter of a million fish—practically the entire \$6,000,000 being included within the terms food stuffs and manufactures.

**(D.) WILL SUCH INTERCHANGE OF THE PRODUCTS BETWEEN THE MOTHER COUNTRY AND THE COLONY STIMULATE PRODUCTION IN THE COLONY AND INCREASE THE MUTUAL DEMAND AND INTERCHANGE?**

The answer to this is readily found in the very rapid growth in both the exports and imports of all successfully managed colonies. Increased earnings are always accompanied by increased wants and increased consumption, and this is especially true in communities in which the consumption is in the beginning small and confined to the articles of absolute necessity. This is noted in all colonies and especially those of the Tropics in which the native element forms a large proportion of the population. This fact, which is a subject of frequent comment by those who have had experience in tropical colonies, is fully sustained by the statistics of the imports of the colonies which always keep pace with the growth in exports. The exports of Java in 1870 amounted to 61,000,000 guilders, and in 1898 had increased to 203,000,000 guilders, an increase of 230 per cent; in 1870 the imports of merchandise amounted to 44,000,000, and in 1898 to 160,000,000 guilders, an increase of 250 per cent. The exports of India in 1858 amounted to £23,000,000, and in 1899 to £78,000,000, an increase of 175 per cent; while the imports which in 1858 were £31,000,000, were in 1899 £64,000,000, an increase of more than 100 per cent. The total imports of the British colonies have increased from £144,000,000 in 1864 to £246,000,000 in 1899.

## INCREASED PRODUCTION AND CONSUMPTION OF THE BRITISH COLONIES.

The production and consumption of the British colonies have more than doubled since 1867, as shown by the following table, which gives the total imports and exports (including bullion and specie) of the British colonies in 1867 and 1899:

## COMMERCE OF BRITISH COLONIES, 1867 AND 1899.

YEARS.	Imports.	Exports.
1867.....	£115,721,000	£114,232,000
1899.....	245,176,000	268,924,000

## INCREASED PRODUCTION OF THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS UNDER ADVANTAGEOUS COMMERCIAL RELATIONS WITH THE UNITED STATES.

Another marked instance of the increase of production under the stimulus given by a steady and reliable market in the Temperate Zone for the products of tropical communities is found in the phenomenal growth of the sugar industry in the Hawaiian Islands since the reciprocity treaty which admitted the products of Hawaii free of duty into the United States, and American breadstuffs and manufactures free of duty into Hawaii. The conclusion of the reciprocity treaty in 1876 assured to the producing interests of Hawaii a permanent market in the United States free of tariff restrictions, and assured to the United States producers, manufacturers, and exporters an equally permanent market in the Hawaiian Islands, free from tariff restrictions, in most of the articles required in those islands. As a consequence the production of sugar in the Hawaiian Islands has increased from 26,072,429 pounds in 1876, the date of the conclusion of the treaty, to 545,370,537 pounds in 1899, the growth being twentyfold.

## ENORMOUS INCREASE IN TRADE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

The stimulative effect of this increased production upon the purchasing power of the islands is shown by the fact that exports from the United States to the Hawaiian Islands increased from \$662,164 in 1875 to \$13,509,148 in the fiscal year 1900, and the collector at Honolulu estimates the figures for 1901 at \$20,000,000.

The tables which follow show the production of sugar in the Hawaiian Islands in each year from 1875 to 1899 and the importations into the United States from and exports from the United States to the Hawaiian Islands from 1875 to 1900. They indicate the growth of production in the Hawaiian Islands under the stimulus of a steady market in the United States, with the advantages of free entry to that market, and the accompanying increase of consuming power and increase of mutual interchange between the Hawaiian Islands and the United States.

## PRODUCTION OF SUGAR IN THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS FROM 1875, THE YEAR PRECEDING THE RECIPROCITY TREATY, TO 1899:

YEARS.	Quantity.	Value.	YEARS.	Quantity.	Value.
	<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>		<i>Pounds.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
1875.....	25,080,182	1,216,388	1888.....	235,888,346	10,818,883
1876.....	26,072,429	1,272,334	1889.....	242,165,835	13,089,302
1877.....	25,575,965	1,777,529	1890.....	259,789,462	12,169,585
1878.....	38,431,458	2,701,731	1891.....	274,983,580	9,550,537
1879.....	49,020,972	3,109,563	1892.....	263,636,715	7,276,949
1880.....	63,584,871	4,322,711	1893.....	330,822,879	10,200,958
1881.....	93,789,483	5,335,399	1894.....	306,684,993	8,473,009
1882.....	114,177,938	6,320,890	1895.....	294,784,819	7,975,590
1883.....	114,107,155	7,112,581	1896.....	443,569,282	14,932,172
1884.....	142,654,923	7,328,896	1897.....	520,158,232	15,390,422
1885.....	171,350,314	8,356,061	1898.....	444,963,036	16,614,622
1886.....	216,223,615	9,775,132	1899.....	545,370,537	21,898,190
1887.....	212,763,647	8,694,964			

## MERCHANDISE IMPORTED INTO AND EXPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES IN ITS COMMERCE WITH HAWAII, FROM 1875 TO 1900 (GOLD AND SILVER INCLUDED PRIOR TO 1880).

YEARS ENDING—	Imports from Hawaii.	Exports to Hawaii.	YEARS ENDING—	Imports from Hawaii.	Exports to Hawaii.
June 30—	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	June 30—	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
1875.....	1,373,681	662,164	1888.....	11,060,379	3,085,203
1876.....	1,227,191	779,257	1889.....	12,817,740	3,375,661
1877.....	2,530,335	1,272,949	1890.....	12,313,908	4,711,417
1878.....	2,678,830	1,736,099	1891.....	13,895,597	5,107,212
1879.....	3,257,938	2,374,918	1892.....	8,675,892	3,781,628
1880.....	4,696,411	2,096,170	1893.....	9,146,767	2,827,668
1881.....	5,533,000	2,778,072	1894.....	10,065,317	3,306,187
1882.....	7,646,294	3,530,775	1895.....	7,898,961	3,723,057
1883.....	8,238,461	3,776,065	1896.....	11,757,704	3,985,707
1884.....	7,925,965	3,523,353	1897.....	13,687,799	4,690,075
1885.....	8,857,497	2,787,922	1898.....	17,187,390	5,907,155
1886.....	9,805,707	3,192,698	1899.....	17,831,463	9,305,470
1887.....	9,922,075	3,624,029	1900.....	20,707,903	13,509,148

## PHENOMENAL GROWTH IN COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH HAWAII.

A study of the above table shows a phenomenal growth in both the imports from and exports to Hawaii under the reciprocity treaty by which Hawaii was commercially annexed to the United States, its principal products being admitted to the United States free of duty, and the principal products of the United States admitted to Hawaii free of duty. It will be seen that the imports from Hawaii were in 1900 fifteen times as much as in 1875, and the exports to Hawaii twenty times as much as in 1875.

## (E.) WHETHER THE COLONY MAY ALSO PROVE VALUABLE AS A DISTRIBUTING STATION FOR THE PRODUCTS OF THE HOME COUNTRY.

This question is perhaps most satisfactorily answered by an examination of the record of the exports from the United Kingdom to the Orient since the establishment of those two great distributing stations of the East, Hongkong and the Straits Settlements. Hongkong was ceded to Great Britain by China in 1841, confirmed by the treaty of 1842, and the charter issued in 1843. The Straits Settlements passed finally into the hands of the British under the treaty with Holland of March, 1824, in exchange for the East India Company's settlements in Sumatra and remained under the control of the Indian government until 1867, when they were transferred to the care of the secretary of state for the colonies and made a separate colony. Hongkong became a distributing center for British goods destined for China, Japan, and the Philippines; while Singapore of the Straits Settlements became the distributing center for Australasia, Siam, Burma, Indo-China, the Malayan Peninsula, and the East Indian islands. In 1840, prior to the acquisition of Hongkong, and the establishment of the Straits Settlements as a separate colony, Great Britain's exports to the entire section tributary to those points (omitting the Australian colonies, where the growth was largely due to other causes) amounted to £2,009,535; by 1850 they had grown to £3,055,384; by 1860 to £9,748,206; by 1870 to £16,146,478; by 1880 to £18,436,805; by 1890 to £19,751,884, and in 1900 to £24,074,533. Thus British exports to the territory for which these points prove a distributing center are now twelve times as much as in 1840. During that period British exports to the colonies grew from £17,000,000 to £87,000,000, or five times as much in 1900 as in 1840, while her exports to all countries other than the colonies grew from £34,000,000 to £167,000,000 in the same period, or about five times as much in 1900 as in 1840. It must not be understood that the entire distribution of the £24,000,000 of British goods now sold in the Orient is from these two points, but it seems reasonable to assume that they proved the vantage points from which British merchants gained their foothold in the trading communities since opened to them—the adjacent countries of China, Japan, Indo-China, Burma, Siam, Malayan Peninsula, and East Indian islands. The exports to Australia, much of which goes to Singapore and thence is reshipped to Australia, are not included in this calculation, since the market in Australia has been created chiefly by the natural development of the country, the growth of English-speaking population, the gold discoveries, the great agricultural successes, etc.; and to include them in the figures presented as related to the growth of commerce through the control of distributing stations and their influence would not be justifiable. While the colonial trading station does not bear as important a relation to the extension of the commerce of the mother country to-day as it did before the introduction of modern facilities for intercommunication, the above facts seem to justify the conclusion that its value to the commerce of the governing country is, and must remain, very great.

The table which follows shows the exports from the United Kingdom, at quinquennial periods from 1840 to 1900, to the Orient, exclusive of Australia, to all British colonies, and to all countries other than the colonies. They show, as above indicated, that in the territory in which Great Britain established these two great distributing stations, Hongkong and Singapore, upon barren rocks, which of themselves sustain no consuming population, the exports to those spots and to adjacent territory have increased elevenfold, while those to the colonies and to all other countries have increased but fourfold.

## EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.

YEARS.	To the Orient. <sup>1</sup>	To British colonies.	To all countries other than British colonies.
	£	£	£
1840.....	2,009,535	17,099,006	34,208,734
1845.....	3,856,208	18,616,691	41,494,391
1850.....	3,055,384	19,428,891	51,938,994
1855.....	3,184,336	26,552,875	69,135,210
1860.....	9,748,206	43,664,835	92,226,392
1865.....	10,739,449	48,207,110	117,628,615
1870.....	16,146,478	51,814,223	147,772,599
1875.....	16,693,150	71,092,163	152,373,800
1880.....	18,436,805	75,254,179	147,806,267
1885.....	16,668,569	77,929,626	135,114,874
1890.....	19,751,887	87,370,383	176,160,202
1895.....	17,258,482	70,197,294	155,930,952
1899.....	24,074,533	87,597,468	176,894,743

<sup>1</sup> Does not include Australasia.

## VALUE OF THE MARKETS OF THE ORIENT.

The value of the markets of the great semicircle of countries and islands to which Hongkong, Singapore, and Manila may form convenient distributing points is more than a billion dollars annually, or, to be more nearly exact, about \$1,200,000,000 annually, an average of \$100,000,000 per month. The annual importations of Japan, Korea, Asiatic Russia, China, Indo-China, Siam, the Malayan Peninsula, India, the East Indian islands, and Australia, which aggregate the enormous sum above named, are chiefly of the classes produced only in the Temperate Zone. Breadstuffs, provisions, and manufactures of all kinds form the large bulk of this great importation, and it is in these articles, especially manufactures, that the United Kingdom has built up her commerce with the countries adjacent to her great distributing centers in the Orient from £2,000,000 in 1840 to twelve times that sum in 1900.



The table which follows shows the importations, in the latest available year, of the countries commercially adjacent to the three great distributing points above mentioned—Hongkong, the Straits Settlements, and Manila:

IMPORTS INTO THE ORIENT AT LATEST AVAILABLE DATE.

COUNTRIES.	Value.	COUNTRIES.	Value.
	<i>Dollars.</i>		<i>Dollars.</i>
British East Indies .....	221,552,000	Hawaiian Islands .....	15,200,000
British Australasia .....	277,879,000	Mauritius .....	15,010,000
China .....	193,266,000	Persia .....	25,476,000
Japan .....	110,200,000	Ceylon .....	20,722,000
Straits Settlements .....	109,955,000	Hongkong .....	20,000,000
Dutch East Indies .....	66,458,000	French East Indies .....	791,000
Russia, Asiatic .....	21,579,000	Korea .....	8,068,000
Siam .....	19,384,000		
Philippine Islands .....	20,300,000	Total .....	1,145,860,000

(F.) WHETHER THE TRADE OF THE MOTHER COUNTRY WITH THE COLONY GROWS MORE RAPIDLY THAN WITH OTHER COUNTRIES.

This question has naturally been one of constant discussion in conjunction with the broad question as to the advisability of the control and maintenance of colonies by the great nations of the world. Naturally the question of the benefit to the commerce of the mother country likely to ensue from the control of the colonies has been and continues to be one of the important subjects discussed in considering the wisdom of acceptance or rejection of colonial responsibility. The question is elaborately discussed by Adam Smith, by Mill, and by other early writers on political economy, while by more recent students of modern commercial and colonial affairs the question of "trade and the flag" has been much discussed.

"The chief advantages of colonization to the mother country, economically speaking," says Merivale, in his seventh lecture on colonization and colonies, delivered before the University of Oxford in 1840, "are the opening of new sources of production, whence articles may be obtained more cheaply or more abundantly than heretofore, and the opening of new markets for the disposal of the commodities of the mother country, more profitable and more rapidly extending than those previously resorted to, by reason of the speedy growth of wealth in new communities. \* \* \* The first is only useful as a means to the last."

"An advantage which a dominant community may derive from its supremacy over a dependency," says Sir George Cornewall Lewis, in writing of colonial management in 1841, "consists in the trade which she may carry on with it under circumstances more favorable to her traders than if the dependency were an independent state. \* \* \* The most plausible opinion respecting the commercial advantages derivable from dependencies seems to be that the dominant country, by securing to itself an unrestricted trade with them, can prevent them from establishing the protecting and prohibitory duties which, if they were independent states, they would probably impose upon imports." This advantage, which the writer believes would be temporary by reason of a growing disposition toward free trade, has failed of realization through the absolute freedom of action which the British Government has given its colonies in determining their tariff, and which, as shown elsewhere, forms an important factor in the revenue-producing systems of nearly all of the colonies.

TRADE WITH MOTHER COUNTRY GREATER THAN IT WOULD BE IF THE COLONY WERE CONTROLLED BY ANOTHER COUNTRY.

Writing upon this question, Mr. C. P. Lucas, in his introduction to the reprint of Lewis's *Government of Dependencies*, 1891, says: "The advantage of trade with colonies alluded to by Sir George Cornewall Lewis partly exists, partly has disappeared. It exists in the sense that if India or Singapore or Hongkong were owned by another European power, British trade would no doubt be seriously crippled by hostile tariffs. On the other hand, it is hard to see that Great Britain derives any trade advantages from her connection with the self-governing colonies, seeing that these colonies treat her commerce no better and no worse than that of foreign nations. It is impossible to prove that 'trade follows the flag.'"

In an appendix to the same work, Mr. Lucas says: "The question so often discussed at the present day is a very different one from that which troubled writers and thinkers on colonial subjects fifty years ago, being whether, under existing conditions, the trade between the mother country and the colonies is greater in proportion than that between the mother country and foreign countries; in other words, whether trade follows the flag. It is really impossible to give any satisfactory answer to this question, and no attempt is now made to do so, but the following remarks may prove useful. It is very difficult to make out that there has been any marked change of any kind of late years in the percentage of British trade with the colonies and with foreign countries, respectively. In the case of those colonies which, if not dependencies of Great Britain, would certainly be dependencies of another European power, as, for example, India, trade follows the flag in the sense that *British trade with India would be in a great measure annihilated if India belonged to another, and therefore, under present conditions, a protectionist nation.* Again, in the case of the self-governing colonies, it is difficult to suppose that the fact of the colonial governments having their agents-general in Great Britain doing business in or through Great Britain, raising their loans mainly in Great Britain, and being represented abroad by British consuls, does not determine the course of trade to some extent in the direction of the flag. It is difficult to doubt that community of race, language, customs, and associations has some effect in making peoples deal with each other."

Professor Seeley, of the University of Cambridge, in his lectures on the expansion of England, points out that England's expansion has been largely due to her relations with new countries. "In manufactures," he says, "our success depends upon our peculiar relation to the great producing countries of the globe. The vast harvests of the world are reaped in countries where land is wide and population generally thin, but those countries can not manufacture their own raw materials, because all hands are engaged in producing, and there is no surplus population to be employed in manufacture. The present industrial greatness of England is composed only in part of her greatness in manufacture; she has also the carrying trade of the world, \* \* \* which implies great sea traffic, and the great sea traffic did not begin until the new world was thrown open."

Mr. Alleyne Ireland, writing in 1900 upon the question of trade and the flag, says that the history of the trade of England in recent years does not indicate a more rapid growth of commerce with the colonies than with other parts of the world. The value of importations into the United Kingdom from British colonies and possessions, he says, has increased during the past forty years at about the same rate as the value of the total importations of the United Kingdom. The value of exports of produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom to the British colonies has increased at about the same rate as the value of the total exports of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom during the past forty years. The imports into France from her colonies and possessions, however, are steadily increasing. In 1877 the value of colonial imports was 4.5 per cent of the value of the total imports; in 1896 the proportion was 10 per cent. The exports of produce and manufactures of France to French colonies and possessions are also steadily increasing. In 1877 the value of such exports from France was 5.1 per cent of the total exports of French produce and manufactures, and in 1896 the proportion was 9.8 per cent. To this it may be added that the 1899 figures show that the percentage of French produce and manufactures exported to the colonies was 11.4 per cent of the total exports of France.

#### COMMERCE OF THE PRINCIPAL COLONIZING NATIONS WITH THEIR COLONIES.

An examination of the table of exports of the three principal colonizing nations of the world at the present day to their respective colonies and of their total exports in each case shows that the exports of the Netherlands to her colonies have not increased as rapidly as her exports to other parts of the world; that those of the United Kingdom to her colonies have increased in about the same proportion as those to other parts of the world, and that those of France to her colonies show a much larger proportionate gain than those to other parts of the world.

The following table shows the exports from the United Kingdom to her colonies and to all countries other than British colonies at quinquennial periods from 1840 to 1899. It shows that exports from the United Kingdom to the colonies have increased at about the same proportion as those to other parts of the world, the total in 1899 being in each case about five times that of 1840:

YEARS.	EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM TO—	
	British colonies.	All other countries.
1840.....	£ 17,099,006	£ 34,203,734
1845.....	18,616,691	41,494,391
1850.....	19,428,891	51,938,994
1855.....	26,552,875	69,135,210
1860.....	43,664,835	92,226,392
1865.....	48,207,210	117,628,615
1870.....	51,814,233	147,772,899
1875.....	71,092,168	152,373,267
1880.....	75,254,179	147,806,267
1885.....	77,929,626	135,114,874
1890.....	87,370,383	176,160,262
1895.....	70,197,294	155,930,952
1899.....	87,597,468	176,894,743

The following presents the imports into French colonies from France and the total exports of France in 1887, 1896, and 1899. It shows that the imports into the French colonies from France have during that period increased 94 per cent, while the total exports of France have meantime increased but 30 per cent:

YEARS.	Imports into French colonies from France.	Total exports of France.
1887.....	Francs. 243,688,000	4,238,000,000
1896.....	378,161,000	4,593,600,000
1899.....	472,804,000	5,533,500,000

#### PRINCIPAL IMPORTS OF THE FRENCH COLONIES.

The following table shows the value of imports of French colonies during the year 1896, by principal articles:

Textiles .....	\$10,104,917	Live animals .....	\$728,252
Spirits, wines, etc .....	4,858,154	Vegetables, fruits, and seeds .....	644,388
Cereals and flour .....	4,654,325	Arms and ammunition .....	606,818
Colonial products .....	3,144,032	Furniture and woodwork .....	520,754
Machinery, hardware, etc .....	2,977,700	Dressed skins and furs .....	488,985
Building stone, combustibles, etc .....	2,477,472	Drugs .....	322,814
Animal products, hides, etc .....	2,162,551	Coloring matters .....	184,518
Yarns and threads .....	1,812,207	Clothing .....	119,638
Oils and vegetable essences .....	1,536,537	Matting, wickerwork, etc .....	119,594
Metals .....	1,485,202	Dyes .....	111,375
Chemical products .....	1,268,507	Vegetable fibers, etc .....	99,174
Fish .....	917,754	Musical instruments .....	38,110
Paper, printed matter, etc .....	862,504	Sundry products and manufactures .....	3,190,283
Pottery and glassware .....	747,621		
Timber .....	733,041	Total .....	46,917,236

The following table shows the exports from the Netherlands to her East Indian colonies and to the entire world at intervals from 1884 to 1899. It will be seen that the total exports have increased more rapidly than those to her colonies, the increase in exports to all countries being about 85 per cent in the period under consideration, and those to the colonies about 58 per cent:

## EXPORTS OF NETHERLANDS.

YEARS.	To Java and Madura.	To all countries.
	<i>Guilders.</i>	<i>Guilders.</i>
1884.....	45,800,000	841,000,000
1889.....	47,047,000	1,114,806,000
1894.....	53,754,000	1,114,739,000
1899.....	68,100,000	1,583,000,000

## BRITISH VIEW OF THE PRESENT IMPORTANCE OF COLONIAL TRADE.

A recent London letter to the Philadelphia Inquirer has the following:

"It will amaze a very large number of the mercantile public, even though they be well posted in trade statistics, to learn what an enormously valuable asset in England's trade is the colonial business. A leading journal that battles strongly for British trade, and which is kept busy in pointing out to British traders what their American and German rivals are doing to best them in the race for commercial supremacy, says that it must again call attention to the great subject of union with the colonies.

"We advert to it once again," writes the editor, 'because we think the present a favorable opportunity to take a long step forward. Interested in the question in its commercial aspect chiefly there seems to us two reasons, overpowering in their nature, why policy no less than patriotism demands the closest possible combination among the peoples of the Empire. In the first place the colonies, taken as a whole, occupy the second place among the traders of the world. Without going into detail, confining ourselves to the chief participants in the traffic, and assuming for the present that the total of their interchanges may be represented by round numbers, say 2,000, the shares of the several holders stand thus:

Great Britain and Ireland .....	594
The British colonies .....	407
Germany .....	354
The United States .....	348
France .....	297
Total .....	2,000

"In these circumstances can anyone entertain a doubt where lies the chief interest of England as a mercantile community? The merest exigencies of trade call upon us to cultivate by all means the closest relations with the Empire over sea. High as is the position they have now attained, we should not forget that the British colonies are that portion of the world which is developing most rapidly in all things that make for national greatness, and that their resources, far from being exhausted, are but beginning to be exploited. Is it not patent that, if we had shown one-half the zeal in gaining the affections of the colonies and binding them to us that we have lavished on France, the United States, and Germany during the last thirty years, the Empire, vast as it is, would be to-day immeasurably richer, immeasurably more powerful?

"The colonies, I may add, most certainly are England's best customers, as is shown in Mr. Mulhall's paper on British trade in the March Contemporary. Take some figures for the last decade, 1889-1898. England's aggregate interchanges, export and import, with great industrial communities, were as follows:

The British colonies .....	£1,788,000,000
The United States .....	1,399,000,000
Germany .....	824,000,000
France .....	682,000,000
Total .....	4,693,000,000

"Thus England's colonial trade shows an excess of £389,000,000 over her United States trade, an excess of £924,000,000 over that with Germany, and of £1,106,000,000 over the French trade in the space of ten years. The contrast is still more striking if one divides the aggregates according to exports and imports. It is well known how England's sales to European nations dwindle year by year under the operation of hostile and commercial restrictions. Take the United States for the period under review. Her account gives the following result:

Purchases from the United States .....	£1,019,000,000
Sales to the United States .....	380,000,000
Total .....	1,399,000,000

"The reports for the British colonies indicate much more equal conditions of trading and a freer access to their markets:

Purchases from the colonies .....	£949,000,000
Sales to the colonies .....	839,000,000
Total .....	1,788,000,000

"It will be seen by the above statement that the United Kingdom finds her colonies by far her largest customer."

## COMPARISON OF ENGLAND'S COMMERCE WITH HER COLONIES AND WITH OTHER COUNTRIES.

But there is another standpoint from which to examine the question of the commerce between the mother country and the colony, and equally important with that which considers only the relative growth of the colonial and foreign commerce of the country. The question is not only how much market the mother country finds in the colony, or how much material she draws from it to meet her recurring requirements, but also how little she would sell to it or buy from it if the territory were under control of some other country or were an independent country. For it goes without saying that this would be true in one sense or another; that all inhabited territory, if not a colony of a given country, would be either a colony of some other country or an independent nation.

## WHAT THE COMMERCE WOULD HAVE BEEN HAD NOT THE COLONIAL RELATIONSHIP EXISTED.

It is important, therefore, to measure not only the commerce of the mother country with the colony, but to determine what it would have been without the colonial relationship and the gain by reason of the colonial relationship.

To determine this we must know the share which the mother country supplies of the commerce of the colony and the share which it supplies of the commerce of the other countries of the world; and if it supplies a larger proportion of the commerce of the colony than of the independent countries of the world or their colonies, it may be assumed that the mother country is the gainer commercially by about the difference between the two. If, for example, Great Britain supplies one-fifth of the imports of the independent countries of the world, and at the same time supplies two-fifths of the imports of her own colonies, it is reasonable to assume at least a part of the large share supplied in the imports of the colonies is gained by reason of the colonial relationship, and by determining the total value of the colonial imports from the mother country it is practicable to approximately determine what amount is drawn from the mother country because of the colonial relationship. The table which follows shows the total exports of each of the three countries having important colonial possessions—the United Kingdom, France, and the Netherlands—and the proportion of those exports sent to the colonies and to the foreign world. These figures relate to the year 1897 only, but for general purposes of comparison and study are of equal value with those of earlier or later years.

## EXPORTS OF THE PRINCIPAL COLONIZING COUNTRIES AND THE SHARE WHICH THEY FORMED OF THE IMPORTS OF THE COLONIES AND OF FOREIGN COUNTRIES, RESPECTIVELY.

NATIONALITIES.	TOTAL EXPORTS.			EXPORTS TO COLONIES.		EXPORTS TO FOREIGN WORLD.	
	Value.	Per cent of exports sent to colonies.	Per cent sent to foreign world.	Value.	Per cent of total imports of colonies supplied by mother country.	Value.	Per cent of total imports of foreign world supplied by country named.
United Kingdom ....	<i>Dollars.</i> 1,431,598,345	29.56	70.44	<i>Dollars.</i> 423,212,102	34.80	<i>Dollars.</i> 1,008,386,243	13.04
France .....	894,190,176	7.42	92.58	66,393,000	22.54	827,796,177	9.86
Netherlands .....	542,079,435	4.16	95.84	22,548,582	31.76	519,830,853	5.65

The table which immediately follows shows the total imports of the colonies and the share drawn respectively from the mother country and from the foreign world.

## IMPORTS OF COLONIES AND SHARE TAKEN FROM THE MOTHER COUNTRY AND FROM THE FOREIGN WORLD, RESPECTIVELY.

NATIONALITIES OF COLONIES.	Total value of imports of colonies.	IMPORTS OF COLONIES FROM THE MOTHER COUNTRY.		IMPORTS OF COLONIES FROM FOREIGN WORLD.	
		Value.	Per cent of total imports from mother country.	Value.	Per cent of total imports from foreign world.
United Kingdom .....	<i>Dollars.</i> 1,216,284,637	<i>Dollars.</i> 423,212,102	34.80	<i>Dollars.</i> 793,072,535	65.20
France .....	294,571,646	66,393,000	22.54	228,178,646	77.46
Netherlands .....	71,011,692	22,548,582	31.76	44,463,110	68.24

Still another table shows the total imports and exports of the United Kingdom from 1870 to 1900, inclusive, and the amount imported from and exported to her colonies during the same period.

## IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM FROM 1870 TO 1900 AND THE AMOUNT DRAWN FROM OR SENT TO HER COLONIES.

YEARS.	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	Total imports.	Imports from colonies.	Total exports.	Exports to colonies.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
1870.....	1,475,802,590	815,606,938	1,187,818,128	269,561,917
1871.....	1,610,886,833	351,984,010	1,380,016,278	270,389,037
1872.....	1,726,116,521	386,267,989	1,580,946,561	319,287,259
1873.....	1,806,869,996	394,235,759	1,518,504,689	346,240,316
1874.....	1,801,007,465	399,845,456	1,448,515,983	379,149,151
1875.....	1,819,776,951	410,849,255	1,370,466,370	373,041,611
1876.....	1,825,690,362	410,401,481	1,249,603,334	341,384,435
1877.....	1,919,443,883	435,814,531	1,228,041,906	368,647,888
1878.....	1,794,622,816	379,810,859	1,194,647,195	350,262,514
1879.....	1,766,499,960	381,174,348	1,210,704,241	323,665,917
1880.....	2,001,248,678	450,242,765	1,393,835,999	396,753,915
1881.....	1,932,109,943	445,477,765	1,445,753,324	421,834,021
1882.....	2,009,969,922	483,890,460	1,492,864,365	449,361,013
1883.....	2,077,467,869	480,233,544	1,486,409,501	439,933,016
1884.....	1,898,025,366	466,273,531	1,440,326,242	429,729,630
1885.....	1,865,315,553	410,741,084	1,321,129,720	416,034,710
1886.....	1,702,610,586	388,488,695	1,308,891,227	400,184,346
1887.....	1,702,780,440	407,806,203	1,368,765,830	400,367,265
1888.....	1,886,429,343	422,975,439	1,453,027,603	446,393,791
1889.....	2,081,098,536	473,345,335	1,595,831,772	442,053,886
1890.....	2,047,297,603	467,968,548	1,697,438,982	459,993,695
1891.....	2,119,074,911	484,045,050	1,504,301,909	454,329,956
1892.....	2,062,392,927	475,779,718	1,419,266,868	395,215,904
1893.....	1,969,415,018	446,596,048	1,348,693,381	382,425,688
1894.....	1,987,210,018	457,023,556	1,332,378,922	382,438,613
1895.....	2,027,820,221	464,897,767	1,391,003,409	370,205,123
1896.....	2,150,063,031	453,596,873	1,422,329,445	441,148,230
1897.....	2,194,332,434	457,543,137	1,481,598,345	423,212,102
1898.....	2,289,097,374	483,895,391	1,430,819,072	438,523,897
1899.....	2,360,425,665	519,884,764	1,603,680,413	458,665,659
1900.....	2,645,545,281	583,030,835	1,724,559,874	496,500,059

GREAT BRITAIN OBTAINS A MUCH LARGER SHARE OF THE COMMERCE OF HER COLONIES THAN SHE DOES OF THAT OF FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

A study of the three preceding tables presents some interesting and striking facts with reference to the relative share which the great colonizing countries supply of the imports of their colonies and of those parts of the world which do not bear colonial relationship to them. The total exports of the United Kingdom in the year in question (1897) were \$1,431,598,345 in value, and of that sum 29.56 per cent went to her colonies and 70.44 per cent to the foreign world. The exports to the colonies alone were \$423,212,102, and these formed 34.8 per cent of the imports of the colonies. Her exports to the foreign world were \$1,008,386,243, and they formed 13.04 per cent of the imports of the foreign world or of the independent countries of the world and their colonies as distinguished from the colonies of the mother country. Thus the United Kingdom in 1897 supplied 34.8 per cent of the imports of the colonies and only 13.04 per cent of the imports of the foreign world, and it seems reasonable to assume that the difference in favor of her sales to the colonies was in a considerable degree due to the colonial relationship. The imports of the colonies in the year in question were \$1,216,284,637, and the 34.8 per cent which they took from the mother country amounted to \$423,212,102. Had they taken from the United Kingdom only the percentage which the foreign countries took from her—viz, 13.04 per cent—the total value of their imports from the United Kingdom in that year would have been \$158,603,517 instead of the \$423,212,102 which they actually did take from her. It is scarcely proper to assume that the entire difference is due to the existence or nonexistence of the colonial relationship, since the proportion of its purchases which the importing country takes from another will depend, in some degree, upon whether the other country has for sale the particular class of goods which it requires. Thus the small percentage which the United Kingdom supplies of the imports of European countries is chiefly due to the fact that they require food stuffs and raw materials, while the principal surplus of the United Kingdom is in manufactures. Yet it seems reasonable to assume that a considerable share of the difference in favor of the United Kingdom in the percentage of imports taken from her by the colonies and foreign countries, respectively, is due to the colonial relationship, and that her sales to the territory which she now controls are very much greater than they would be if it were controlled by other manufacturing and exporting nations.

## ENORMOUS COMMERCIAL GAINS THROUGH COLONIAL CONTROL.

The table last presented shows the total exports of the United Kingdom and the exports to the colonies in each year from 1870 to 1900. The total of the exports from the United Kingdom to the colonies in the period covered by the table is \$12,287,024,474. It has been shown in the preceding paragraph that had Great Britain's exports to her colonies in 1897 formed only the same percentage of their imports which British exports formed of the imports of the independent countries the total would have been \$158,603,517, instead of \$423,212,102. This \$158,603,517 forms 37.5 per cent of that which she actually did obtain under the colonial relationship. Applying this percentage (37.5) to the grand total of British exports to her colonies from 1870 to 1900, inclusive (\$12,287,024,474), and it will be seen that, had they been independent territory or territory controlled by another nation, her sales to them would have been (accepting this basis of calculation) only \$4,607,634,178 instead of \$12,287,024,474.

An examination of the imports of the French, Dutch, German, Belgian, Spanish, and Portuguese colonies shows that the percentage of their imports which they take from the United Kingdom is extremely small, and fully justifies the assertion that a very large proportion of the sales of the United Kingdom to her colonies is due to the colonial relation, and that it would have been but a small percentage of its present enormous total had the territory which she now controls become the possessions or colonies of some other manufacturing and exporting nation.

## FRANCE GAINS COMMERCIALLY IN HER COLONIAL TERRITORY.

A similar calculation with reference to the other countries having colonies gives equally interesting and important results. France, in 1897, supplied to her colonies 22.5 per cent of their total imports, while to the other countries of the world she supplied but 9.3 per cent of their imports. The Netherlands furnished to its colonies 31.7 per cent of their imports, and the other parts of the world about 6 per cent of their imports.

## IMPORTS FROM THE COLONIES ALSO LARGE AND BENEFICIAL TO COLONY AND MOTHER COUNTRY.

Turning to the other and equally important side of the commercial relationship between the mother country and the colonies, namely, the purchases in and imports from the colonies, the figures are equally interesting and striking. The total imports of the United Kingdom from 1870 to 1900, as shown in the accompanying table, were \$60,457,037,416, and of this sum \$13,555,620,074 was taken from her colonies. Thus while the United Kingdom has found a market in the colonies largely in excess of what she would have sold had not the colonial relationship existed, she has, during that time, expended in the colonies more than thirteen billions of dollars in the purchase of their commodities, and in doing so has added not alone to the prosperity of the producing population of the colonies, but incidentally to that of her own citizens, who, according to Sir Charles Dilke, have not less than four billions of dollars' worth of investments in the colonies.

## THE COLONIAL MARKET IS MORE RELIABLE AND PERMANENT, ESPECIALLY FOR MANUFACTURES AND THE PRODUCTS OF LABOR.

But the magnitude of the total purchases of the colonies from the mother country in a given year, or the share which they took of her total exports in that year, is not the only question to be considered. It is equally important to know whether the market which the colonies offer is more reliable and permanent than that offered by foreign countries. In this age of sharp commercial rivalry, when all of the great manufacturing nations are bending every energy to the capture and retention of markets wherever they can be found, it is important to determine whether the closer relationship which naturally exists between the mercantile communities of the colony and the mother country has a perceptible effect in retaining that field for the governing country against the rivalries of the competing countries. This inquiry is especially important with reference to manufactures. The natural requirements of the densely populated sections of the world assures a continuance of the demand for the great natural products, such as breadstuffs, provisions, cotton, coal, iron, and wood. But in manufactures, in which labor forms so large a share of the value, and in which competition is the greatest, it is especially important to have steady and reliable markets.

It is interesting, therefore, to examine the exportation of manufactures from the United Kingdom to her colonies and to foreign countries, respectively, at certain periods sufficiently distant from each other to determine the relative growth in each of these fields. To facilitate this study a series of tables was prepared by Dr. J. Forbes Watson, director of the Indian Museum, London, in 1878, showing what share the British colonies took of the total exportation of certain leading British manufactures in 1869 and 1876, respectively; and for the purpose of making the study more complete and applying it to the present time, the figures have been extended to include the year 1900.

The first of these tables includes seven classes of articles of personal use and attire, exported from the United Kingdom in 1869, 1876, and 1900, the export value amounting in 1869 to a little over \$45,000,000, and in 1900 to about \$55,000,000. It will be seen from an examination of the table that in every article the colonies took a larger percentage of the total exports in 1900 than in 1869, and the foreign countries thus a less percentage, and that while the exports increased over 15 per cent during the period, the colonies in 1900 took 82.5 per cent of the increased total, against only 63.5 per cent in 1869, foreign countries taking in 1869 36.5 per cent, and in 1900 only 17.5 per cent.

## PROPORTION EXPORTED TO THE BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN 1869, 1876, 1900.

ARTICLES.	1869	1876	1900
	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Apparel and slops .....	70.6	83.6	85.8
Hosiery (stockings and socks only) .....	48.1	62.0	89.8
Haberdashery and millinery .....	57.1	78.1	82.5
Hats .....	67.9	58.0	62.1
Boots and shoes .....	76.5	87.5	85.0
Blankets and flannels .....	57.0	74.7	81.1
Umbrellas .....	56.9	74.4	87.8
Total articles of personal use and attire .....	63.5	78.5	82.5
Total value of articles .....	9,500,000	10,800,000	11,000,000
Value exported to British possessions .....	6,000,000	8,500,000	9,100,000

Another table includes 19 articles of domestic consumption, largely manufactures, of which the British exports in 1869 aggregated about \$55,000,000, and in 1900 about \$85,000,000. Of these it will be seen that the colonies took 52.7 per cent in 1869 and 63.6 per cent of the increased total in 1900, foreign countries taking 47.3 per cent in 1869 and only 36.4 per cent in 1900.

## PROPORTION OF TOTAL VALUE EXPORTED TO THE BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN 1869 AND 1900.

ARTICLES.	1869	1900	Value.
	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>£</i>
Cheese .....	53.5	51.0	36,729
Pickles, vinegar, and sauce .....	69.0	64.4	822,269
Provisions (unenumerated) .....	59.1	68.4	974,458
British spirits .....	47.4	75.7	2,363,430
Beer and ale .....	72.8	69.1	1,760,552
Soap .....	54.1	63.2	839,510
Medicines .....	52.1	67.7	1,262,685
Perfumery .....	55.4	65.1	130,100
Candles .....	92.3	51.0	398,138
Glass of all kinds .....	57.0	62.0	1,033,605
Lucifer matches .....	76.7	90.3	98,868
Furniture .....	59.5	53.6	636,629
Musical instruments .....	88.4	71.9	200,142
Paper hangings and stationery .....	81.0	65.4	1,294,131
Books .....	44.5	60.6	1,468,816
Plated and gilt wares .....	57.1	65.8	405,033
Cordage .....	67.7	46.2	522,461
Saddlery and harness .....	68.7	67.7	477,423
Hardware and cutlery .....	28.3	48.7	2,139,738
Averages for the articles of domestic consumption .....	52.7	63.5	
Total value of group .....	11,300,000	17,000,000	
Value exported to the British possessions .....	6,000,000	10,800,000	



## RELATIVE GROWTH OF EXPORTS OF MANUFACTURES TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES AND COLONIES.

The next table is extremely suggestive to the manufacturing country. It shows the total value of the exportations of the articles mentioned in the above tables in 1869 and 1900, the value sent to foreign countries and to the colonies, respectively, and the percentage of increase or decrease in each case. It will be seen that of apparel and slops, the exports to foreign countries increased 7 per cent, and that to colonies 168.4 per cent; of haberdashery and millinery, the exports to foreign countries decreased 85.9 per cent, and those to the colonies 52.9 per cent; that of the seven classes of articles for personal use mentioned in the first table, the exports to foreign countries decreased 47.2 per cent, while those to the colonies increased 35.5 per cent. Of the exports of hardware and cutlery, the exports to foreign countries show a decrease of 56.9 per cent, and to the colonies an increase of 2.4 per cent; while taking the entire nineteen classes of articles included in the second table, their total shows an increase of 16.5 per cent to foreign countries and 86.2 per cent increase to the colonies. Taking the total of the two tables, which include seven classes of articles for personal use and nineteen classes for domestic consumption, and aggregating over \$100,000,000 in value in 1869 and nearly \$140,000,000 in 1900, the exports to foreign countries show a DECREASE of 9.5 per cent from 1869 to 1900, while those to the colonies show an INCREASE of 59 per cent.

ARTICLES.	Exports in 1869.	Exports in 1900.	Increase.	Decrease.
Apparel and slops:	£	£	Per cent.	Per cent.
To foreign countries.....	702,601	751,922	7.0	
To British possessions.....	1,689,716	4,534,824	168.4	
Haberdashery and millinery:				
To foreign countries.....	1,897,293	268,713		85.9
To British possessions.....	2,697,662	1,265,738		52.9
Total of articles of personal use and attire:				
To foreign countries.....	3,651,258	1,926,208		47.2
To British possessions.....	6,690,174	9,064,960	35.5	
Beer and ale:				
To foreign countries.....	516,206	544,171	5.4	
To British possessions.....	1,376,510	1,216,381		11.6
Hardware and cutlery:				
To foreign countries.....	2,576,402	1,098,639		56.9
To British possessions.....	1,016,907	1,041,099	2.4	
Total of articles of domestic consumption:				
To foreign countries.....	5,306,365	6,183,325	16.5	
To British possessions.....	5,790,762	10,781,392	86.2	
Total of articles of personal use and attire and of domestic consumption:				
Total exports.....	21,438,559	27,955,885	30.4	
To foreign countries.....	8,957,623	8,109,533		9.5
To British possessions.....	12,480,936	19,846,352	59.0	

The next table shows the total exportation of cotton manufactures (exclusive of yarns) in 1869 and 1900, and the value to the colonies and to foreign countries, respectively, in each year. It will be seen that in piece goods the exportation to foreign countries shows a decrease of 27.1 per cent, while that to the colonies shows an increase of 38.2 per cent. In the statement of total exports of cotton goods, valued at over \$300,000,000, in 1900, the exports to foreign countries show a DECREASE of 5 per cent, and to the British colonies an INCREASE of 69.1 per cent in the period from 1869 to 1900.

ARTICLES.	1869	1900	Comparative increase.	Comparative decrease.
Plain cotton piece goods:	£	£	Per cent.	Per cent.
Total exports.....	30,126,846	29,421,467		2.3
To foreign countries.....	18,716,392	13,655,407		27.1
To British possessions.....	11,410,454	15,766,060	38.2	
Total cotton manufactures, exclusive of yarn:				
Total exports.....	53,014,835	62,009,150	17.0	
To foreign countries.....	37,308,666	35,456,314		5.0
To British possessions.....	15,706,169	26,552,836	69.1	

The next table shows the value of certain classes of partly manufactured and wholly manufactured articles exported from the United Kingdom in 1876 and 1900, respectively, and the share sent to the colonies in each year, the purpose being to determine the relative value of the colonial market for partly manufactured or wholly manufactured goods. It will be seen that while the colonies took 14 per cent of the partly manufactured articles exported in each of the years named, they increased their percentage of the wholly manufactured articles from 36.8 per cent in 1876 to 43.3 per cent in 1900.

ARTICLES.	EXPORTS IN 1876 TO—		Proportion exported to British possessions.	EXPORTS IN 1900 TO		Proportion exported to British possessions.
	Foreign countries.	British possessions.		Foreign countries.	British possessions.	
Cotton industry:	£	£	Per cent.	£	£	Per cent.
Yarn.....	9,900,000	2,900,000	21.9	6,021,999	1,719,130	22.2
Manufactures.....	32,900,000	22,000,000	40.0	35,456,314	26,552,836	42.8
Woolen industry:						
Yarn (woolen, worsted, and alpaca).....	5,100,000	14,000	0.3	5,998,624	124,725	2.0
Manufactures.....	14,200,000	4,400,000	23.4	10,106,540	5,576,614	35.6
Iron industry:						
Pig, puddled, and old iron.....	2,800,000	100,000	3.6	6,073,420	290,208	4.6
Manufactured iron of all kinds.....	9,600,000	6,500,000	40.4	10,398,581	9,870,768	48.7
Steel industry:						
Steel, wrought and unwrought.....	1,800,000	800,000	17.7	3,854,283	1,505,415	28.9
Hardware and cutlery.....	2,100,000	1,400,000	40.6	1,098,639	1,041,099	48.7
Tools and implements.....	200,000	200,000	53.2	877,987	613,390	41.1
Total of the above:						
Half manufactures.....	19,100,000	3,300,000	14.7	21,948,826	3,639,478	14.2
Finished manufactures.....	59,000,000	34,500,000	36.8	57,937,061	43,654,707	43.3

## THE COLONIES OFFER BY FAR THE BEST AND MOST PERMANENT FIELD FOR THE SALE OF MANUFACTURES.

A study of this series of tables seems to show beyond doubt that the colonial market has been in the experiences of Great Britain the more permanent one, especially for manufactures. The fact that in practically every class of manufactures the exports to the colonies show an increase, while in many of them the exports to foreign countries show an actual decrease, and that in the three great groups of manufactures—articles of personal use, articles of domestic consumption, and cotton manufactures, aggregating nearly \$450,000,000 in value in 1900—the exports to foreign countries show in each case a decrease, and those to the colonies in each case a large increase, apparently justifies the conclusion that the colonial market is more permanent in its character, especially for manufactures, than that offered by foreign countries, where competition is greater both with local manufacturers and with other manufacturing countries.

## "THE FLAG AND TRADE."

An elaborate and exceedingly valuable discussion of the question under the above title, by A. W. Flux, A. M., read before the British Statistical Society in June, 1899, is printed on another page, and is worthy a careful examination in a detailed study of this subject. Its extreme length renders it impracticable to present it as a part of this general discussion. The paper discusses the commerce of each of the colonizing countries of the world with their respective colonies, including United Kingdom, France, Netherlands, Germany, Spain, Portugal, and Denmark. (See p. 1425 et seq.)

## (G.) DO THE MUTUAL ADVANTAGES OF INTERCHANGE OF THE PRODUCTS OF THE COLONY AND THE MOTHER COUNTRY LEAD TO THE REMOVAL IN PART OR IN FULL OF TARIFF OR OTHER TRADE RESTRICTIONS BETWEEN THE TWO SECTIONS?

It is a generally accepted historical fact that nations which have attempted to control and monopolize the trade of their colonies by restrictions, either through the carrying trade or by prohibiting or restricting their trade with other countries, have failed, and that such failure has resulted either in commercial depression in the colonies or in their absolute loss to the mother country. The quotations made from distinguished authors in the early part of this work all point to this fact, and cite not only the commercial restrictions of Spain as one of the causes of the loss of her colonies, but those of Great Britain toward her American colonies as the cause of her loss of those colonies which became the United States. English writers on colonial questions frankly point to this as one of the great errors in the series of English colonial experiments and from which that country has profited by an entire change of policy in this particular, the trade relations between the United Kingdom and her colonies being now absolutely unrestricted, at least as relates to any action by the mother country, while in one case, that of Canada, the colony has voluntarily given to the mother country certain trade advantages in the tariff recently adopted. Spanish writers on colonial subjects now frankly admit that this was one of the chief causes of Spain's colonial misfortunes and the final loss of her colonies, and French students of colonial matters also point out these historical facts, and urge that restriction of colonial trade by the mother country not only fails to obtain permanent advantages for the trade of the mother country but is likely to prove fatal in her relations with the colonies. Students of these subjects in other countries where colonial matters have attracted especial attention also point out these facts as an important lesson to be drawn from the earlier experiences of all colonizing nations.

## TRADE RESTRICTIONS GRADUALLY ABANDONED.

The result of these national experiments and experiences in the attempts to control colonial trade for the benefit of the mother country has been the withdrawal of all trade restrictions, and in some cases the substitution of trade privileges for trade restrictions. Great Britain long ago repealed the law which required colonial trade to be carried in British vessels, and now places no restriction upon the imports, exports, manufactures, or productions of the colonies, or upon the sale of manufactures or productions by her colonies. Colonial products, like those of all other parts of the world, are admitted free of duty, with the exception of a few designated articles; while the rates on these few dutiable articles are nominally the same, whether the product is from the colony or elsewhere, though beet-sugar producers of other countries are now asserting that the recently adopted British tariff on sugar gives, indirectly, to the cane-sugar products of the British colonies slight advantages over the beet-sugar product of other countries; while it has been also asserted that the duties on rum are so adjusted as to give some slight advantages to colonial producers of that article. Generally speaking, however, it may be said that the low-tariff colonizing countries—England and Netherlands—make no restrictions upon the commerce of their colonies with other parts of the world, and place the products of the colonies upon the same footing with those of other countries in their entrance to the market of the mother country. The fact, however, that the countries mentioned admit nearly all foreign products to their markets free or at a very low rate of duty makes it apparent that tariff privileges in favor of the products of the colonies would in their case be impracticable, without a change in general tariff policy.

## TENDENCY OF THE CANADIAN PREFERENTIAL TARIFF.

In the British colonies, where the tariff is fixed in practically all cases by the colony itself and not by the British Government, no trade advantages for the mother country had been given until Canada, in 1898, passed an act giving to the products of the mother country and certain of the British colonies a reduction of 25 per cent in the tariff rates; and this was followed by another act increasing the reduction to 33½ per cent. A comparison of the figures of British exports to Canada since the adoption of that act with those of earlier years shows a marked increase during the years following its enactment. In 1897 the total exports of British and Irish produce from the United Kingdom to the Dominion of Canada amounted to £5,171,851; in 1898 to £5,838,000; and in 1899 to £6,969,535; an increase in the two years of over 33 per cent. A further study of the exports from the United Kingdom to Canada in the years preceding the enactment of this law shows a steady decline up to the very year of the enactment of that law. In the decade preceding the enactment of this law, 1887–1897, British exports of domestic produce and manufactures to Canada fell from £7,758,116 to £5,171,851, a reduction of 33 per cent. Thus it will be seen that in the decade prior to the enactment of the law giving special trade privileges to the products of the mother country in the Canadian markets the sales of the United Kingdom to Canada decreased 33 per cent, but in two years following the enactment of that law they increased 33 per cent. It may be further added that the exports from the United Kingdom to all the colonies from 1897 to 1899 increased but about 8 per cent as compared with an increase of over 33 per cent to the single colony giving this trade privilege, viz, Canada. In the principal Netherlands colonies the tariff rate of 6 per cent levied on certain articles applies equally on goods from all countries.

## SUBSTITUTION OF TRADE PRIVILEGES FOR TRADE RESTRICTIONS.

In France a new departure of substituting trade privileges for trade restrictions with the colonies began in 1867 and has been extended to practically all of her colonies except those on the west African coast. In that year the French tariff was extended around Algeria, and freedom of interchange established between that colony and the mother country in all articles except sugar. French goods were to pass into Algeria without tariff restrictions, and Algerian products pass into France with the same freedom just as goods pass from one province of France to another. A little later the restrictions as to the vessels in which goods should be carried were also removed. This experiment proved so satisfactory in the case of Algeria that it has now been extended in nearly all articles to all the colonies except those on the west coast of Africa, where proximity to other colonies and vagueness of boundary lines render its adoption difficult at present.

## REMOVAL OF DUTIES BETWEEN FRANCE AND ALGERIA INCREASED PRODUCTION IN THE COLONY AND MUTUAL EXCHANGE OF PRODUCTS.

The opening of the markets of France to the products of Algeria in 1867 was followed by a rapid increase in Algerian production and exports, and subsequently by a large increase in imports by Algeria from France. The total export of Algeria in 1866, the year preceding this action, were, according to the Statesman's Year-Book, £3,709,317, and by 1870 had grown to £4,978,250, an increase of 33 per cent in four years. By 1880 the total had increased to £7,406,780; in 1890 to £8,338,000, and in 1899 to £13,856,000. Thus the exports of Algeria since the opening of the markets of France through the removal of tariff restrictions between the colony and the mother country and the substitution of the privilege of free entry for her products into a market furnished by the 38,000,000 people of France have nearly quadrupled, and, according to the authority just quoted, 80 per cent of these exports went to France. On the import side the total imports of Algeria have increased from £7,166,597 in 1866 to £12,794,000 in 1899, and of this trade 81 per cent was from France.

## INCREASE IN COMMERCE OF FRANCE WITH ALGERIA.

The following table shows the imports and exports of Algeria from 1841 to 1899, and indicates the growth of commerce which followed the removal of tariff restrictions between the colony and the mother country. The figures for the earlier years are M. Burdeau's "L'Algerie in 1891," those of later years from the Statesman's Year-Book:

## COMMERCE OF ALGERIA, 1841-1889.

YEARS.	Imports.	Exports.
	<i>France.</i>	<i>France.</i>
1841-1850 (annual average).....	71,900,000	3,700,000
1851-1860 (annual average).....	80,800,000	31,100,000
1861-1870 (annual average).....	172,600,000	81,600,000
1871-1880 (annual average).....	280,300,000	150,400,000
1881-1885 (annual average).....	320,400,000	161,400,000
1886-1889 (annual average).....	226,800,000	214,700,000
1895, one year <sup>1</sup> .....	255,500,000	284,211,600
1899, one year <sup>1</sup> .....	309,947,000	325,407,000

<sup>1</sup>Special commerce only.

It will be seen that the exports of Algeria, under the stimulus given to production by a free entrance into the markets of France, have quadrupled since the decade in the latter part of which the law permitting such free entry was enacted, while the exports of the British colonies during that time have only increased from £120,000,000 in 1870 to £268,924,000 in 1899, or little more than doubled during that period, despite the material additions to their area meantime.

Similar laws and regulations by which a large part of the commerce between the mother country and the colony passes free of tariff restrictions have as above indicated been adopted with reference to the French colonies of Martinique, Guadeloupe, St. Pierre, Miquelon, Reunion, French Indo-China, New Caledonia, Madagascar, Guiana, Gaboon, the Comoro Islands, and Mayotte, which include practically all of the French colonies, except those on the west coast of Africa, where conditions of trade, on account of their neighborhood with foreign colonies with less restrictive legislation, are unfavorable to the application of such a system.

The colonies with which this unrestricted trade relationship exists are, to use a recent expression of a distinguished officer of the French colonial service, considered as "extensions of the mother country." They include more than one-half in number, area, and population, of the French colonies.

An examination of the figures relative to the commerce of this group (including Algeria), in which the commerce with the mother country is unrestricted by tariff, shows that their total imports in 1899 were 567,000,000 francs, and of that sum 396,000,000 francs, or about 70 per cent, came from France. Their total exports in the same year amounted to 585,000,000 francs, of which 386,000,000 francs, or about 65 per cent, went to France. The other group of French colonies whose trade with the mother country is subject to the same tariff regulations as that of other countries, both in the colony and in the mother country, show total importations of 164,000,000 francs, of which 77,000,000 francs, or 47 per cent, came from France; and total exports of 121,000,000 francs, of which 56,000,000 francs, or about 46 per cent, went to France. Thus, taking the two great groups of French colonies, in the first of which commerce between the colony and the mother country is unrestricted by tariffs either in the colony or in the mother country, and in the second of which the general tariff applies alike to foreign countries and the mother country or colony, respectively, it appears that the group having no tariff restriction between the colony and the mother country draw about 70 per cent of their imports from the mother country, while the other group draw but 47 per cent from that source, and that the first-mentioned group send to the mother country 65 per cent of their products, while the second send but 46 per cent of their products to the mother country. Comparing these with the trade between the British colonies and the mother country it is found that the British colonies in 1900 drew but 43.4 per cent of their imports from the mother country and sent but 43 per cent of their exports to the mother country. (See table on p. 1405.)

## THE BEET-SUGAR INDUSTRY PROTECTED FROM COLONIAL COMPETITION.

In all cases, however, the removal of tariffs between the mother country and the colonies is so adjusted as not to disadvantageously affect domestic industries. The important beet-sugar industry of France is protected from the competition of tropical cane sugar by excepting sugar from the operation of the general law giving freedom of exchange between the colony and the mother country. Sugar from Algeria and other French colonies pays a duty on entering France, and there are exceptions in favor of certain other articles of domestic industry both in France and in the colonies.

## INCREASE IN TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH HAWAII UNDER SIMILAR CONDITIONS.

Another example of the stimulating effect of the freedom of interchange between a tropical producing country and a Temperate Zone consuming and manufacturing country is shown in the remarkable growth of the trade relations between the Hawaiian Islands and the United States under the reciprocity treaty of 1876, which removed practically all tariff restrictions between those islands and the United States. Attention has already been called to the enormous increase in the production and consumption of the Hawaiian Islands which followed; but the growth of commerce between the islands and the United States meantime has been equally marked. During the decade prior to 1876 the imports into the United States from Hawaii averaged about \$1,250,000 per annum, and never reached \$2,000,000. In 1877 they were in round terms \$2,500,000; in 1880, \$4,500,000; in 1885, about \$9,000,000; in 1890, nearly \$13,000,000, and in 1900, over \$20,000,000. In exports from the United States to Hawaii, under this freedom of interchange, the growth was equally striking. In the decade preceding the reciprocity treaty the exports from the United States to Hawaii never reached as much as \$1,000,000, averaging about \$750,000. In 1877 they were \$1,125,000; in 1880, \$2,000,000; in 1890, \$4,500,000; in 1900, \$13,500,000, and according to the estimate of the collector of customs at Honolulu were in the fiscal year 1901 about \$20,000,000. This growth in the exports from the United States to the Hawaiian Islands is especially striking in its evidence of the very rapid development and consequent consuming power of these islands, whose population is now but 154,000, and of that number but a comparatively small proportion of American or European birth or extraction. Practically all goods imported into these islands are for local consumption since they are not in any sense distributors as is the case with the British colonies of Singapore and Hongkong, elsewhere referred to, and the annual importation of merchandise valued at over \$20,000,000 annually gives an average of \$130 per capita, against \$78 per capita in Australia, \$62 per capita in the United Kingdom, \$32 per capita in the British colonies other than Australia, Canada, and India; \$21 per capita in France, and \$11.14 per capita in the United States. Of the total commerce of the Hawaiian Islands, 79 per cent of the imports was from the United States and 99 per cent of the exports to the United States.

The following table shows the imports of the United States from and exports of the United States to the Hawaiian Islands at quinquennial periods from 1860 to 1900:

## COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS AT QUINQUENNIAL PERIODS FROM 1860 TO 1900.

FISCAL YEARS.	Imports into United States from Hawaii.	Exports from United States to Hawaii.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
1860.....	394,743	659,845
1870.....	673,734	643,247
1875.....	1,873,681	662,164
1880.....	4,606,444	2,086,170
1885.....	8,857,497	2,787,922
1890.....	12,813,908	4,711,417
1895.....	7,888,961	8,723,057
1900.....	20,707,903	13,509,148

## INCREASE IN TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH PORTO RICO.

One other and later example of the removal of tariff restrictions between the mother country and the colony is found in the case of the United States and Porto Rico. The Porto Rican tariff act, which went into effect May 1, 1900, provided that the tariff of the United States should apply in Porto Rico against all foreign countries, but that in the exchange between Porto Rico and the United States only 15 per cent of that tariff should be collected either in the United States or Porto Rico. This was followed by an immediate increase in the trade between Porto Rico and the United States. The domestic exports from the United States to Porto Rico, which had averaged but about \$2,000,000 per year prior to that act, were, in the fiscal year 1900, \$4,260,892, and in the fiscal year 1901, \$6,861,917, while the imports into the United States from Porto Rico increased from \$3,179,827, in the fiscal year 1899, to \$5,883,892, in the fiscal year 1901. In July, 1901, the remaining fragment of tariff between Porto Rico and the United States was removed on the motion of the former, and now there is absolute freedom of interchange. The table which follows shows the commerce between the United States and Porto Rico in each year from 1895 to 1901:

## COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH PORTO RICO, 1895-1901.

YEARS.	Imports from Porto Rico.	Domestic exports to Porto Rico.
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
1895.....	1,506,512	1,820,208
1896.....	2,296,653	2,080,400
1897.....	2,181,024	1,964,850
1898.....	2,414,356	1,481,629
1899.....	3,179,827	2,633,400
1900.....	3,078,648	4,260,892
1901.....	5,883,892	6,861,917

## FACILITIES FOR MUTUAL EXCHANGE ENCOURAGED.

It appears from the above facts regarding the modern trade and tariff relations between the colony and the governing country that the disposition is now to substitute trade privileges for the trade restrictions of earlier years especially in cases where a tariff would reduce the facility for mutual interchange of those commodities for which the communities are interdependent. Formerly the trade of

the colony was forcibly obtained by the mother country through restrictions. The carrying trade was restricted to vessels of the mother country, the importation of goods to the colony from other than the mother country was either absolutely prohibited or held in check by tariffs higher than those of the mother country, and the exportation of goods from the colony to other countries was also controlled by similar arbitrary restrictions. Now all this is changed. No successful colonizing country makes restrictions to prevent its colonies selling their goods wherever they desire, and no country attempts to exclude foreign goods from the colony by giving it a higher tariff than it makes for its own people. Up to this point the change is merely in the form of the removal of restrictions. But to this there have been added in the cases above mentioned trade privileges in the form of the admission of the products of the colony free of any duty to the great markets of the mother country and giving to the people of the colony the products of the mother country free of any duty. This is true of France in her relations with most of her colonies as already explained, and it is also true of the United States in her relations with Alaska, Hawaii, and Porto Rico, and in all these cases it has been shown that the prosperity of the colony greatly increased, and that, following this increase of prosperity, the trade between the noncontiguous territory and the mother country rapidly increased. In Germany similar plans have been proposed but not adopted. The failure of this method in the case of Spain and her colonies seems to have been due in part to the excessive restrictions which she placed upon imports from other countries into the colonies, in other part to the local taxes levied in the mother country on colonial goods and the heavy taxes levied upon the colonies, and also in great part to the fact that the market of the home country to which the colonial goods were admitted was a comparatively small one, the entire annual importations of Spain being but about one-fifth those of France or the United States. In the United Kingdom and Netherlands the absence of any considerable tariff renders special advantages of this character to the colonies impracticable under present conditions, though it is well known that a strong sentiment in favor of a customs union for the United Kingdom and all her colonies exists both in the United Kingdom and her colonies. Two conventions urging such a union have been held attended largely by colonial representatives, and the proposition is still actively discussed both in the colonies and in England.

#### BENEFITS TO THE COLONY FROM TRADE PRIVILEGES.

These regulations of modern colonial management by which the tariff of the mother country is extended around the colony and general restrictions of trade between the two communities removed, and special privileges substituted for restrictions, open the great consuming markets of the mother country to the colony free of any tariff restrictions, and thus give it greater advantages in that market than are given to the products of any other country, while they place no restrictions on the sale of the colonial products to any other part of the world. By this process production in the colony is greatly stimulated. Regarding the imports of the colony, the method makes no requirement of the people of the colony in excess of that required of the people of the mother country, and in addition gives to the people of the colony all the commercial advantages they would have if residents of the home country (aside from the cost of transportation), since they are permitted to buy in the markets of the home country wherever competition may offer them the best prices, and transport such purchases into the colony free of any tariff restrictions. Thus the colony by this process receives privileges from the mother country which no other country offers it, viz, the absolutely free admission of all the products of the colony to its markets, and becomes in fact a part of the great commercial community of the mother country.

#### FREEDOM OF INTERCHANGE ESPECIALLY IMPORTANT BETWEEN TROPICAL AND TEMPERATE TERRITORY.

These advantages of interchange between the mother country and the colony are especially marked in cases where the colony can readily produce articles required in large quantities in the mother country, and the mother country produces an excess of the articles which the colony requires. This is likely to occur in the commerce of tropical colonies governed by temperate-zone countries. As shown elsewhere in this study, the demand of the temperate-zone countries upon the Tropics is steadily increasing, and is resulting in an increase of production in the Tropics. With that increase of production and sales by the tropical communities comes an increased demand by them for the manufactures and food stuffs of the temperate zone, and thus a rapid increase in the interchange. The United States, for instance, requires and imports a million dollars' worth of tropical products every business day of the year, and the chief imports of the tropical territory now under her control are manufactures and food stuffs, which form the principal share of her production and exportation. The advantage of a free interchange of these articles between the two sections of which the product of the one is the consumption of the other, and vice versa, is too obvious to require discussion. It is apparently due to this fact that there has occurred the very rapid growth in the production, exports, and general prosperity of the tropical colonies and territories having this freedom of interchange with the consuming and manufacturing countries of the temperate zone, and that the commerce of these colonies has been much more largely with the mother country than in the cases where no special privileges for interchange are given.

#### SHARE OF COMMERCE OF COLONIES WITH THE GOVERNING COUNTRY.

The following table shows the percentage of the imports and exports of the British, Dutch, and French colonies, and Porto Rico and Hawaii which are drawn from or sent to the governing country:

STATEMENT SHOWING THE SHARE WHICH THE MOTHER COUNTRY FURNISHES OF THE IMPORTS OR RECEIVES OF THE EXPORTS OF THE BRITISH, DUTCH, AND FRENCH COLONIES, AND PORTO RICO AND HAWAII, RESPECTIVELY.

COLONIES.	PERCENTAGE.	
	Imports from mother country.	Exports to mother country.
British .....	43.4	43.0
Dutch .....	40.0	73.0
French, with tariff <sup>1</sup> .....	47.0	46.0
French, without tariff <sup>2</sup> .....	70.0	66.0
Porto Rico .....	69.6	65.3
Hawaii .....	78.8	99.4

<sup>1</sup> Includes those colonies in which the tariff between the mother country and the colony still exists.

<sup>2</sup> Includes those colonies in which no tariff exists between the colony and the mother country (except as to sugar entering France from the colonies), and the tariff of the mother country applies in the colony against all countries except France.

## MODERN COMMUNICATION AND TRANSPORTATION BRING CLOSER RELATIONS BETWEEN COLONY AND MOTHER COUNTRY.

The developments of the century, and especially of its last quarter, have annihilated space between lands formerly distant from each other. Vessels between New York and China, at the beginning of the century, carried their own commercial orders and occupied a year in the round trip. Now the commercial order goes by cable, and before the month is ended the goods are received and those which were sent in exchange have reached their destination. The time occupied in exchange of commodities between the mother country and the colony in the most distant part of the world is now less than that which was formerly required to send the cotton of Louisiana to New England and receive its manufactures in exchange, or to transport the merchandise of Atlantic coast cities to those of the Pacific coast and receive the equivalent in the produce of that section.

It is because of this increased facility of communication and transportation that a closer commercial relationship between the mother country and the colony is now practicable, and that there is in this later day a growing disposition to remove all restrictions upon such relationship, especially where the exchange in each case supplies local requirements and furnishes markets for local productions. In the freedom of interchange between the producing and consuming sections of a great country such as the United States is to be found the greatest factor in its commercial prosperity, and if the products of the colony are required in the mother country and those of the mother country are required in the colony, the disposition of modern colonial management seems to be to extend to them that principle of free interchange by removing restrictions between the two sections thus mutually dependent upon each other, except in those articles whose local production would be interfered with by such action.

The experience of colonizing nations seems to point to this one result, namely, that the enduring basis of prosperity for a country and its colonies is to be found in mutual markets. Only on this foundation can a mother country and her colonies ever become truly complementary factors of a compact commercial organism. In the application of this principle there are exceptions which in practice will no doubt be observed; but the rule is none the less the net outcome of the world's colonial experience.



## SUMMARIZATION.

### RESULTS OF THE STUDIES OF THE SIX GREAT QUESTIONS OF COLONIAL ADMINISTRATION.

It may not be improper, in closing this study of the six great questions into which the subject at the beginning divided itself, to briefly summarize the facts developed by the investigation. Necessarily, much of the material gathered among the people and publications of all the great nations now maintaining colonies could not be presented in the detailed form that might be desirable for those wishing to make an exhaustive study of this subject, while on the other hand the presentation, even in its present length, may exceed the limits of time at the command of many desiring concise information upon this important subject. For these reasons the following summarization is offered as a result of the study of the six great questions named at the opening of this study (page 1217).

Before stating these conclusions it is proper to again call attention to the fact that this study and the conclusions drawn therefrom relate especially to conditions in tropical and subtropical colonies. As was stated upon the opening page of the work, it is in colonies of this class that the people of the United States are especially interested at the present time from the practical standpoint. The conclusions do not relate, therefore, as a general rule to conditions in the great self-governing colonies inhabited chiefly by people of the mother country, such, for example, as Canada, Australia, and South Africa.

It has been assumed in this study that the chief purpose in the management of tropical and subtropical colonies is the development and advancement of the people of the colony and the territory which they occupy, and that when this is accomplished the result will be beneficial to the commerce of the mother country and the world through both the increased production and consumption which will follow such development of the territories in question.

It is along the lines above indicated that this study has been made and the conclusions which follow reached.

**(1) What share of the government of the successfully managed colony originates at the seat of the home government and what share in the colony; and by whom and in what manner are the laws and regulations created?**

The general system of government adopted for the colony is determined by action of the legislative body of the home government, and when this is done the conduct of the details is placed in the hands of a department of the government. All nations now attempting the government of communities differing in race, customs, and climatic conditions from those of the home government, appoint from their own people a governor and other executive officers, and these officials, with others named by the home government, form the law-making body in the colony, though in the more advanced colonies a popular branch of the lawmaking body is also elected by the people of the colony. The more important of the laws and regulations formed by this lawmaking body are submitted to the home government and are subject to its final action, but the details of framing and administering the laws and regulations are left to the representatives in the colony of the home government. (For detailed discussion see p. 1218.)

**(2) What share of the administration within the colony is conducted by representatives of the home government, and what share is intrusted to the natives in conjunction with the representatives of the home government?**

The general administration of government in the colony is performed by the governor and other executive officers, and the lawmaking is by the legislative bodies above described; but the details of administration are largely carried out by natives, in conjunction with, and under the supervision of, the direct representatives of the home government. Local and municipal legislation and administration is left to the natives wherever practicable, and they are encouraged to assume the duties of administering law and order and improving and developing the community. (For detailed discussion see p. 1237.)

**(3) What steps are taken and methods applied to improve the material, mental, and moral condition of the people of the colony?**

The first and most important steps after the development of order are the creation of roads, railways, telegraphs, steamship lines, and other methods of communication and transportation by which the natural products of the colony can be sent to the markets of the world, where they will find ready sale. With this the native finds his earning power increased, and with this increase of earnings comes increased desire for the comforts and conveniences of civilization, which in turn are followed by better homes, education, newspapers, schools, churches, and increased powers of self-government. The public works for the development and improvement of the colony are usually created with funds raised by local taxation or loans based upon future revenues, and not with funds supplied by the home government, nor does the home government usually make itself responsible for the loans raised by the colony. (For detailed discussion see p. 1278.)

**(4) How are habits of industry and thrift inculcated among the natives and the necessary labor supply obtained for the development of industries which shall render the colony self-supporting and its people prosperous?**

The methods above described, by which the earning power of the native is greatly enhanced and his desire for the comforts of civilization correspondingly increased, stimulate industry and thrift. The diversification of industries and the individual ownership of land by the natives also develop habits of industry and increase their earning power. In those industries which require large establishments and a steady labor supply, such as sugar, tobacco, and coffee, or in the construction of great public works, a part of the labor supply has been in some colonies obtained from other sources; but as a rule native labor, when properly stimulated by the methods above referred to, proves sufficient for the requirements of the colony. (For detailed discussion see p. 1278.)

**(5) How are the necessary funds for the conduct of the colonial government raised, and is any part of such funds supplied by the home government?**

The funds for the conduct of the government of the colony are raised by methods similar to those utilized in the more advanced communities of the world. In most cases customs duties supply a larger share of the revenues than any other single item. In a few instances, notably India and Java, the ownership of land is retained by the government, the land being leased to the natives at a low rental under leases usually renewable perpetually, and a large share of the revenue is obtained from these sources. The colonies are required to raise sufficient revenue to meet all their expenses, both of current administration and permanent improvements, and in many cases the railroads, telegraph lines, etc., are also constructed from public funds and are owned by the colony. (For detailed discussion see p. 1356.)

**(6) The commercial relation between the colony and the mother country; its ability to supply the articles required in the home country and to absorb those produced for export by the mother country, and the extent to which the tariff and other regulations between the colony and the mother country are adjusted to encourage this mutual interchange.**

The principal productions of the colony are usually raw materials and natural food products, and these are usually the principal importations of the mother country. The principal productions of the mother country are manufactures and prepared food products, and these are also the principal importations of the colony. This is especially the case if the colony is located in the Tropics and the mother country in the Temperate Zone. A free interchange of products between the two communities thus mutually dependent upon each other for necessary supplies and a necessary market for the surplus of each is therefore essential. This condition, coupled with the growth of facilities for cheap and rapid transportation and intercommunication, has led in many cases to the removal of restrictive tariffs between the mother country and the colony for the encouragement of the same free interchange between the colony and the mother country as that which exists between the States or provinces of the mother country itself. Specific articles, however, such as sugar for example, which the mother country produces or may produce, are excepted from this general system. This is especially true in countries having a high tariff. In low-tariff countries, which already admit most of the products of all countries free of duty, the tariff regulations naturally make no discriminations relative to the products of the colony, and those of the colony make no discrimination relative to the mother country, except in the case of Canada, which grants to the products of the United Kingdom and certain of the British colonies a reduction of one-third in tariff rates. (For detailed discussion see p. 1390.)

## COLONIAL METHODS COMPARED.

### CAUSES OF THE SUCCESSES AND FAILURES OF THE NATIONS WHICH HAVE GOVERNED COLONIAL TERRITORY.

[From introductory volume of "Historical Geography of British Colonies," by Hon. C. P. Lucas, late of Balliol College, Oxford, now assistant under secretary of state, British Colonial Office.—Republished by consent of author and publisher: The Clarendon Press, Oxford, England.]

If the work done by the English nation has in the end proved to be of better quality and more lasting character than that of other peoples; if the English succeeded in India, while the Portuguese failed; if British America has prospered, while Spanish America has not; if the United States grew and developed out of all proportion to the French colony in Canada; one great reason for the difference seems to be that the members of the English-speaking race, as compared with other races, have throughout its history, both at home and abroad, relied not so much on their government as on themselves. \* \* \*

#### GOVERNMENT MORE DIFFICULT THAN CONQUEST.

Conquest is a temporary matter only; the colonization of an uninhabited country may begin with conquering, but it requires in addition some element of greater permanence. This is found in the two remaining characteristics of colonizing races—power of assimilation and capacity for government. It is not difficult for a strong nation to subdue a savage tribe or people; the difficulty comes later, and consists in finding a *modus vivendi* between the conquerors and the conquered. It is comparatively easy to extend English conquests in South Africa and annex fresh square miles of territory; but the difficulty of teaching English, Dutch, and natives to live side by side has at present proved almost insurmountable. Here, then, a race which can adapt itself to others has a great advantage; while even at the earlier—the conquering—stage, the power of assimilation has been shown in history to be of the greatest value.

#### ASSIMILATION OF NATIVES.

The Spaniards, for instance, were notably helped in their conquest of America by the facility with which they intermixed with the natives; and it is a matter of story how much Cortes was helped in his Mexican campaigns by his Indian mistress and interpreter, Marina.

The French afford a still more striking instance of the influence which attaches to a race ready to adopt the customs and manners of the natives of the country, or to find means of engrafting upon the latter their own civilization. In Canada, we read of Champlain spending his life in great measure in the Indian lodges, and of a later French governor, de Frontenac, taking part in the savage rites of the Indians and joining in the war dance. And in the East Indies, when French and English were striving for the mastery, Dupleix not only converted himself for the time being into an oriental prince, but achieved the more difficult feat of habituating the natives to the discipline and drill of European soldiers, showing thereby the way by which a few Europeans might conquer and hold a great Eastern empire. \* \* \*

But there is a possible drawback to this power of assimilation; it lies in this, that the colonizing race may in time be merged in the lower native race, and become degraded in its new home. This has been the case with the Spanish in America—the Spaniard has in course of years rather become assimilated to the Indian than the Indian to the Spaniard. A mixed race has sprung up of lower type than that of the original immigrant, and the final result, as seen in the South American States, compares unfavorably with that which has been produced in other cases where the incoming race has, as in North America, shown less adaptability to, and less inclination to, mix with the native inhabitants of the country.

The last and most important characteristic to be looked for in colonizing races is the power of governing. It is a quality which would seem to be found more especially among peoples which are deficient in capacity for assimilation. A ruler must possess strength of character, and strength of character is not often compatible with flexibility. The Romans in ancient, the English in modern times stand out above all peoples for having built up and maintained a great empire of colonies and dependencies. There was little power of assimilation in the Romans, and there is little in the English; but in the character of both nations might be traced a strong leaning to system, a strong love of justice and law, and some idea of governing for the sake of the governed. \* \* \*

#### SPANISH COLONIAL METHODS.

A mixed race themselves, the Spaniards were ready to intermingle with the races with whom they were brought into contact. A fighting, ruthless, and fanatical people, having vanquished the heathen at home, they were prepared to carry their conquests into other lands. At the end of the fifteenth century the spirit of adventure, the desire of gold, and the crusading impulse all combined to stimulate and influence the Spanish mind; and the strong and ambitious Government of Spain was only too ready to sanction schemes of annexation and conquest, hoping by such means to increase the prestige of the country, to add to its material resources, and so to make it the leading power of the world. \* \* \*

Her vast American dominions were the result of rapid conquest, not of gradually growing commercial settlement. In North America the English made slow way in a desolate land, among scattered savage tribes which could be exterminated but not enslaved. The course of the Spaniards was widely different. In Mexico and Peru they conquered at a blow nations which were rich, powerful, and well organized, but which had long been broken in to despotism, and when once subdued became the slaves of the conquerors. The conquest of Mexico was effected in less than three years; that of Peru in some ten or eleven years; and nearly the whole of the

Spanish possessions in America were acquired within sixty years from the date when Columbus first set sail from Spain. English colonization in North America was from the first colonization in its true sense. It consisted of settlements in which there was no native element to be found, and in spite of isolated instances of intermingling, such as are portrayed in the romantic story of Pocahontas, the English and the Indians lived entirely outside each other. The Spanish-American colonies, on the other hand, were simply conquered dependencies, containing a large native population. The Spanish conquest was too rapid to produce sound and beneficial results; the conquerors lost their heads, plunged into cruelty and extravagance, glutted themselves with gold and silver instead of quietly developing commerce and agriculture; and, yielding to the temptations of their position and the enervating influence of the climate, in no long time degenerated in mind and body. The home Government might have checked the pace at which the work was carried on; but if well-meaning it was unwise; it constantly sanctioned fresh conquests and encouraged the colonization of the mainland before the colonies on the islands were well and healthily established. \* \* \*

#### DUTCH COLONIAL METHODS.

When we turn to the Dutch, we come to a new phase of colonization. The work is now taken up by one of the northern nations of Europe, and by a people of the Teuton breed, embodying the spirit of opposition to political and religious despotism, a trading and seafaring race. The struggle between Spain and Holland was a struggle between Latin and Teuton, between absolutism and democracy, between Roman Catholic and Protestant, between continental imperialism and a people who sought for trade, not for empire, who looked to the sea, not to the land, and who represented the rise of the middle class in the modern social system, as opposed to the old monarchy, church, and aristocracy. \* \* \*

Among the causes of the success of the Dutch colonization in past time, writers have noticed their strict attention to business, involving dogged maintenance of their commercial monopolies, the rigid supervision kept over their subordinate officers, and the combination in the case of the latter of regular payment and systematic promotion with absolute prohibition of private trading. In these respects they stand out in contrast to the Portuguese: They were more honest and more systematic in their dealings; at the same time they treated the natives with greater humanity. Apart, too, from the respective characters of the two peoples, the Dutch gained by coming after the Portuguese, just as the English gained by coming after the Dutch. The natives, who hated all foreign interference, naturally hated most their masters for the time being, so the newcomers were welcomed as in some sort deliverers and friends. Further, the Dutch were well aware of the danger of undue extension of empire, and were carried beyond the limits of their power as a trading nation by force of circumstances, not by their own inclinations. Their likeness to the Carthaginians of old in partiality for island settlements has already been noticed, and the Netherlands Indies at the present day are a collection of island dependencies.

Their decline was natural. Many causes have been assigned for it—constant little wars with the natives, English competition, decay of the energy which had formed and sustained their great trading companies—decay which was evidenced in the constant change of governors and in the corruption of too poorly paid subordinate officials. But the simple account of their decline is, that their commercial system was unprogressive and unsound, and that they themselves, instead of growing out of the merchant stage, fell back more and more into the position of mere traders. \* \* \*

No people ever had so definite an aim in foreign and colonial policy as the Dutch, and none ever realized their aim more completely. From the first their one object was to secure the trade of the Spice Islands. They tried to avoid collision with other powers, they did not want to conquer, they did not want to acquire territory, they wanted only to trade. And when in 1824, after the Napoleonic wars, Holland having become a political cipher in Europe, and having lost Ceylon and the Cape, gained by treaty with England recognition of her possessions in the East Indian Archipelago, the object with which she became a colonial power was finally attained.

#### FRENCH COLONIAL METHODS.

France, like Spain and unlike Portugal and Holland, has filled the place in history of a great continental power, and her career in the field of colonization has been that of a nation seeking for empire, rather than of a commercial people bent on quietly planting settlements and by slow degrees extending its trade.

##### CAUSES OF FRENCH FAILURES.

The successive failures of the French are attributed by historians to the bad policy and mismanagement of their rulers, and though every nation must be held responsible for the kind of government which it produces or to which it submits, yet it is true that the history of France beyond that of any other country can be read aright only by constantly distinguishing between the people and the Government.

The French have in many respects always been eminently suited for colonizing. They have never been found wanting in enterprise, in fighting qualities, or power of adapting themselves to new peoples and new countries. Their history, in the East and West alike, proves that they reached a point far beyond that of merely intermarrying with Indians and falling in with native ways and savage modes of life. Their leaders showed a definite policy in dealing with the native races. They treated them with humanity and consideration, they organized them and gave them cohesion, they formed alliances and counter-alliances, and carried the spirit of European politics into Asia and America. Such were the dealings of Dupleix in India, of Champlain at one time and Montcalm at another in Canada. To quote Mr. Parkman's words, in his comparison of the English and French in America: "The scheme of English colonization made no account of the Indian tribes. In the scheme of French colonization they were all in all." \* \* \*

##### TOO MUCH GOVERNMENT.

Politically, they made two mistakes: In the first place, they tried to do too much; in the second place, they wanted a settled, a continuous, and a reliable policy. As regards the first point, Professor Seeley points out that France had too many irons in the fire; that her European policy was fatal to her colonial empire, and that "she lost the New World because she was always divided between a policy of colonial extension and a policy of European conquest." Similarly, Professor Freeman shows that "the time of the greatest power of France in Europe" (the end of the last and the beginning of the present century) "was by no means equally favorable to her advance in other parts of the world," and that, while she conquered her neighbors on the Continent, she lost her dependencies abroad. It need hardly be added that the same fault of taking up too much at once has been conspicuous in French foreign policy in late years.

## EXCESSIVE RELIGIOUS ZEAL.

But if the political mistakes of the French Government were great, its attitude in the matter of religion was even more fatal to the strength and permanence of the French colonial empire. French colonization was in its origin in great measure the work of the Huguenots, who formed no small portion of the industrial classes of France, and who numbered in their ranks the sailors and merchants of the west coast. Yet, as we have seen, when the Huguenots in the sixteenth century settled in Brazil and Florida, they were neglected or betrayed by the French Government. In 1685 they were driven out of France by the revocation of the Edict of Nantes; and they were deliberately excluded from Canada, the one part of the world which, greatly through their instrumentality, bade fair to become in fact as in name New France. When in 1627 Richelieu incorporated the company of the 100 associates to carry on the colonization of Canada, one of the terms of the charter of incorporation was that no Huguenot should be allowed to settle there, and through the influence of the Jesuits this suicidal policy was steadily maintained as long as Canada remained a French possession. Persecuted creeds were sure to find a refuge in one or other of the English colonies; but the religious control of the Canadians was placed absolutely in the hands of Jesuit missionaries or of French priests, whose bigotry, in Acadia at least, was, by the testimony of their own countrymen, the main cause of the sufferings and misery of the settlers during the struggle between England and France. The judgment of history is that France lost Canada through the policy of religious exclusiveness which her rulers pursued. Nor can it be supposed that the effects of this policy ended here. Though the large majority of Frenchmen professed the Roman Catholic faith, measures of intolerance which drove from France her most industrious citizens and which blighted the progress and caused the loss of her most promising colony must necessarily have widened the gulf between the French Government and the French people, and made it clear, if evidence were wanted, that the policy of the court was opposed to the interests of the nation.

## GOVERNMENT BY AN ARISTOCRACY.

The evils of a despotic government may be to some extent discounted if it reduces all classes of its subjects to the same political and social level, but this redeeming feature was wanting under the despotism of the Bourbons. The laws, the administration, and the social system of France during their reigns were such as to favor the aristocratic classes at the expense of the general community; and the inequalities which pressed so hardly upon the lower orders, and which finally gave birth to the French revolution, were not confined to the mother country, but were perpetuated in the colonies. The result was seen in Canada. Once conquered by the English, the Canadian people tasted better liberty and felt the benefit of more democratic institutions. They were given a just criminal law, and were allowed to retain their old civil rights and customs and their old religion. Though but sixteen years after the conquest of Canada the revolt of the United States gave them a most favorable opportunity for rising against their English masters, they showed no disposition to upset the new order of things. They rested contented with an alien rule, and practically gave out to the world that their own French Government—selfish, corrupt, and out of sympathy with national growth and progress—had shown itself unfitted to maintain and develop a great colonial system.

In spite, however, of the loss of their dependencies in the last century, the French at the present day fill a very different position among colonizing nations from that of the Spaniards or Portuguese. France is still a power and a forward power in all parts of the globe, conquering rather than settling, and still as of old interfering in too many places at once.

## BRITISH COLONIAL METHODS.

The great success of the English at once in planting colonies and in retaining them when planted must be mainly attributed to the character of the country and the race.

Great Britain stands alone in Europe in being an island power. For over two hundred years she has had no part or lot in the continent of Europe; and the one geographical fact of being bounded on all sides by the sea accounts, as writers have time without number pointed out, for the special course taken by English history.

The insular position of England has made the English a race of sailors. It has given the country a temperate climate, far more favorable to systematic effort than the more intense heat and cold of inland countries in the same latitude. Most of all, it has kept the people from being perpetually entangled, like their French neighbors, in foreign troubles, leaving them free to develop and extend their commerce and empire in Europe and the East. \* \* \*

In the early days of restless migration England was not left to herself, and many streams from many lands have combined to give her a mixed population. The English-speaking breed is one composed of various elements—English, Saxons, Jutes, Danes, Northmen, Flemings; while the Welsh, the Irish, the Manx, and the Northern Scotch are distinct offshoots of the Celtic stock. In short, there is no more sameness in the inhabitants of these islands than there is in the home which they inhabit. Differences of race, too, have been accompanied by varieties of religion; for the line is sharply drawn between the English Episcopalian, the Scotch Presbyterian, the Welsh Methodist, and the Irish Roman Catholic.

These diversities of geography, of breed, and religious thought give some clue to the history of the English as a colonizing nation. The sea bade them colonize, and as colonization takes men into various parts of the earth, and places them in very varying circumstances, it seems to follow that the inhabitants of a country which is a miniature world in itself will be more successful colonizers than those whose land and breed and thought are all of one uniform type. \* \* \*

It has been said that the English come last in the list of colonizing peoples, and it is true that in founding settlements and acquiring territory beyond the seas they were at first outstripped by other European nations.

At the same time England was worthily represented in early maritime enterprise. \* \* \*

But, bold and energetic as were the English voyagers of the sixteenth century, their enterprise produced at the time no tangible result. For a century and more after the first discovery of the New World and the rounding of the Cape of Good Hope the English people were merely training themselves for the coming time. Spain and Portugal had made their colonial empires and were beginning to decay before our fathers had planted a single settlement or won a single colonial dependency. The Dutch secured a foothold in the East and possessed themselves of the rich heritage of the Portuguese, while the English trading vessels were still slowly and painfully finding their way into the Indian seas. The French outpaced us in North America. It was only after long years of hard struggle that English colonization in the West, deriving its strength and solidity from independence of the home Government, proved its superiority

to the work of rival countries; and English merchants in the East Indies showed that private enterprise is surer if slower in its results than efforts directed by and relying on the state.

The sixteenth century, then, was the time of training, and with the seventeenth colonization began. There have thus been nearly three centuries during which the English have been engaged in colonizing, and a study of the manner in which the colonial possessions of Great Britain have been acquired will show that each century of colonization has had a distinct character of its own. \* \* \*

#### LESSONS TAUGHT BY HER LOSSES.

There is one striking fact in the foreign and colonial history of England which should never be left out of sight. England has distinctly gained by her losses. Twice in her history she made a great effort and signally failed.

In the Middle Ages she tried to become mistress of France, but the battles of Crecy and Agincourt were fought and won in vain, and the Channel Islands have long been the only remnant of her Norman or French dominions. If she had succeeded in her attempt to become a continental power she would have lost the advantage of her insular position, and would in all probability have been even less successful than other European nations in the sphere of colonization, inasmuch as her front would have been more divided than that of purely continental countries, and she would have spent her energies in vainly trying to go two ways at once.

In the eighteenth century she mismanaged her North American colonies, and when they turned restive she tried to coerce them and was utterly beaten.

If the proper aim of a nation is simply to own so many square miles of the earth's surface, there is no redeeming side to this failure. But if a people should look rather to leavening the world and to building up strong and wholesome communities then the loss of the United States was in a sense a gain. As far as can be judged, they have prospered in independence, at least as much as would have been the case if they had retained their allegiance to the English Crown, and as years have gone on they have shown some inclination to draw closer again to the mother country.

Their loss has set England free to work in other directions. She looked out for a new field of colonization and found it in Australia. So the net outcome of the war of independence has been that the British race has not lost America and has gained other parts of the world.

But a still greater result has followed from this defeat. England learned thereby the true mode of dealing with colonies. Her liberal colonial policy in the present century, which stands out in brilliant contrast to the systems of other times and other nations, is the direct fruit of her greatest mistake and her most striking failure. \* \* \*

#### STEAM AND ELECTRICITY HAVE MADE NEW COLONIAL CONDITIONS AND RELATIONS.

Though the nineteenth century has brought great additions to the English Empire, it has been still more notable for the changes which have taken place during its years in the internal condition of the colonies and in their relations to the mother country and to each other. Railways, steamers, and telegraphs have been introduced, great social reforms have been carried out, self-government has been granted to the larger colonies, and the confederation movement is still at work in its double form—colonial confederation on the one hand, imperial confederation on the other. \* \* \*

During the present century the mother country has by these means been brought into infinitely closer and more systematic communication with the colonies, the colonies with the mother country and each other, and the various districts of each great dependency one with another.

There is now no colony, however remote, which is not connected with the outer world by a regular line of steamers. Even the Falkland Islands are periodically visited by the ships of a Hamburg company on their way to and from the Pacific ports of South America. There are, further, very few colonies which do not enjoy the benefits of a submarine telegraph, Mauritius being perhaps the most notable exception.

The large colonies, too, have completed or are rapidly developing systems of railways and inland telegraphs throughout their territory. \* \* \*

England and her colonies, then, are now in daily correspondence by the telegraph. Every steamer takes out Englishmen to one or other of the colonies and brings back colonists to England. There are no long breaks of communication. If one ship is wrecked, two or three others arrive safely within a few days. If a telegraph cable gives way there is probably another line still working, and the faulty cable is speedily repaired. Thus the great difficulty with which ancient states had to contend, that of keeping a hold on distant dependencies, is now in great measure surmounted, and steam and electricity go far to counteract the natural tendency of peoples who live at the other end of the earth to separate more and more from their original home.

It is interesting to speculate whether this latter tendency will in the long run prevail, or whether railways, steamers, and telegraphs will prove a stronger counteracting force. For instance, the older men among the Australians are mainly English born. Many of the colonists have gone out quite lately from this country, and England, to an Australian, is in great measure synonymous with home. But it would be foolish to disguise the fact that, as years go on, generations must spring up who in a sense know not Joseph; a race of men to whom England will be the land of their fathers, but not of themselves; who will find in Australia alone an ever-widening sphere for their ambitions and an ever-growing stimulus to their interests, and in whose minds the sentiment for what is past and for what is distant will be weakened by the ties and the realities of the present.

Meanwhile, however, steam and electricity will be at work in direct opposition to this centrifugal tendency, promoting unity of interest, multiplying intercourse between these two parts of the world, and strengthening the bonds of common race and common language. It would indeed be difficult to prophesy which force will prevail in the future.

The tropical dependencies of England have been already contrasted with her settlements, but one additional and important point of contrast may here be noticed in connection with the subject of steamers and railways. Englishmen have made their homes in Canada, Australia, or South Africa, and while the effect of steam is to produce a constant interchange of visits, the Canadian or Australian, for instance, goes back to his own colony after a while; or if he stays permanently in Great Britain, his place is more than filled up by fresh English emigrants. But in India, as has been seen, Englishmen do not make a lasting resting-place; consequently, while steamers and railways take out far more tourists to the East than would have traveled in old days, they also bring back Englishmen from the East at far shorter intervals than of yore. Where a man would stay twenty years in India without coming back to Europe, he now stays five or six, probably sending his wife and children back even sooner; consequently the East is even less of a home to English people than it ever was. The Anglo-Indian is more English and less Indian than he used to be. While still in India



he gets ten English letters and newspapers to one he could have got in the old days, and his mind and heart are more than ever set on his own country. So modern inventions have had in this case two almost contradictory effects. Since steam and electricity have been brought into play, both tourists and stayers at home hear and see much more of India and the Indians than their fathers did; but, on the other hand, those whose calling lies in the East spend their lives there in a much less degree than was the case in the past.

The Government of the Empire, too, has been entirely revolutionized by science. Where there is governing to be done, it is done to a far greater extent from home and in a far more methodical and systematic way than in old times, while at the same time public opinion, both at home and in the colonies, is brought to bear on all foreign and colonial questions to a degree which was once unknown. So far as abuses are prevented by all the world knowing at once any important step taken by officials, and so far as a uniform system of administration is produced by regular correspondence, science has worked an unmixed good.

#### DOES COLONIZATION PAY THE GOVERNING COUNTRY AND THE COLONY?

The writer above quoted, Mr. C. P. Lucas, in his introduction to the 1890 edition of Sir G. C. Lewis's *Government of Dependencies*, discusses the practical side of colonial control from the standpoint of the governing country, as follows:

"Lewis devotes four chapters of his book to the advantages and disadvantages accruing to the dominant country from its supremacy over a dependency, and to a dependency from its dependence on the dominant country.

"Let us look at the credit side of the account, the advantages which arise from owning a colony, as enumerated by Sir George C. Lewis. The first is deriving tribute from it. Now, it is true that Great Britain does not derive 'any direct tribute or revenue' from her colonies; she does not regard them as feeding the Imperial exchequer, which is the view from which the Dutch have regarded their East Indian possessions; but, on the other hand, Lewis's dictum that 'the notion of deriving a tribute from dependencies, or even of making them defray all the expenses incurred by the supreme government on their account, is now generally abandoned,' certainly does not hold good at the present day. The view that the colonies should refund, as far as possible, the expenses incurred by the mother country in their behalf is much more strongly held now than it was fifty years ago. While the whole cost of the India office in London is defrayed from Indian revenues, while India contributes to the cost of the British embassy in Persia and of the consular establishments in China, it is difficult to say that she pays no tribute to England; and when the Australians are beginning to contribute toward the naval strength of the Empire, the analogy of the confederacy of Delos under the headship of Athens is at once suggested. 'The general policy of England,' says Lewis, 'has been not to compel her dependencies to contribute to defraying the expense of the general government.' This should now be rewritten, as follows: 'The general policy of England is to invite her self-governing colonies, and to compel her dependencies, to contribute to defraying the general expenses of the British Empire.'

#### AID IN TIME OF WAR.

"The second advantage is assistance of military or naval purposes furnished by the colony. This advantage, which it is difficult to distinguish from tribute, if tribute means more than simply the payment of so much money, certainly exists at the present time. The most striking instance is the contingent of troops so generously sent by Australia to the Sudan; while, following Lewis's illustrations under this head, readers may be reminded that Indian troops served in the Egyptian war, that they garrison Aden, and that several of the British dependencies, such as Gibraltar and Malta, are appropriated, in whole or part, as Imperial military or naval stations.

#### COMMERCE WITH THE COLONY.

"The third advantage is trade with colonies. This advantage partly exists, partly has disappeared. It exists in the sense that, if India, or Singapore, or Hongkong were owned by another European power, British trade would no doubt be seriously crippled by hostile tariffs. On the other hand, it is difficult to say that Great Britain derives any trade advantages from her connection with the self-governing colonies, seeing that those colonies treat her commerce no better and no worse than that of foreign nations. It is impossible to prove that 'trade follows the flag.' It is equally idle to try to prove Lewis's thesis, that 'the trade between England and the United States is probably far more profitable to the mother country than it would have been if they had remained in a state of dependence upon her,' supposing, that is to say, that the dependence were only the nominal dependence of a self-governing colony; but it may be taken as generally true, that 'the best customer which a nation can have is a thriving and industrious community, whether it be dependent or independent.'

#### EMIGRATION OF SURPLUS POPULATION AND CAPITAL.

"The fourth advantage is the facilities offered by colonies to the dominant country for the emigration of its surplus population, and for advantageous employment of its capital. This advantage continues, but is not as marked as it was. In India, for instance, or the Malay Indies there is a field for the employment of Englishmen and English capital which would be much restricted if these territories did not belong to Great Britain; but, if we turn to the so-called fields of emigration, the self-governing colonies with their temperate climates, we find that the governments of those colonies are now nearly as chary of encouraging emigration as is the Government of the United States; that, in spite of restrictions imposed by their Government, the United States have proved infinitely more attractive to British emigrants than any British colony; and that the mother country now retains no power whatever of disposing of the waste lands of Canada or Australasia. Nor does there seem much, if any, greater inducement for the investment of British capital in British colonies than in stable foreign countries, except in the case of the Crown colonies. These latter colonies, being under Imperial control, are considered to be a specially secure field for investment; but it is difficult to suppose that, if they did not exist, British investors would not find other equally profitable, if somewhat less assured, fields of investment. It may be noted, in passing, that it has been sometimes considered a disadvantage, that the loans raised by the self-governing colonies are so largely held in Great Britain; for, if a financial crisis in one of these communities coincided with a time of friction between the colony and the mother country, the colony might be tempted to repudiate its debt simply by way of crippling the dominant country. Such a suggestion, however, is so utterly improbable, that it seems almost unfair to the colonies even to place it on paper.

"The fifth advantage is the employment of a colony as a place to which convicted criminals may be transported. This advantage, if it can be called an advantage, has disappeared; but it may be observed that it is a fallacy to regard transportation simply as a means of disposing of criminals. The history of the American and West India colonies, as well as that of Australia, shows that, in past times, it was at least as much a method of colonization, of finding settlers for a new country, and labor for colonist employers. The system

was not ill suited to bygone days, and was not disadvantageous to colonies in their early stages. It has been given up in the British Empire as being no longer required, as out of harmony with the spirit of the time, and as having led to abuses; but it is a mistake to speak of it simply as an advantage to the mother country, for, to take only one instance, Russian transportation to Siberia has, with all its horrors, been a means of colonizing that country, and to some extent developing its resources. The system in this case has probably done no good to the dominant country, but it has not been without advantage to the dependency.

#### WEAK AND HELPLESS COLONIES MUST NOT BE DESERTED.

"It might be added that, in the great society of nations, honesty is the best policy, and that if it is immoral for a country to throw off a helpless dependency it can not be advantageous for it to do so. It would lose its national credit, and its subjects and foreign neighbors alike would cease to trust its word. This argument powerfully applies to the case of Great Britain. Many of her dependencies are helpless, in the sense of not being able to stand alone. Some are too small, some are too divided in race, or religion, or interest to do so. If released from dependence on Great Britain, they would pass into the keeping of another power; they would not be gainers by the change, and the country which threw them off would lose not only in trade, but also in self-esteem and in the confidence of others. The people, which puts its hand to the plow and looks back, is not fit, and is not deemed fit, to hold its place among the Kingdoms of this world. \* \* \*

#### THE ADVANTAGES TO THE COLONY.

"Now let us ask what advantages, if any, the colonies derive from their connection with Great Britain.

"There is no British possession which does not reap some benefit from being under the protection of the most ubiquitous fleet in the world. Even the strongest of the colonies, such as Canada, would lose something if, as an independent country, it could no longer send out its ships to east or west under cover of the British flag, and if, when they touched at one or other of the many ocean strongholds of Great Britain, they could no longer have any right to be sheltered by its fortifications and relieved from its stores.

"The second advantage, that of pecuniary assistance, also still exists, as has already been seen, though it has also been shown that Great Britain now spends less money directly on her colonies and receives more tribute in one form or another from them than used to be the case. This result follows from the fact that the colonies, having become more developed in course of years, are therefore more able to pay the whole or part of their expenses, and stand less in need of pecuniary assistance from the dominant country. Cyprus and British Bechuanaland, which were instanced as receiving parliamentary grants, are comparatively new acquisitions; and as year by year goes on the grants made to them are likely to diminish in amount, and in course of time to disappear. It is interesting to note, in passing, the case, which arises in the British Empire, of one colony or dependency giving pecuniary assistance to a neighboring dependency, with a view to its own ultimate benefit. Thus the cost of the administration of British New Guinea has been, to the amount of £15,000 per annum, guaranteed by the colonies of Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria; while the government of the Straits Settlements has advanced sums to the protected Native States of the Malay Peninsula in order to enable them to make roads and develop their territories. In the former case it has been to the special advantage of the Australian colonies that New Guinea should be under British control, and in the latter it has been to the special advantage of Singapore and Penang to help in opening out the countries which are the feeders of their own trade.

"The commercial advantages which the British colonies derive from their connection with Great Britain, so far as they consist in the protection afforded to their trade by the dominant country against foreign aggression, come under the first head. The goods of the colonies which are imported into the mother country are not now favored by any differential duties; on the other hand, the criticism that 'the interests of the dependency are, in its external commercial relations, usually sacrificed to those of the dominant State,' is wholly an anachronism as applied to the British Empire. The self-governing colonies, over and above the protection of their trade, probably derive little commercial advantage from their British connection, except so far as it may enable them to borrow more easily. On the other hand, the commerce of those weaker parts of the Empire, which, if not dependencies of Great Britain, would be dependencies of some other power, is beyond question greatly benefited by their being attached to a free-trading nation. If India belonged to Russia, it would no doubt be given a monopoly of the Russian market as against the imports of foreign countries; but, on the other hand, its ports would in all probability be in great measure barred against foreign trade, and its commerce would suffer incalculable damage in consequence.

### THE CULTURE AND FORCED LABOR SYSTEMS IN JAVA.

DESCRIPTION BY DISTINGUISHED AMERICAN, ENGLISH, AND DUTCH WRITERS.

The following series of discussions of the Dutch system of governmental control of production and forced labor on public works, which was practiced in Java for many years, presents the views of three distinguished writers of three nations upon a subject which has attracted the attention of the whole world. The first of the series is from a paper on this subject by Prof. Clive Day, of the United States, published in the *Yale Review* in February and May, 1900, and reproduced in part by consent of the publishers; the second is from the well-known work, *A Visit to Java*, written in 1893 by Mr. W. Basil Worsfold, formerly a British officer in India, and the third by M. H. Van Kol, a member of the Netherlands Parliament, being a paper read by him before the International Congress of Colonial Sociology at Paris in 1900. They thus present views on this important subject by representatives of three great nations and by men who have written after a close study and personal observation.

#### EXPERIENCE OF THE DUTCH WITH TROPICAL LABOR.

[Prof. Clive Day in the *Yale Review*.]

##### THE CULTURE SYSTEM.

As trade between tropical and temperate countries has grown in volume, and as the Tropics have gradually been drawn within the sphere of the political interests of civilized states, a problem has developed of fundamental importance, still pressing for a solution—the problem of tropical labor. Merchants, planters, and statesmen have for centuries been seeking some way to secure in hot countries the

steady supply of efficient laborers on which production depends. In the Western Hemisphere the solution was sought in slavery, and the establishment of slavery was in many cases, so far as results can be measured in dollars and cents, a success. The institution was abolished from humanitarian motives. Some advocates of emancipation believed that production would increase under a system of free labor, but the outcome of the reform has not justified their expectations, and complaints coming from all parts of the world show how far from satisfying the needs of the modern economic organization are the natives of most tropical countries when they are free to be idle. The planters in many countries, impatient at the difficulties encountered, have taken to importing their laborers ready-made from India or China, and have solved one problem only by raising another; for cool labor, though it is profitable in the short run, gives rise to many objections of a social and political kind like those once raised against slavery, and the employment of it will never be accepted as more than a makeshift until the impossibility of educating natives to work has been conclusively proved.

#### HOW IT WORKED AND WHY ABANDONED.

So great have been the trials and losses under the system of free labor that men have been tempted naturally to look back to the advantages enjoyed in the time of slavery, and it has become fashionable to emphasize the good sides of that institution and to hint at the possibility of applying compulsion in some modernized and improved form as a remedy for the ingrained inactivity or inefficiency of free natives. When the suggestion takes concrete shape it becomes often an eulogy of the culture system that the Dutch applied in Java, and a wish that such system might be adapted to other countries. The purpose of this article is to present a description of that system, and to show how it worked and why it was given up. It will be necessary first to describe the native institutions of Java, the country which furnished the main field of its application, and the relations in which the Dutch stood to the natives before its adoption.

#### CONDITIONS WHEN THE SYSTEM WAS INAUGURATED.

Java presented at the beginning of this century an organization of society much like that which the English have found in India. By far the largest part of the people got their living directly from the soil, raising their own rice for food and supplying other needs by trade with the petty artisans in the village or at the near-by market. The villages (*dessas*) in which they lived were hamlets of a few hundred souls, and formed the units in the political organization. Each village had its officers, the headman being the chief and representing it in the outside world. Some villages were subject to the custom of periodical division of the agricultural lands. The country was cut up into a large number of native states, more or less connected by loose feudal ties, but the internal organization seems to have been practically the same in all. The sovereign was lord of all the land. From the dues coming from it in labor and in produce he paid his personal expenses, and by temporary grants of land he supported the expenses of state. The members of the royal household, officials of the administration, and the rank and file in the army, all were paid by assignments of villages from which they could collect the dues. \* \* \* The amount of dues varied probably in different localities. Pierson says that according to the old Javanese custom the cultivator owed two-fifths of the harvest and one day's work in seven.

The Dutch East India Company entered into relations with the representatives of the political rather than of the economic organization in Java, and most of its income came to it as tribute to a higher military power. By treaties forced upon them the native princes were bound to deliver to the Dutch fixed amounts of goods desired for the European market—pepper, indigo, coffee, etc.—either for nothing (*kontingenten*) or for a nominal price (*verpligte leverantien*). The native tax system served as the means by which the Dutch exploited the country; the princes were their agents in introducing new crops and forcing the cultivation of them on the people. The company was a parasite on the native states. \* \* \*

#### A LOGICAL SUCCESSOR OF THE OLD TRADING COMPANY.

In the Dutch, as in the British East Indies, reform has taken the same course since the abolition of the trading company. The home country has assumed the responsibility of governing the natives, not only in their external relations, but in their most private and domestic affairs. This is one side of the reform, the increase in the governing functions. The other side is the decrease in the trading functions; taxes are levied sufficient to pay the expenses of administration, but the chance of profit in industrial enterprises is left free to individuals under such limitations as may seem necessary for the permanent welfare of the community. The transition, which was accomplished with relative smoothness and celerity in the British possessions, has lasted through all this century in the Dutch Indies, and is still in process of completion. In its course one experiment was tried that will always rank as a type of one of the possible methods of organizing colonial production—the culture system as applied during the period from 1830 to 1860. While, as in British India, the Government tended to enter into direct contact with the individual natives in extending its political interests and powers, it assumed at the same time the commercial functions of the old East India Company instead of delegating them to private enterprise. The culture system was a reversion to the policy of the company rather than a direct continuation of it. \* \* \*

#### THE PLAN OF THE CULTURE SYSTEM.

The plan of the culture system, as proposed by Van den Bosch in 1829, was in brief as follows: Instead of paying to the Government a certain proportion of their crops, the natives were to put at its disposal a certain proportion of their land and labor time. The revenue would then consist not in rice, which was almost universally cultivated and which was of comparatively little value to the Government, but in export products grown under the direction of Government contractors on the land set free by the remission of the former tax. According to the estimate, the natives would give up only one-fifth of their land and one-fifth of their time in place of two-fifths of their main crop. The Government promised to bear the loss from failure of crops if this was not directly due to the fault of the cultivators, and moreover promised to pay the natives a certain price for such amounts as they furnished. The Government proposed in this way to secure products suited for export to the European market, on which it expected to realize profits largely in excess of the prices paid to natives and contractors and of the costs of administration. To the natives it promised increased prosperity and a lighter burden of taxation, as a result of the fuller utilization of their chances under the far-sighted management of Europeans. The labor that before through carelessness and ignorance would have been wasted in idleness or in the cultivation of some cheap and superfluous crop was to supply a product of great value in the world market, and the natives were to share in the resulting profits.

The plan of the culture system is on its face attractive, and the system has been judged so often by the plan and professions of its founder rather than by its actual workings that it has been the object of pretty general and sometimes very extravagant praise. The worst offender in this respect was an English barrister, J. W. B. Money, whose book, *Java, or How to Manage a Colony* (London, 1861), is largely responsible for the favor which the culture system has enjoyed in English writings on colonial questions. \* \* \*

During the period of its operation the culture system was applied to the cultivation of a long list of products. The Government experimented with coffee, sugar, indigo, tea, tobacco, cinnamon, cochineal, pepper, silk, cotton, etc., and dropped from the list the products which after an extended trial gave no promise of returning a profit to itself. From the fiscal standpoint, coffee, sugar, and indigo were the only products that ever attained importance. The system was put in force in different islands of the archipelago, in northern Celebes, on the west coast of Sumatra, and in Java, but Java was always the chief field of its operation and a study of its workings can safely be restricted to that island. Even in Java, however, it was applied only in certain selected districts. \* \* \*

#### DIFFICULTIES ENCOUNTERED.

In attempting to establish a new system of production at a stroke, instead of waiting for it to develop naturally, the government found factors of production which were not so easily coerced by orders and regulations as the native labor supply. Under the simple organization of society in Java there had been little trade or intercommunication, the roads had remained of a very primitive kind, and the population lived dispersed in small groups. The government experienced great difficulty in getting products from one part of the

country to another, but the loss that fell upon it in this way was trifling in comparison with the sacrifices imposed upon the natives by the fiction of treating them as suited to a higher organization of industry than the one which they had attained. Considerations of economy led the Government to establish as few warehouses and factories as possible, and consequently a large district was tributary to each one. In one regency about half the cultivators lived 25 miles or more from the indigo factories to which they had to bring their crops. After exhausted fields had gone out of cultivation and other fields had been assigned to a factory the distances ran up as high as 70 miles. To remedy the scattering of the sugar fields, at one time all land near the sugar factory was taken for cane, and rice fields were assigned in the outlying cane fields.

#### IT WAS A SYSTEM OF FORCED LABOR.

In spite of the theory on which the culture system was established, it was a system of forced labor. It could not be maintained without compulsion, because the Government insisted on keeping up the culture of crops that could not return both profit to itself and fair wages to the laborers. The expectation that export articles would pay well for their cultivation, wherever grown, proved false, and if the planter had been an individual instead of a government the cultivation would have stopped in many, perhaps in most, districts. \* \* \*

While the Government gained during a certain period by the culture system, it gained only by appropriating practically all the profits and by making the natives bear practically all the losses. It could never have obtained its surplus if it had paid the natives a "living wage." The system of piece wage identified the native with the success or failure of the crop that he cultivated, and all depended with him on whether the seed fell on good ground or bad.

The pay would have been small enough if the Government had adhered to the plan published at the origin of the system, by which it was to take but one-fifth of the land and of the labor of the natives. There was not the slightest pretense, however, of maintaining this principle. A month after Van den Bosch had advised its adoption he proposed himself that the proportion of land taken should be not one-fifth, but one-third, and in practice all was taken that the Government dared to reserve from the growing of food crops, even up to a half or more. Native labor was treated with as little respect as native land. The new crops needed more labor than was required for rice. Sugar, for example, required twice as much labor on the same area. Every extension in the government cultures, therefore, was accompanied by a more than proportionate increase in the demand for laborers.

With pay so small, and with all the chances on which it depended so far removed from their control, the natives lost all stimulus to work. They gave their labor grudgingly and made no attempts to acquire skill or to prevent waste in the operations that were required of them. And besides the loss in quantity and quality due to the employment of forced labor, the product suffered further deterioration in the factories under the system of government monopoly. Whether the government carried on the processes of manufacture itself or intrusted the manufacture to contractors, the stimulus of competition was lacking in both cases and the result was the same—a product of poor quality.

#### IT WAS ALSO A MONOPOLY.

In taking over the system of the old East India Company the Dutch Government was drawn inevitably into the old policy of monopoly and exclusion. Itself a producer, it was bound to view competitors with jealousy, and was forced into an attitude of hostility toward such of its own subjects as desired to exploit the resources of Java. Independent planters had a bad name with the Government as "particulars" and "fortune seekers," and were practically excluded from the island. \* \* \*

The system was as bad from a political as from an economic standpoint. A characteristic feature of it was the payment to Dutch and native officials of percentages of the product that was delivered to the government by the people under their direction. During the later period of the system over 1,000,000 florins a year were paid out in this form of percentages on three cultures alone; residents had their salaries doubled or more than doubled by this means. A tremendous pressure was thus brought to bear on the whole political administration to enlist the interest of officials in the yield of government cultures. Nothing could have been more efficient in accomplishing the end desired, but at the same time no plan could have been devised more certain to blind the eyes of officials to duties proper to their position. They were taken from the sphere of public servants and turned into managers and overseers of plantations. So long as they showed a good surplus of products every year, the home Government put no check upon their action, and they lived as they liked, each resident a petty oriental despot. \* \* \*

#### HOW THE SUPPORT OF THE NATIVE CHIEFS WAS OBTAINED.

Van den Bosch proposed to secure the adherence of the ruling class of natives, the regents, by giving back to them the position and part of the power that they had enjoyed before the Dutch and English had reduced them to the place of officials. To increase their prestige they were turned again into semi-independent rulers, with grants of land to furnish them with dues in labor and kind as under the old régime, and with a militia formed from the native aristocracy for a bodyguard, strong enough to impose upon the people, but so weak that it need never be a menace to the government. In return they were to lend to the government their knowledge and their influence in getting what was wanted from the native population. Under them were lesser agents, of whom the most important in administration was the district chief. He was bound to the service of the culture system, not only by the influence of his superiors, but also by the receipt of percentages. The district chief was the taskmaster in direct contact with the village organization, apportioning the demands of the government among the villages and making the headmen responsible for their proper fulfillment. In the hierarchy of officials he was the last who represented the interests of the Dutch treasury and gained by his connection with the administration. The village headmen were on the other side of the cleft between Dutch and native interests, and the increased power over the villagers that the system gave into their hands did not recompense them for the precarious position in which they were put by being identified with the producing class. If the village did not supply all that was demanded of it, the headman was punished for its failure. In the liberal period that preceded the introduction of the culture system the principle was accepted that the villages should have perfect freedom in the choice of their heads, and that elections could be nullified by the resident only for specific reasons and with the approval of the governor-general. After about 1840 deposition became the common punishment for headmen who were not successful in extorting what the government desired. The right to a free election became nothing but a form, and there arose "a regular trade," it is said, in village offices. Men of low class and bad character got office as fit tools in carrying out the orders of the administration. \* \* \*

#### GREAT PROFITS REALIZED UNDER THE SYSTEM.

The main object in view in the institution of the culture system was attained by it, and a net profit was sent each year to the home Government that soon exceeded the anticipations even of the founder. The exact amount of the surplus will never be known, for some of the statistics were falsified and some are lacking, but there is an estimate by the best authority on finance in the Netherlands, N. G. Pierson, covering the most important part of the period of operation of the system, that can be accepted as a close approximation to the truth. The estimate makes the net profit of the system 22,333,000 florins a year from 1840 to 1874, a total profit of about 781,000,000 florins. Over four-fifths of the total came from one crop, coffee, and of the remaining cultures, bringing in 142,000,000 florins, sugar alone gave 115,000,000 florins. It is apparent that the system failed as a system even in respect to the one point of net surplus. It could introduce cultures, but could not maintain them unless they were so well suited to the natural conditions of the country and the needs of the market that the advantages of land and climate overcame the disadvantages of forced labor and government management. The government actually lost on many crops for a number of years. And its greatest success, the coffee culture, was so profitable not because of good management on its own part or good cultivation on the part of the native, but because of a change of the price of coffee in the world for which it was in no way responsible.

## SIMILAR SYSTEM ATTEMPTED IN THE PHILIPPINES IN 1780.

The closest parallel to the culture system known to the writer is the system of forced cultures established by the Spanish governor in the Philippines in 1780. It was applied at first to the production of tobacco, indigo, and silk, but was later restricted to tobacco alone. On land fit for the cultivation of tobacco the natives were forced, on penalty of severe corporal punishment, to grow that crop and to deliver the product to the government at an arbitrary and nominal price. The government sold the product in Europe, and got from this source a considerable part of its revenue. Fiscal reasons determined the introduction and maintenance of the system in the Philippines as in Java. The system resulted in abuse of the natives, corruption of the officials, the discouragement of private enterprise, and such a deterioration in the quality of the product that much of it was unsalable at any price. A report to the home Government in 1871 from the director of the culture showed that the net gain from it was much less than had been supposed (\$1,360,000) and would vanish entirely if the government made the necessary expenditures on machinery, factories, and warehouses, paid the arrears due to native cultivators (\$1,600,000 for the crops of 1869 and 1870), and paid cash in the future. He showed that the population of the richest districts of the islands had been reduced to utter misery by the culture. They were worse off than the slaves in Cuba, for these were fed by their masters, while the government would not allow the natives in the Philippines the time necessary to gain their food supply. The forced culture was finally abolished in 1882.

## COMPARISON WITH THE BRITISH LAND METHODS IN INDIA.

The Dutch have sometimes claimed that they were no worse than their English neighbors, and that only "British cant" could deny the existence of forced cultures in British India. The claim is justified by the facts to a certain extent. In the indigo and opium cultures in India there have been cases of compulsion of the natives by the planters attended with as grave abuses as any that marked the application of the culture system in Java. There is this essential difference, however—that the British Government has never made itself responsible for the evils by encouraging the system that gave rise to them, and if it sinned it was by omission. Dilke drew the proper contrast between the policies of the two Governments when he said "With our system there is some chance of right being done, so small is our self-interest in the wrong." The British Government faced the right way, whatever were its weaknesses; the Dutch Government was in itself a wrong. The author of a recently published article on the policy of the Dutch in Java expresses a doubt whether the oppression of the native population was a necessary result of the system, and is not rather to be ascribed to abuses in the application of a principle than to the principle itself. \* \* \*

## THE BURDEN BECAME INTOLERABLE.

The culture services, borne in addition to the land tax and the services due the government for building roads and forts, etc., proved to be a burden that was intolerable in those parts of the island that were not specially favored by nature. In the course of time a movement of population was set up from the districts in which the system had been introduced to government lands not subject to it and to the lands held by private individuals. Populous regions lost as much as one-half or two-thirds of their inhabitants through emigration. Those who remained at home suffered from recurrent famines and pestilences due to the diminished food supply. The natives were not left time or land enough to raise their food and were not given wages enough to buy it. That the government might have the fields earlier for sugar cane the cultivators were forced to plant the kinds of rice that matured earlier, but gave a smaller crop of poorer quality. \* \* \* Of all these events practically nothing was known at the time in the Netherlands. No government industry was ever so free from the supervision of the general public or so unchecked by the public criticism that keeps governments in the right track as was the culture system. The minister of the colonies was the only man in the Netherlands who knew the real state of affairs in the East, and he was responsible to the King alone. \* \* \* The one great fact known to the Dutch people and to their representatives in the States-General was the net surplus that was turned into the treasury every year. Arguments against the system would have needed to be strongly urged and widely spread to meet this argument for it.

## THE ABANDONMENT OF THE CULTURE AND FORCED LABOR SYSTEM.

In fact, there was practically no opposition to the culture system in the Netherlands before the revision of the Dutch constitution in 1848. The members of the Liberal party did not before that time oppose the government's colonial policy; they opposed the political system that allowed the government to have a policy of any kind free from their knowledge and control. It was not until the fundamental question of government by the King or government by the people had been settled that the details of government could form a subject of parliamentary discussion. The colonial question was of minor importance in the agitation that resulted in the constitutional changes of 1848, but the new constitution established conditions essential to reform of the colonial system in providing that the colonies should be governed by the King and chambers, not by the King alone, and by exacting annual reports to the States-General on the state of the colonies. A new class of men entered the second chamber, liberals skilled in the doctrines of classical political economy and opposed to monopoly and compulsion. \* \* \*

The colonial question occupied the chief place in Dutch politics in the decade from 1860 to 1870. The struggle over it gave rise to bitter party feeling and tempted the King to an interference that put a dangerous strain upon the constitution and was decided only after a number of ministerial crises. By the later date, however, the Liberals had won the victory, and the culture system had practically been abolished in favor of cultivation by free laborers working under private planters.

## THE NEW SYSTEM AND ITS RESULTS.

The less important government cultures, those of tea, tobacco, indigo, pepper, and cinnamon, were given up between 1860 and 1865. Some of these had been the source of actual loss to the government, none had been the source of any considerable profit, and even the Conservatives were ready to agree that these cultures were not worth the keeping. The case was different with the remaining cultures of sugar and coffee, more important than all the others put together in respect to the land and labor occupied by them and the profits that they returned. The sugar culture was peculiar in that it had always given employment to a considerable number of Europeans, who carried on the processes of manufacture as contractors under the government. The organization of the industry under these Europeans promised to make the change from compulsory services to wage labor much easier, and to facilitate also the taxation on which the government must depend for its revenue when the industry was transferred to private enterprise. A law of 1870 provided for a gradual transition from forced to free culture. Beginning in 1878, the amount of land and labor owned by the natives was reduced annually, and in 1890 the transition had been completely effected. Meanwhile the planters were bound to pay the natives wages considerably higher than was customary under the culture system, and to pay them for their land as well, and in addition to pay to the government a tax on the sugar produced, varying from 2 to 3 florins per picul (133 pounds). The government lost slightly by the change, receiving, according to Pierson's estimates, 4,000,000 florins annually in place of over 5,000,000 florins which it had been making by the sale of sugar in the previous period; but the natives gained very decidedly, and the profits to the planters were sufficient to lead to a rapid extension of the culture outside the bounds that the government had set for it. Between 1871 and 1884, 50 new sugar factories were built, and the production rose from 2,725,000 piculs to 6,495,000 piculs.

This period of progress in the sugar industry has been followed by one of depression that has developed into a real crisis in recent years; but there is no evidence to connect the decline with the change from government to private management. It is due to the ravages of the "sereh" and to the fall in price caused by the increased production throughout the world and by the European bounty system. \* \* \*



But one government culture remains to be considered, the most important of all in the past and the only one that is still maintained—the coffee culture. Under the old system coffee alone returned more than four-fifths of the total revenue that was obtained from the sale of products by the government. The large profits were an index of the strength of the culture and led to its being retained for fiscal reasons long after the other cultures had been abolished. In 1898 the government coffee culture was still imposed on 250,157 families scattered through 14 of the 20 residencies into which Java is divided. In the budget of 1900 the receipts of the government from the sale of coffee are estimated at 10,185,815 florins out of total receipts estimated at 141,931,000 florins, and the specific expenditures on account of the coffee culture are put at 5,713,461 florins. \* \* \* With the fall in the price of coffee due to the increased supply in the world's markets and the consequent decline in profits, the motive for maintaining the government culture has grown weaker. \* \* \* There is a great diversity of opinion as to the best way to affect the transition from forced to free culture; but the change is sure to come and will probably be not long delayed. Of the natives engaged in the culture nearly one-half are now freed from the obligation of planting more trees to replace those that die, and since 1894 forced culture and delivery of coffee have been entirely abolished in four of the residencies where they formerly prevailed. \* \* \*

In their relation with the really free laborers of Java (those not subject to the influence of some political chief) European employers have experienced two great difficulties. At the start the difficulty is encountered of getting men to bind themselves to work for wages who see any chance to continue their independent existence. \* \* \* As a result, it is the universal practice among employers to offer a large part of the wages for any period in advance. If the native takes the bait, he can be held to labor (in theory at least) until he has worked out the debt that he has incurred. The system of advances to secure the services of laborers is described as universal down to the present time. Employers and officials deplore it, but recognize its necessity. Even the government makes advances when it requires the services of wage laborers. \* \* \* The second great difficulty experienced by planters in their relations with the laborers is the tendency of the laborers to break their contracts and leave their work, whether for good reasons or for no apparent reason. Under the culture system, which identified the economic and political organization and applied all the police power of the State to hold laborers to their work, it was possible to check the untrustworthiness and unfaithfulness of the natives. \* \* \*

### AN ENGLISH VIEW OF THE DUTCH SYSTEM IN JAVA.

[From W. Basil Worsfold's *A Visit to Java*, 1893.]

The great part of the special interest which attaches to Java is derived from the fact that it has been the scene of an interesting financial experiment. The history of the introduction of the culture system and of its gradual abandonment in recent years is interesting. The author of the proposal was General Van den Bosch, who became governor-general in 1830. The system continued in full operation until the year 1871, when the home Government passed an act providing for the gradual abandonment of the government sugar plantations. By the year 1890 sugar, by far the most important of the Javan industries, was practically freed from government interference. At the present time it is in debate whether or not the coffee industry should be similarly treated. \* \* \*

### RESOURCES OF THE ISLAND GREATLY DEVELOPED BY THE SYSTEM.

The immediate object of the culture system was to extend the cultivation of sugar, coffee, and other produce suited for European consumption; its ultimate object was to develop the resources of the island. This latter was, of course, the most important. Van den Bosch saw that the natives would never be able to do this by themselves. In the first place, they were still organized on the patriarchal model in village communities; and, in the second, owing to the tropical climate and the extreme ease with which life could be sustained in so fertile a country, they were naturally indolent and unprogressive. He therefore proposed to organize their labor under European supervision. By this method he thought that he would be able both to raise the revenue and to improve the condition of the peasants by teaching them to grow valuable produce in addition to the rice crops on which they depended for subsistence. Van den Bosch became governor-general of Java and its dependencies in 1830. Before leaving Holland he had made his proposals known and obtained the approval of the Netherlands Government. He took with him newly appointed officials free from colonial traditions, and his reforms inspired such confidence that a number of well-educated and intelligent persons were willing to emigrate with their families to Java in order to take up the business of manufacturing the produce grown under the new system. Upon his arrival in the island a special branch of the colonial administration was created. The first work of the new department was to found the sugar industry. It was necessary to supply the manufacturers with both capital and income. Accordingly a sum amounting to £14,000 was placed to the credit of each manufacturer in the books of the department. Of this sum he was allowed to draw up to £125 per month for the expenses of himself and his family during the first two years. From the third year onward he paid back one-tenth annually. Thus at the end of twelve years the capital was repaid. The manufacturer was to apply the capital so advanced to the construction of the sugar mill, which was to be fitted with the best European machinery and worked by water power. Free labor and timber from the government plantations was supplied, and the customs duties upon the machinery and implements imported were remitted. The building of the mills was supervised by the controleurs, the officials of the new department, and had to be carried out to their satisfaction. The department also undertook to see that the peasants in the neighborhood of each mill should have from 700 to 1,000 acres planted with sugar canes by the time the mills were in working order. In Java, as in other Eastern countries, the landlord has the right of selecting the crop which the tenant is to plant, and therefore the peasant saw nothing unusual in the action of the government. The controleurs ascertained, in the case of each village, how much rice land was necessary for the subsistence of the village, and they then ordered the remainder, usually one-fifth, to be planted with sugar canes. At the same time they explained that the value of the crop of sugar would be much greater than that of the rice crop, and promised that the peasants should be paid not only for the crops but also for the labor of cutting the canes and carrying them to the mill. When, at the end of two years, the mills had been built and the plantations established, another advance was made by the department to the manufacturers. This was capital sufficient to pay for the value of the sugar crop, estimated as it stood, for the wages of the peasants, and generally for the expenses of manufacture. This second advance was at once repaid by the produce of the mill. At first the department required the manufacturer to deliver the whole amount of produce to them at a price one-third in excess of the cost of production. Subsequently he was allowed the option of delivering the whole crop to government, or of delivering so much of the produce only as would pay for the interest on the crop in advance, together with the installment of the original capital annually due. Working on these terms, large profits were made by the manufacturers, and there soon came to be a demand for such new contracts as the government had at their disposal.

### EFFECT UPON THE NATIVE POPULATION.

As for the peasants, they were undoubtedly benefited by the introduction of the system. While the land rent continued to be calculated as before, on a basis of the produce of rice fields, the value of the sugar crop was so much greater than that of the rice, which it partially displaced, that the money received for it amounted on the average to twice the sum paid to government for land rent on the whole of the village land. Moreover, although the estimated price of the crop was paid to the wedanas, or village chiefs, the wages for cutting and carrying were paid to the peasants individually. The value of the crop, the rate of wages, and the relations between the peasants and the manufacturers generally were settled by the controleurs.

In 1871, when the culture system was in full operation, there were 39,000 bouws, or 70,000 acres, under sugar cane, giving employment to 222,000 native families, and 97 sugar mills had been started. One-third of the produce was delivered to government at the rate of 8 florins per picul (135 pounds), and the remaining two-thirds were sold by the manufacturers in open market. In the five years, 1866-1870, the government profit on sugar amounted to rather more than 25,000,000 florins.



## NEW INDUSTRIES DEVELOPED.

Subsequently the cultivation of coffee, indigo, cochineal, tobacco, pepper, tea, and cinchona was added to that of sugar. The system pursued was not identical in the case of all produce. Cochineal, indigo, tea, and tobacco were cultivated in a manner similar to that adopted for sugar. But in the case of coffee, cinnamon, and pepper it was not found necessary to have any manufacturers between the controleurs and the peasants. Of these coffee, the most important, is grown on all lands having an elevation of from 2,000 to 4,500 feet. Each head of a family is required to plant a certain number of trees in gardens (the maximum was fixed in 1877 at fifty a year), and to keep a nursery of young trees to replenish the plantations. These gardens and nurseries are all inspected by native and European officials. The process of harvesting the berry is similarly supervised, but after that is accomplished the peasants are left to dry, clean, and sort the berries by themselves, and are allowed to deliver the crop at the coffee stores at their own convenience. Finally, private persons contract for periods of two or three years to pack and transport the coffee to the central stores at the ports. Of the coffee produced on government account, one-fifth only is sold in Java, and the remainder is sent home to Europe and sold there.

## A FINANCIAL SUCCESS.

The culture system was so successful as a financial expedient that between the years 1831 and 1875 the colonial revenue yielded surpluses to Holland amounting to 725,000,000 florins. This total seems the more remarkable when we know that from 1838 onwards, the colonial revenue was charged with 200,000,000 florins of the public debt of Holland, being the proportion borne by Belgium before the separation of the two countries, which took place at that date.

In 1876, however, the long series of surpluses ceased, and they have since been replaced by deficits almost continuous. These deficits are due to three well-ascertained causes: (1) the Achin war, (2) public works, and (3) the fall in the price of sugar and coffee. In order to show that this remarkable change in the financial fortunes of Java is in no way due to the culture system, it is necessary to go somewhat more into detail.

(1) Before the outbreak of the Achin war in 1873, the average expenditure of the colonial government for military purposes was 30,000,000 florins annually. During the period 1873-1884 this expenditure rose to an average of 50,000,000 florins, and the total cost of the war during that period amounted to 240,000,000 florins. Since 1884 the expenditure has been reduced by confining the operations of the troops to such as are purely defensive; even then the average annual expenditure has reached 40,000,000 florins.

(2) Since 1875 the construction of railways and other public works, notably the harbor works at Tanjong Priok, the port of Batavia, has been undertaken by government. Since the cost has been paid out of current revenue, and not raised by loans, these works have necessitated a further annual expenditure of 8,000,000 florins. The total sum spent in public works between the years 1875-1884, amounting to 75,000,000 florins, is almost exactly equivalent to the deficit incurred during the same period.

(3) In suffering from the competition of France in sugar, and of Brazil in coffee, Java has not been peculiar. The British West Indian colonies are at the present time most disastrously affected by the bounty-fed sugar industry of France, and Ceylon is only just learning how to compensate itself for the diminution of its coffee export by the introduction of a new industry—tea.

## ABANDONMENT OF THE CULTURE SYSTEM.

Although the culture system has yielded such satisfactory results, it has been gradually abandoned since 1871.

The reason for this change of policy is the feeling that the system, though necessary originally to develop the resources of the island, is at variance with the best interests of the natives, and hinders the introduction of private enterprise and capital. Increased commercial prosperity is expected to compensate for the loss of revenue caused by the withdrawal of the government from the work of production. In the mean time, it has been found necessary to impose various new and direct taxes. The most important of these is a poll tax on the natives, which has taken the place of the personal service formerly rendered by them on the government plantations. Originally imposed in 1871, it yielded 2,500,000 florins in 1886. Another compensating source of revenue is the growth of the verponding. As already mentioned, this is a tax of three-fourths per cent on the capital value of house property and industrial plant. It is assessed every three years, and therefore is an accurate test of the growth of private wealth invested in the colony. In the fifteen years from 1871 to 1886 the amount yielded by this tax showed a growth of 75 per cent.

It is not necessary to detail the various steps by which the Dutch have carried out this policy of abandonment. It is sufficient to note the general result.

To-day all the industries, with the exception of coffee, opium, and salt are free. In the production of the two latter, opium and salt, the colonial government maintains a complete monopoly; in the case of coffee they compete with the planters. The extent of the shares respectively taken by the government and private enterprise in the trade of the island is exhibited by the following returns for 1889:

	Imports.	Exports.
	<i>Florins.</i>	<i>Florins.</i>
Government.....	13,009,445	33,072,175
Private persons .....	160,375,326	164,590,439
Total .....	173,384,771	197,662,614

The government still produces two-thirds of the coffee crop. In 1889 the amount produced respectively by the government and the planters was 578,000 and 356,000 piculs.

Of the two chief industries of the island, sugar and coffee, the exports in 1890 amounted in value to 50,000,000 and 15,000,000 florins, respectively. To these must be added the new industries—tea and cinchona bark. The former is only in its infancy, and is confined to the immediate neighborhood of Soekaboemi, the headquarters of the planting interest in Java. Here there are two important estates, Sinagar and Parakan Salak, which are from 12,000 to 15,000 acres in extent. The latter industry is especially hopeful. In 1890 the area of cinchona plantations was 22,500 acres, and 6,000,000 pounds of bark, containing 4 per cent of sulphate of quinine was exported. This amount is equivalent to half the world's supply for the year.

Of the import trade, it is not necessary to say more than that the most important item is that of the various cotton goods, coming mainly from this country, which serve the natives with material for clothing suitable for their tropical climate. It is also important to remember that there are 250,000 Chinese residents in the island, by whom all the retail and part of the wholesale trade is conducted.

## PRESENT DEPRESSION TEMPORARY, AND NOT DUE TO CHANGE OF SYSTEM.

Undoubtedly the resources of Java are at the present time subjected to a heavy strain. On the other hand, it must not be forgotten that (1) the burden of the Achin war may be at any time removed, and (2) all public works are being paid for out of current revenue without recourse to loans. There is, therefore, no reasonable ground for supposing that the present financial difficulties of the colonial government are more than temporary. A glance at the balance sheet of the island for the year 1889 shows to what an extent the difficulties are due to an increasing sense of responsibility toward the natives, and to an intention to eventually open all the industries of this singularly fertile island to private enterprise.

## THE NETHERLANDS VIEW OF COLONIAL GOVERNMENT TOLD BY A NETHERLANDS LAWMAKER.

[Report presented by M. H. Van Kol, member of the Dutch Parliament, to the first section of the International Congress of Colonial Sociology held at Paris in 1900.]

## INTRODUCTION.

To create between the colonizing nation and its native subjects a bond of moral sympathy, to substitute for a domination imposed and maintained by force a state of political tutelage which is accepted because it is felt to be based on justice, and because of the advantages and services which it renders"—such is the vast and beautiful programme which the general secretary of our Congress has formulated in his report introductory to our labors.

Whereas formerly colonization was treated only from the viewpoint of the mother country's interests, and with sole regard to the material advantages derived from commercial monopoly, forced labor of the natives, and the exploitation of their land, we are faced now and henceforth with a nobler and higher ideal.

The results of the old régime are well known; absolute subjection of the colony, an artificial economic organization, and a complete lack of administrative freedom on the part of the subject people. This narrow colonial policy, based as it was on egotism and violence, remained blind to the rights of the natives and deaf to the voice of justice toward the "inferior" races. Under pretext of civilizing, remorseless exploitation was resorted to. The people of different color and clime were ruthlessly exterminated.

Colonial expansion may be regarded as an inevitable phenomenon, the fatal result of capitalism and the economic evolution of the nineteenth century; this problem, however, is beyond the scope of our congress. Given the fact of our productive forces multiplying infinitely, our machinery throwing on the market each day enormous quantities of products, it became necessary to seek new outlets in order to escape the terrible crisis of overproduction.

On the other hand, it was neither just nor natural that the civilized nations of the west should remain as if huddled in a narrow space, suffocating from constantly increasing agglomeration, whereas half of the world with all the natural riches of its soil was left at random, being occupied by primitive and ignorant people, forming few scattered groups and holding sway over disproportionately large areas. If the new colonies were to be left to shift for themselves, their wealth would never be brought to the surface for the happiness of humanity. Furthermore, were one to abandon existing colonies it would mean to deliver them to anarchy and to condemn them to misery. Hence we have also a duty to fulfill and a problem to solve.

Wherever civilization can not originate spontaneously—and the history of centuries is a proof thereof—it must be imposed by the slow and patient work of education and the transformation of a defective organization. We have to take under our benevolent charge these weakly and sickly children. This work of civilization and education requires much reflection and intelligence. It should be properly adjusted to the period of evolution in which the backward races live. A political régime has to be selected which should cause the least amount of friction with the native population in order to elevate them gradually by persuasion and example. In a word, their rights should be respected. Justice and kindness should be used to achieve what will never be done by violence and tyranny. This is the task which modern history imposes on us. How shall we perform it?

## BENEFIT TO THE NATIVE IS THE PRIMARY OBJECT OF COLONIAL GOVERNMENT.

The moral duty which we have to perform may be said to be to favor the well-being of the natives, to improve their condition, and to raise them to a higher moral plane. This is our only excuse and defense of the fact that we take from them their complete independence which would be to their ruin. Our superior civilization, instead of a terrible scourge, might be a source of benefit for the natives by favoring and accelerating their material, intellectual, and moral evolution.

Abhorring as I do any colonial expansion by force or violent annexation, I do not hesitate to declare that we can extend our sovereignty only by peaceful means; it would be fortunate indeed if the European powers were to find the time to discharge their duties in the immense—possibly even too large—colonies they hold at present.

In order to consolidate our dominion, so that we may in peace devote ourselves to the beneficent work, we must win the minds and the hearts of the natives, form the minds of the children at school, and those of the adults by our political administration.

Education adapted to their practical needs, carefully respecting their ideas, customs, and traditions, is likely to slowly raise the children to a higher intellectual and moral plane. A special programme will be needed for each country and even each region, but this question constitutes a subject of a more competent discussion by M. de Saussure.

All I would say here is that we ought to start with educating the young, who some day will be the adult, and that in the same way as the children the grown-up people are able to develop, and will develop, owing to our efforts. When a higher stage of evolution will be reached the hideous customs will disappear, the morals will become purer, and the natives will have mounted one step of the long ladder of civilization, the summit of which we can by no means be said to have reached.

One great principle should always guide us in this great work of education, and that is that each reform, each administrative measure, should be adapted to the given state of development and the existing conditions without breaking too suddenly their continuity.

## THE LAW OF PROGRESSIVE EVOLUTION.

The great law of progressive evolution dominates the moral as well as the physical world, both of them developing simultaneously. In the matter of intellect the faculty of comprehending and assimilating certain ideas depends largely on the environment in which man has been born, on heredity, the traces of which he shows, but chiefly on the means of production which he controls, so that the mode of production of material life dominates generally the development of the social, political, and intellectual life. The social evolution, independent of the will of individuals, may be favored or retarded by the power of some in the state or society, and within certain limits this of course holds true of the immense power wielded by the colonial government. The mode of production is, after all, the great factor in the evolution of mankind which ought never to be lost out of view.

It is clear, then, that the improvement of minds, the abolition of barbarous customs, the change of traditions and habits can go on only progressively by slow stages. We are able to accelerate the evolution and progress, but we can not regulate them at our pleasure. Our wishes are impotent, our orders ridiculous and harmful. A social organization can not be changed by means of decrees, still less by an army of soldiers or functionaries.

Sometimes we may have to face artificial institutions which are not the result of spontaneous development, but that of the arbitrary will of an individual or a class; such institutions can be easily eradicated, for they have not taken root in the soil for which they were intended. But all those organisms which are the result of past evolution, which have originated and grown up with the natives, will disappear only with the factors that have caused them to originate.

Cannibalism, slavery even, disappear amidst changed social surroundings; the laziness and servility of the natives, their wasteful character, are but the results of economic conditions in which they have lived, and are sure to change with them. Let us therefore not strive after chimeras, but let us take account of reality and learn how to adapt our administrative organisms to the customs and conditions of the natives. Let us respect their organization of the family, tribe, commune, and everything else that makes up the "covenant" of their life.

It is only by studying their language and learning their customs, traditions, and history that we will be enabled to rule people who for centuries have had a different civilization. To be sure, the task is difficult, and this the more because our predecessors have left us a heritage of continued spoliations, crimes, injustice, and cruelty, the memory of which has filled the hearts of the natives with hatred and distrust; the task is difficult but not impossible. Since we are unable to either push them into other regions or, following the example of colonizers of former centuries, to exterminate them, all that is left to us is to conciliate the natives by bringing them into closer touch with ourselves by gaining their lost confidence and acquiring their affections by our benevolence.

Let us guard against any act of hostility or injustice. Let us not impose on them our laws and codes which they do not understand, and which will do them only harm, and even demoralize them.

Let us push our efforts in the direction of a native administration, strong and independent, but under the strict and honest control of the European administration. We have never known, nor shall we ever know, how to rule directly these people of distant and unknown countries, people whose desires and wishes we don't know. Our sphere of activity would be too large, our administration too extended and complicated, if we intended to regulate all the details thereof. The foreigners stand in need of the knowledge and devotion of the natives. Our direction, counsel, and control ought to be sufficient; where our direct rule would cause but harm the indirect rule, with the assistance of the natives, will have a salutary influence for the good of the people whose faith we have in our hands.

#### NATIVES SHOULD BE GIVEN A LARGE SHARE IN THE WORK OF ADMINISTERING THE LAWS OF THE COLONY.

Two systems present themselves to us—either to allow the natives to administer themselves under European tutelage, or else to assimilate them to the inhabitants of the mother country by imposing on them our ideas and laws. Between these two policies the choice can not be doubtful. Our rule of conduct should be to preserve or procure for the natives the greatest possible amount of authority, while never forgetting that there is close connection between the administrative, political, religious, and social organizations of these primitive races. The duty devolving on us, then, is to leave to the local powers large independence in the conduct of their affairs.

Their administration, although imperfect in our eyes, has something attractive for them, for they have grown up with it, and it corresponds to their tastes, tendencies, origin, and even prejudices. This system possesses the advantage of being adaptable to the exigencies of the moment and admitting of modifications under trying circumstances, whereas our laws are too inflexible, inexorable, and harsh for them. Let us, therefore, always and ever begin by maintaining the native administrative organisms in the expectation that a higher degree of civilization will improve, purify, and perfect them by means of our counsel, control, and ardent desire to see justice done to the weak and oppressed.

Since there can not be any absolute system and no general solution applicable to so many different situations, the particular condition of each colony has to be studied and each special case considered on its own merits. Being in the position of the tutor we have to study the child and distinguish between the periods of infancy, adolescence, and maturity. Very often the native will appear to us separated from ourselves by an abyss, and neither wishing to crush or exterminate him, nor being able to fuse and assimilate him to ourselves, we must attempt to bring him in closer touch with ourselves. What he is at present we have been some centuries ago; what we are he will become some day, for even the most retrograde races have shown themselves capable of civilization. History furnishes us the proof for it. These colonies are like the children in the family, at first they cause us care and trouble, but later on they give us joy and support. We are able to elevate the natives, to bring them into closer touch with ourselves by means of our ideas, education, friendly guardianship, and control, animated by the spirit of justice and fraternity. It would be preposterous to try to assimilate the natives; all we can do is to guide them in the proper path. Let us see to it that the child grows up and develops; let us charge ourselves with his education, so that when he has grown up through our care we should be able to let him govern himself by granting him autonomy.

But before the coming generations are to see the ripe fruit of the tree we have a long-winded work to perform. So long as the natives of these distant countries live under our protection and friendly tutelage, we must leave to them a large amount of administrative freedom and procure for them as much of well-being as is in our power.

#### THEIR SOCIAL CUSTOMS SHOULD BE RESPECTED WHERE PRACTICABLE AND PROPER.

Let us not demolish their holy ark ("leur arche sainte"), whether it has taken the shape of the tribe, the community, or the village; let us leave intact their organization required by their customs, which, moreover, is usually the result of past evolution. The chiefs of the village or the district should be of their own blood, both when they are elected by the natives according to the customs of the country as well as when they are appointed by our Government. The work of the European functionaries should be restricted to a strict but just and enlightened control, and to the administration of those public undertakings of common interest which are to benefit all inhabitants, black and white, of the colony.

Among the public services of general interest to the colony, whether they be organized by larger or smaller territorial districts, the more important are the administration of financial and monetary affairs, that of posts and telegraphs, that of the means of communication (canals and railroads), the establishment of ports and maritime transportation, the maintenance of the higher courts of justice, the matters of common defense and commercial relation with other countries. A large decentralization of financial administration particularly will prevent this branch from becoming a monopoly in the hands of the Europeans, and will permit of the admission of natives who have shown that they possess the necessary capacity for useful service along these lines.

Being responsible for the financial results we must try above all to lessen the expenditures and increase the revenues. Without taking recourse to ill-advised economy of cutting down the salaries of European and native officials, we should, by fixing the revenues, prevent all exaction and illegal gain. By regulating their amount, not according to the greediness of the mother country, but according to the evident and real needs of the colony, these revenues may be cut down to a large extent, particularly if prudence is shown in organizing the public service of these primitive countries on a less extensive footing than in the countries of Europe. With the help of a thousand European officials England rules British India with her two hundred and eighty-seven millions of inhabitants; France has twelve hundred and sixty-seven in Indo-China for a population twelve times less.

#### INCREASED REVENUE BY DECREASED CHARGES.

The revenues may be increased considerably even by decreasing the charges imposed on the natives. The state monopoly of some public services, which lend themselves more easily in the colonies than anywhere else; the working of the better mines and the petroleum wells by the state; participation in the net profits of franchises granted to private individuals; a good organization in order to make more productive the state domains (forests, salt springs, pearl fisheries), without wasting or squandering blindly the future wealth of the soil and subsoil, will cause to flourish the finances. The taxes, shaped to a large extent in accordance with local custom (land tax, capitation tax, tax on games and sports, licenses on professions, etc.), should take a fixed character easy of control and not subject to arbitrary action. A monopoly such as that of opium might constitute a source of considerable revenue for the treasury, while limiting the harmful consumption of this drug pending its complete abolition.

The administration of justice should leave large scope to the employment of natives under the strict control of the colonial government. In this case as well the ideas and customs should be respected, while at the same time the most cruel and barbarous punishments should be done away with. One of the chief points is an efficient guaranty of the property of the natives against all encroachments on the part of outsiders, without, however, lapsing into the ridiculous extreme of exacting proofs of title or other documents in a country where they do not exist yet. The protection of the native's property against theft and usury can also be obtained by a good organization of the police, and it is in this field as well that the inhabitants of the country may play an active and indispensable part.

#### NATIVE TITLES AND HONORS SHOULD BE RESPECTED.

By leaving to the kings and native princes their titles and honors we avoid the risk of offending them, which, owing to the almost religious prestige which they possess, may turn out a great danger.

The introduction of improved methods in agriculture and stock raising, by means of persuasion and example rather than by force, would make the necessary tax burdens less heavy. Traveling instructors from among the natives might spread better methods and give useful advice to the agriculturists. Popular education could neither dispense with the cooperation of the natives, who know the language

of the country and are able to impart to instruction, this powerful arm of civilization a practical programme fitted to the needs of the people, and obtaining results by object lessons such as could never be had by the study of useless books, oftentimes even hurtful to the primitive people. Another means of drawing closer the natives is the mutual knowledge of languages, so that the European official should be able to make himself understood in the native cabin and the native to make use of our civilization as contained in our writings.

The administration of the sanitary service, of which the chief purpose is the prevention of diseases (vaccination, draining of marshes, prophylactic measures against the spread of venereal diseases and epidemics), should more than any other branch make use of a native organization. The education of native physicians and native midwives, particularly, is of urgent necessity and has been altogether too long neglected in all the colonies. But in this case as well matters should not be pushed too abruptly; care should be taken to avoid violent conflicts with strongly entrenched prejudices, but rather to gain confidence by benevolent assistance.

#### FAMILY AND RELIGIOUS CUSTOMS.

The organization of the family and the question of religion are not part of the topic to be discussed here (i. e., the question of native administrative organisms), but here again the experience of the past has taught us that liberty, toleration, and persuasion are doing more in hastening evolution toward a higher stage than the severity of the laws or violent breaches, which quite often only make the evil worse.

#### PUBLIC WORKS AN IMPORTANT FACTOR IN DEVELOPMENT.

Nothing is so effective in gaining the heart and confidence of the natives as useful public works, which if left to them could never have been executed. The construction of a system of railways that will enable them to market their products, the digging of canals which will bring fertilizing waters to their dried-up fields, the regulation of rivers which inundate their crops will do more for their civilization than the destruction by armed hand of their harvests, the burning down of their villages, the mowing down of their men by our cannon. Appeal should be made to the natives for cooperation in the administration of public works, and in the case of irrigation works and distribution of the water supply care should be taken to preserve piously the vestiges of native organizations, created during centuries, for regulating this vital question. In the matter of distributing the water among the inhabitants of the same village, a large amount of autonomy might be left to them, while the Government should maintain an impartial control, especially when, as a consequence of the existence of European plantations or industries, conflicts might come up, chiefly by fault of the white people.

Irrespective of what may be the consequences, capital should be invited and aid should be given to it within certain limits, in order to make possible the improvement of these uncultivated countries and large areas. Without the fruitful aid of capital the plains and forests of North America would afford but a meager support to a few hundred thousand of Indians over an area which maintains at present over 75,000,000 of human beings. The franchises to the capitalists should be limited in accordance with the wants of the natives; the pumping out of millions to go abroad should be postponed as long as possible. In the matter of relations between the capitalists and the native administrations, the Government ought to play the rôle of an intermediary by guaranteeing to the natives their fundamental rights, and preventing any violation against their customary rights of property. The Government on its part must not set an example of spoliating the inhabitants by ceding hundreds of thousands of acres to the speculation of franchise grabbers, who do not give security that they will improve the land which they request as favors at the hands of the Government. The guardian ought to watch with jealous care over the common patrimony of the natives.

This is a rough summary sketch of what might be exacted from the administration of the colonies carried on for the primordial interests of the natives. For all this a European personnel, not too numerous, but select, is needed. It is criminal to charge with this noble task men who have not been prepared by long studies for the high duty they are to discharge, to leave place to chance and favoritism in the selection of the men, instead of making a severe choice among the best fitted, most capable, and most energetic of our young men. It is not so much the examination which ought to decide as the certainty of having found men of honorable character possessed of justice and a profound knowledge of the human heart. By having the control over the native administration they hold in their hands, as it were, the fate of millions of inhabitants of these distant countries.

#### THE RESULTS OF PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE.

All that which we have said of the duty of colonial governments to give a large and ever-increasing place to the natives in the administration is not a mere theory taking no account of reality, but a system which has stood its test and is based on the results of long-time experience.

The theories expounded just now have been applied almost as a whole in the immense Dutch colonies, which occupy an area equal to four times that of France, and where 34,000,000 of human beings live under Dutch rule. The Indian archipelago contains islands inhabited by nomadic tribes who live in hordes in the woods or do not leave their canoes. In other places a union of tribes has formed a State under a chief or king, whereas the great islands of the sound form to a large extent lands divided into communities with fixed borders. This is the case of the whole of Java, which has an area equal to three times that of Holland, and contains five times its population. In order to put some restriction on this altogether large subject we shall describe mainly the administration of this beautiful colony. All these regions of so different a character, which have been obtained either by conquest or the régime of protectorates or through voluntary submission, all these islands, where more than twenty different languages are spoken, where you have diversity of religion, race, civilization, interests, and history, all these different people are governed according to the same principle of leaving as much as possible the natives under the authority of their own chiefs without interfering either with their laws or customs except in a very few cases. In the same manner all the other Asiatic races that have come from China and Arabia, the Moors, the Singhalese, etc., remain under the authority of chiefs of their blood; and it is thus that a people of 5,000,000 is able to rule in peace 34,000,000 of natives, and that in Java for a population of 25,000,000 there is an army of but 10,000 Europeans, and that 200 European civil functionaries are an amply sufficient body.

In Java, where there are three quite distinct parts, three nations, and three different religions corresponding to the three countries of the Sundanese, Javanese, and Maduros, the native institutions have been kept intact, with only one exception. In the principalities of Solo and Djocdjo, which have preserved some sort of independence toward the Dutch Government, the ancient native institutions have disappeared, owing to the feudal tyranny exercised by their emperors. All over the island, however, the institutions which had sprung up within the people were preserved, the basis of colonial administration being everywhere the village community, the "desa."

#### METHODS PURSUED IN JAVA.

"Desa" is the name of the communal unit, forming a corporation, a legal person, having its own administration, finances, and domain. It includes the village proper (houses, gardens, and streams), the cultivable soil, the forests, and the waste land. The number of these communities amounts to about 30,000 for Java, with a population of 21,000,000. The "dessas" have their own organization, which is regulated by the native common law ("hadat"). There are even some which have their own penal code, containing provisions for fines, additional forcible labor, and other penalties, and which often prevents more misdeeds than our European laws. The "desa" has a double sphere of activity, having charge of its own internal economy, as well as discharging duties toward the government, such as the maintenance of the police, the collection of taxes, the organization of the work technically known as the "culture," and that of the forcible labor (corvée). The free scope left to the community is quite considerable. Thus the "desa" assesses the land tax (land rent) and assigns the days of work to the people who owe forcible labor. In the same way the maintenance of the police force is left in the hands of the "desa." In all the "dessas" where the land is communal property, the task of dividing the fields is left entirely to the "desa," and very often native institutions and customs regulate the law of inheritance.

The instructions given in the houses of prayer (*langar*) is left entirely to the discretion of the "dessa," being outside the direct interference of the state, while everything situated within the territory of the "dessa," such as communal highways and bridges, is constructed and maintained by the care of the inhabitants of the village themselves. Lastly, the government has left to the authority of the "dessa" everything pertaining to matters of religious worship, such as the maintenance of the houses of worship (*langars*), the payment of the native priests and defraying the cost of religious celebrations.

The government refrains from any interference and leaves to the "dessa" everything relating to communal interests, which are regulated and administered in accordance with native institutions. Paragraph 71 of the constitutional code for the East Indies formally proclaims this autonomy of the communes. The latter, however, can not enter into conflict with the decrees of the governor-general, nor with the native institutions or acquired rights. As a rule, then, the independence of the native institutions has been maintained, their ancient customs respected, the exceptions to these rules being but very few and rare. Such was the case in 1895, when the excessively large number of members of the village administration was reduced, the police-corrée lightened, and general rules laid down for the joining and separating of villages. This was a very important exception, and the result of an inquiry regarding the corrées must be regarded as an improvement; but outside of this the internal affairs of the "dessa" are left to the interested parties themselves.

At the head of the "dessa" is found an administrative body, numbering five men or more, according to the number of able-bodied men which the community contains. Generally they are elected by all the inhabitants, who take part in the payment of taxes or the discharge of forcible labor. The chief, whose name is different in the different parts of the island (such as *bekel*, *djaro*, *petinggi*, *koewoe*, *loerah*, etc.), represents the "dessa" before the native authorities, the district chiefs, and others, and discharges the duties imposed on him by the government, which, however, gives its orders to him only through the native authorities. He has the right to a part of the communal fields, that of exacting a few days of forcible labor for his own profit, but receives no other salary, except part of the taxes collected by him, and part of the coffee, the product of forcible culture, wherever it still exists. He does not pay the land tax, nor does he owe any forcible labor.

Besides him there is the council, or the administration, made up of at least four members, who divide the work among themselves in the following manner: First, the "kami toewa," who is the acting chief in case of the latter's absence or sickness and very often his successor. Second, the "kabajan," who calls to work those who owe the corrée, regulates their labor, gives notice of taxes due, and is also charged with the duty of communicating to the inhabitants the orders of the village chief. Third, the "tjarik," or "djoeroe toelis," who keeps the registers and assists the chief in the discharge of his duties. Fourth, the "modin," or the village priest, who is at the head of the village police, supervises the vaccination and other services of this sort.

#### NATIVE VILLAGE GOVERNMENT.

The institution of self-government on the part of the native villages is the basis and constitutes the force of the Dutch colonial government. Each violation of this rule, any attempt upon the popular institution, has had fatal consequences, and turned out to be a grave political error. Two examples are known to us which have proven very hard lessons.

The first happened in the year 1830. In order to obtain the millions coveted by the mother country, the Dutch government violated the ancient rights and old-time customs of the Javanese. The system of forcible culture introduced by the governor-general, Van den Bosch, respected neither the administration of the village nor the landed property of the natives. In order to assure themselves of the support of the Javanese aristocracy, corruption by the use of bribery was resorted to in the case of the "regents" and the "wedenos" (the native provincial and district chiefs), and the power of the village chiefs was increased; they were made servants, or messengers of the government, which they had never been before. Ruling in an autocratic manner, the local government demanded arbitrarily the resignation of some, giving their places to the favorites of European officials, often bad men and scoundrels of the worst kind. Providing that they were filling the storehouses of the government with coffee, sugar, or tobacco, nothing more was required of them. No one troubled himself to inquire into the fate of the natives, who were crushed by forcible labor and made victims of robbery and oppression. Before the year 1830 the village chiefs were honored and respected, but when they became only the instruments in the hands of a cruel, exploiting power they lost their esteem in the eyes of the poor villagers. It must be said that even they themselves were not spared; whenever the plantations were in an unsatisfactory state—when the crops diminished, they were put in prison or under arrest, and often they were outraged by being whipped in public in the presence of the inhabitants, their subjects. The result was that members of the noble families refused to serve as chiefs, and even at present the village chiefs have not yet recovered the esteem in which they were held in olden times. The baneful influence of the Dutch government, which demoralized the ancient native institutions, is being felt yet, although for many years it was attempted to redress the old injury.

Another violation of the principle of maintaining intact the native institutions took place at Sumatra, in the district of "Panangsche Bovenlanden" (Upper Padang). In this part, as well, there existed, based on ancient traditions, a democratic administration which had as its foundation the "soekoe" (the tribe or family group). When Dutch sovereignty was established the then existing institutions were maintained, and solemn promise was then given—this happened sixty-seven years ago—that they would be kept intact. The "hadat" ruled supreme and the villagers were independent, being united quite often into federations for mutual help. When the "soekoe" grew too large it split up into "kampongs," which remained united by ties of blood. The "hadat," i. e., the native customs, institutions, and traditions dominated everything, and neither the kings (*radjas*) nor the Dutch Government dared to interfere. "Radja adil, radja di sambah—Radja lalin, radja di sangah" (we bow before a just king, but chase a bad one) was their watchword.

Some years ago a governor-general had the unfortunate idea of establishing there, without opposition on the part of parliament, a new administration alongside and over and above that provided by the "hadat." He appointed so-called "panghoeloe's kopola" as chiefs of the "néjarie" and "laras" as district chiefs. Since then the fire has been smoldering in the ashes and an eruption is to be feared.

The chain which ties the native population or the "dessa" to the European Government has some more links formed by native officials. Moreover, these latter are also admitted to the European administration. The "dessa" constitutes part of the district, at the head of which is found the "wedono," and a number of districts united by historical bonds form a regency (province) with a regent at the head. Among all these native chiefs there are some who are merely confirmed or "recognized" by the Government, and others—which is the usual case in Java—that are appointed by the Government.

The institution of the regency dates back to olden times. The ancient Javanese sovereigns used to place at the head of their provinces members of noble families who were to rule in their name in consideration of some dues, support in case of war, and homage to be rendered on specified occasions. The position of these "Bee patis," as they were called, may be compared to that of vassals during the middle ages. Like the latter some of them became powerful and even established new kingdoms. The East India Company did not touch this native organization, but exacted from these provincial chiefs the dues and payments which they owed to their sovereigns in the shape of "contingents" and "forcible deliveries."

Under the French and English interregnum, Governors-General Daendels and Raffels broke the power of the regents by treating them as mere state officials. When the Dutch Government regained possession of its colonies it had nothing more pressing to do, for fear of revolts, than to restore them to their rank and power. An ordinance, dated May 9, 1820, No. 2, regulated the duties of the regents by starting with the following principle: "Regents should not be treated with contempt, for we shall never obtain strong influence, unless recourse be had to violence, except by governing in perfect conformity with the customs and traditions, the religion and language of the natives. Our functionaries are strangers who lack all the qualifications to bring us into closer touch with the natives and to transform our power into lasting attachment."

Paragraph I of these regulations says: "The regents are the highest in rank immediately following the resident;" and the latter (Paragraph II) "must treat them as younger brothers, for they are the intimate counsellors of the resident." Their number was fixed according to historical precedents; good salaries and other advantages fitting their high position were decreed. It is owing to this wise colonial policy that the larger part of the Javanese regents remained loyal to us when the war in Java of 1825 to 1830 caused us great danger. This war, by the way, had been provoked by the clumsy interference into the affairs of the principality of Djodjo.

Whereas formerly the influence of the regents was rather in the nature of servile fear, the open support of the Dutch Government



made their power more real and lasting. Even when, in 1866, they were deprived of some of their advantages, particularly through the abolition of the personal *corvées* from which they derived some material advantage, they had no objections to make, "finding this measure just and necessary."

In order to have their support at the introduction of the system of "forcible culture," Governor-General van den Bosch made the office hereditary for their descendants, and article 69 of the constitution of India sanctioned this transformation by providing that "when the position of a regent in the island of Java becomes vacant, the successor should be chosen whenever possible from among the sons or near relatives of the former regent." In most cases, then, the office is even now held by the descendants of the high nobility, some of them being of royal blood. They have pompous titles, and they are sometimes rewarded by being granted still more majestic ones, while some insignia (gilded umbrellas and others) fitted to their rank, raised them still more in the eyes of the natives, by whom they are held in high respect and honor. Their instructions, formulated in 1859 and modified in 1886, declared them to be "the representatives of the native population before the European Government," and all native functionaries are subject to their order. They have no legislative power, but very wide administrative functions, as well as some rights of jurisdiction. The Dutch local functionaries have no direct power over the regent, as is the case in British India, where the collectors or subcollectors may compel the resignation of the native functionaries. Here they have no other chief except the resident.

#### LOYALTY OF THE NATIVES.

The Javanese regents, then, are loyal and attached to us, and by no means desire the expulsion of the Dutch from their country. By showing them confidence, by leaving them the honors which are due to them, by upholding their prestige, we have made of them indispensable intermediaries, enabling us to remain true to the oath which each Dutch functionary, from the lowest clerk up to the governor-general, must take, viz., "to protect the native population against all oppression, ill-treatment, illegal exactions, and extortions" (par. 55). We possess thus the great advantage of having the support and counsel of persons who know the native population, and who have merely to be controlled by civilized elements—the European functionaries. The father of the constitutional code, the veteran of our advanced colonial policy, former Minister Fransen van de Putte, stated it as early as May 24, 1862, in the lower chamber of the States-General of the Netherlands: "Whoever saps the power of the natives will destroy our own. Our purpose therefore should be to maintain the position and prestige of the native chiefs. The haughty attitude of the English officials, who regard the native Indians as an inferior race of humanity, does not behoove us. We Dutchmen see in them but our like, who must be guided, without, however, being made to feel the bridle."

It was owing to his efforts that all ranks and civil functions were formally declared to be open to the natives. It should be stated, though, that although the law does not present any obstacles there are yet very few natives who have entered the ranks of the European civil administration. But this is a mere question of time. Even at present they are offered positions in the departments of Posts and Telegraphs, Railways and Public Works, and the near future will see them take up the new functions left open to such natives as have proved to have the necessary capacity for their proper discharge.

The regent, being the highest functionary, the direct chief of the native population and the confidential adviser of the resident, has under his orders in each district the "wedenos," who is under instructions almost identical with those of the regent, his chief. The "wedenos" have to inform the regent about everything proceeding amidst the native population. They have under them the assistant "wedenos," chiefs of the subdistricts, while many lower officials (clerks, scribes, "mantris,") are holding places in the native administrative machinery and are being paid out of the public funds. In the other islands of the archipelago there exists an analogous organization, modified a little in conformity with local conditions. It would take us too far, however, to go into more details.

#### RELATIONS OF THE HOME GOVERNMENT TO THAT IN THE COLONIES.

There remains now the question of the relations between the European Government and the native administration. We shall discuss this topic only in so far as it bears on the general subject of this report.

The governor-general is the head of the central government of the East Indies. He alone decides both questions of legislative as well as administrative character. He alone is responsible for the entire colonial government of Dutch India. He is appointed and discharged by decree of the Queen of the Netherlands. "The instruction" which is to regulate his power is secret, but he is responsible for the exercise of it to the Queen through the ministry of the colonies. He has the right to issue "ordinances" regarding all matters that are not regulated by law or royal decree. He is the commander in chief of the colonial army, he appoints the officers and civil functionaries, fixes their salaries, terms of tenure, and pensions. The protection of the native population against arbitrary acts of whomsoever is one of the most important duties of the governor-general (article 55 of the constitutional code). He is to see that all the administrative functionaries conform conscientiously to the ordinances, and he is to watch that the natives find everywhere the occasion to freely present their complaints (article 55).

The governor-general appoints the residents and governors, who rule in his name. It is he again who gives them their instructions; it is he that chooses the regents from among the native population and gives them his instructions, as well as to the "wedenos." Article 71 imposes the obligation on the governor-general to see to it that the rights of the native communes of electing their own chiefs and administrators be not abridged.

The power which the governor-general delegates to the residents or governors depends in each particular case on the larger or smaller amount of autonomy left to the native administration, i. e., the chiefs and the kings. There are several islands or countries in which a large amount of independence and self-government has been left to the kings, and this independence guaranteed by a contract having the force of law. In such a case the only duty of the resident is to see to the true observance of the contract, and to arrange in an amicable manner modifications of detail whenever the need therefor appears; such are also the relations in the island of Java with the Sultanates of Solo and Djocdjo, where the residents must always respect existing institutions. In all other residencies of Java the resident has under his direct orders all the civil functionaries, European as well as native, representing thus the government in his province. He appears in turn in the parts of legislator, judge, and administrator, and is the supreme chief of all civil functionaries. In each subdivision of the twelve residencies of Java an assistant resident is found, who is entirely subject to the resident, whose orders he has to execute; he has so very little personal power that it has not been thought necessary to formulate for him an instruction or set of regulations. He possesses no legal power over the regent, to whom he has but to transmit the orders and counsels of the resident.

These divisions are again subdivided into "divisions of control," at the head of which is found a "comptroller of internal administration." The comptroller has no administrative functions; the only thing he is charged with is to control the various branches of administration and to furnish information required by his superiors. Being in daily contact with the native chiefs and the population, he is able to make a thorough study of the regents, submit useful suggestions, and, what is most important, to protect at all times, in accordance with his oath, the interests of the natives, and to guarantee their rights.

Without possessing any authority proper, these functionaries are in a position to improve the well-being of the natives by conscientiously discharging their duties of control and advice. There are 121 of them in Java, besides 39 "comptroller candidates," who form, so to say, the bridge which connects the native administration with that of the Europeans.

As regards the native functionaries, all those who are not elected by the people nor appointed by the governor-general, they receive appointment at the hands of the resident of their province.

#### CIVIL SERVICE IN THE COLONY.

For a population of 34,000,000 people the total number of the civil service amounts to 431 European functionaries and 2,862 native functionaries, whose combined salaries do not exceed the sum of 17,000,000 francs. The number of European officials, although restricted, is still much larger than in British India; steps should be taken to diminish it, while increasing, at the same time, the number and power of the natives in the service of the Government. Some of the comptrollers, who at present all belong to the white race, might very well gradually be replaced by natives taken from among the most intelligent of their race; the contact with the people would in



such a way become more intimate. Provided they come up to the just demands of capacity, character, and morality, there is every reason to believe that they will discharge their duties at least just as well, if not better, than the present office-holders, who, after all, are but intruders, having come from distant parts.

Furthermore, there is no doubt that the number of assistant residents, another doleful remnant of the time of the "forced-culture" system, is altogether too large. Formerly the regent, whom in 1819 the commissioners-general called "an often useful and always indispensable intermediary," ruled the regency single-handed; since, however, the regent would often inconvenience the resident in the ruthless application of the "forced culture" they were not put alongside of each other, but instead of it the resident was given an assistant and sort of substitute, who, while belonging to the exploiting race, presented yet a more pliable official. At present their number might very well be diminished, and later, though not so very soon, the office might be altogether abolished. We would then have arrived at a state of things under which a native comptroller would be in direct relations with the regent of the same race, in accordance with the principle that as many natives as possible should be admitted to the administrative service as soon as they show themselves capable thereof. This proof of full and complete confidence shown to the best of them would elevate all, and they will make it a point of honor and interest to help with all their might in bringing about a realization of present ideals which may become a reality within no distant future.

It must be admitted that last year a step backward was taken when the employment of the "patih" was abolished. The "patih" is, as a rule, a native of high descent, attached to the regent to serve as his lieutenant, who may replace him everywhere and in all cases, and who transmits the orders of the regent to the authorities whom these orders concern. It is intended to abolish this institution, although it is bound to become more necessary when the functions and labors of the regent, the immediate chief of the "patih," will be increased. One reason of this measure was the desire to improve the revenues of the European officials, and the means of making economies were sought in curtailing the expenditures for salaries of the native employees of the government. This mode of action will be regretted later on, for this arbitrary and unjust measure has caused a good deal of discontent among the interested parties. The prestige of the regents will suffer from it, the lower ranks will have less chance of honorable and well-remunerated employment, while the proceeding on the whole is opposed to the old-time principle "that the natives should be governed through and by their chief." Since 1897 the population of Java has increased from 18,000,000 to 27,000,000 people, i. e., 50 per cent, the salaries of the native administration remaining stationary, whereas those of the Europeans have increased to a large extent. The "megangs," i. e., the assistants and clerks of the functionaries, from among whom the native authorities are selected, have to work without pay for years and provide for the needs of their families either by receiving help from relatives or contracting loans with usurers. A system in which part of the government machinery is made to move through unpaid help stands convicted in advance. Bitter complaints have been heard. As one of the regents said, "It can well be seen that the children of the country do not count any more in the eyes of the government; the Europeans amass fortunes and leave the country to forget it, whereas we natives have more and more to content ourselves with nothing."

These expressions are worth while meditating about; for while an open revolt is not to be feared, passive resistance and silent revolt may spring up and cause us cruel embarrassments. It is absolutely necessary to use a policy which should assure us the sympathies of this highly important part of the colonial administrative machinery. Instead of repelling them we should attract them, instead of diminishing their prestige we should increase their influence, instead of rousing suspicions we should gain their confidence. Very often lack of deference was shown toward the native authorities; young comptrollers would sometimes treat with ridiculous haughtiness these men of esteem; instead of arousing their spirit of initiative, the Europeans too often stifled it by treating them as sort of figureheads, which they surely are not and ought not to be. To be sure these cases are but exceptions, but they happen all the same, and are likely to chill these sensitive natures normally open to the sentiment of honor. It should never be forgotten that we are but strangers and temporary intruders, and that the native remains in his own land of birth, which he knows better than we, and which we should not be able to rule for any length of time without his assistance. The native authorities are indispensable links in the chain of our power; we should be careful to hold them in honor if we wish to keep our colonies.

#### COOPERATION OF NATIVES AN IMPORTANT FACTOR OF SUCCESSFUL MANAGEMENT.

It is seen, then, that the régime which is the strong part and has proven the success of Dutch colonial policy, is that of leaving to the native administration its free development and growth. Notwithstanding some errors and deviations, the rule adopted has been that of maintaining the native institutions. Wherever the principles of "leaving the native people in the enjoyment of their own jurisdiction" has been discarded public order and justice have not gained. Our punishments are not adapted to the character and ideas of the people—they leave the Javanese indifferent, and inspire him with aversion against us—nor have they had repressive influence. Wherever our European jurisdiction has not penetrated crimes are of lesser occurrence than in parts which live otherwise under the same conditions, but where this jurisdiction has been artificially implanted. Happily, article 75 of the constitution of India shows here as well the right path, which should be followed henceforward more consistently than heretofore. Following this article the European judge is to impose punishments "in accordance with the laws, institutions, and customs of the natives."

In establishing taxes we have, especially in the case of the more important ones—i. e., the *corvées* and the capitation tax—followed the old Asiatic custom, regulating them, particularly the *corvée*, in a less iniquitous manner, and imitating the "*djirjat*" or "*hassil*" of the Islam. In case of conflict between the doctrines of the Koran and the native institutions we have not hesitated to prefer the latter. Whenever the religious observances of the "*dessas*," the right of inheritance, the institutions of marriage, and the penal code were concerned, the dangers of Islamism were braved, a broad spirit of toleration and respect for the usages and religious beliefs of the natives was shown. We have respected their system of land tenure and ownership by ceding to the Europeans only the virgin lands. We have taken over the management of the wild forest, partly destroyed and neglected, with the result that they yield now a revenue of 6,000,000 francs to the community. By fixing the maximum of acreage of the rice fields which can be rented for sugar and indigo plantations we have protected the native against encroachments on the part of capitalists and against his own improvidence.

Since the Government imposes upon the governor-general the duty of "encouraging agriculture by all means in his power," we have created experiment stations in order to render native agriculture more remunerative. The creation of a system of agricultural credit will be necessary in order to combat usury, this sore threatening to eat up the well-being of the natives.

These, then, are the net results of the Dutch colonial policy. To be sure, its history contains some dark—even bloody—pages, but the general principle which underlies it shines forth in golden letters: That "in order to rule, without appealing to violence, the millions of inhabitants of colonies, the native administrative organisms must needs be maintained to a large degree."

## THE FLAG AND TRADE.

### A SUMMARY REVIEW OF THE TRADE OF THE CHIEF COLONIAL EMPIRES.

[By A. W. Flux, M. A.—Read before the Royal Statistical Society of Great Britain, June 20, 1899.]

[From Journal of Statistical Society, London, 1899, Vol. LXII.]

The manufacturing populations of western Europe and of the United States of America are becoming increasingly conscious of the extent to which the continued development of their industries, on the present lines, involves a search for new markets for their products. This desire for new markets has influenced the trend of politics, and it is not the least of the motives which lie behind the policy of imperial expansion. Districts in which the need for the products of modern machine industry has not hitherto been felt must be brought under the influence of some civilized power, so that their inhabitants may become purchasers of goods for which merchants can not easily find customers elsewhere.

## GOOD GOVERNMENT BRINGS PROSPERITY.

It is possible that the interposition of an outside authority, armed with the best of modern weapons of war, may relieve savage populations from many evils from which they suffer. Intertribal warfare, slavery, disease, restrain the development of the resources of these countries. Good government can easily lead to such increase of wealth and population as to convert savage tribes into good customers for the manufactures of Lancashire or Fall River or other busy industrial centers. If such markets for standard lines of products can be secured, expansion of production on lines similar to those which long experience has already smoothed may present a prospect of profit. Without such extension of demand the increase of producing power threatens a competition which will ruinously reduce profits. The avoidance of such cutthroat competition is difficult. If new buyers for old classes of products can not be found, a refuge is to find buyers of new products, to exploit a demand as yet unknown, and in regard to which it can not be certain that it may not even be found nonexistent. That way lies risk which it takes a man of somewhat exceptional qualities to face. Some even refuse to admit that there is a possibility of utilizing productive energy in that way. They know that a little veneer of civilization will convert the African into a user of certain well-known goods, that the influence of Western habits will arouse a desire in the Chinaman for Western commodities, but they doubt the existence of undeveloped possibilities in their fellow-countrymen—possibilities of becoming capable of offering an equivalent in exchange for satisfaction as yet untasted. The evocation of a greater producing power in response to new satisfactions, if possible, requires that the appropriate attractions should be discovered and that means of supplying them with profit should also be discovered. It is much more to the point, more practical, or appears so, to urge on the extension of markets for well-known goods, so long as large areas of the earth's surface are not brought under the influence of civilization. Our descendants may be left to solve the problems which the complete exploitation of all existing virgin markets will bring with it, just as our descendants are left the problem of maintaining the position of our country when the exhaustion of our best supplies of coal have sacrificed so much of supremacy as depends on having the best coal supplies.

## SEARCH FOR NEW MARKETS.

The demand for new markets needs no extended explanation; it is an obvious fact. Together with this demand comes the desire to control the new markets in the interest of the reproducers of some particular nation. The prevalent exclusion of foreigners, by discriminating customs duties, from the benefits of exploiting new markets in a colony or dependency, is at once a means of reserving trade for a particular group of merchants and a stimulus to others, belonging to other nations, to demand the control of any unoccupied portions of the earth's surface, so as to prevent them from falling under an influence which may prove exclusive in its operation. Even if the "open door" be maintained in any particular case, there is a widespread confidence that trade follows the flag, and hence a desire that the flag which proclaims the controlling power may be that of the country of which one is oneself a citizen, if one be a trader, or in sympathy with the trading classes.

## TRADE AND THE FLAG.

The object of this paper is to illustrate, so far as the details available to the writer permit, the extent to which trade has actually grown up under the flag. The relative importance of the trade of each of the chief colony-owning countries with its colonies and with other countries will be considered on the one hand, and the relative importance in the trade of the colonies of that section of the trade which is carried on with the sovereign State on the other. In making these comparisons, some of the countries included in the list of "Colonial systems of the world" given in the "Monthly summary of commerce and finance of the United States" for December last, may be omitted. Austria-Hungary, Russia, Turkey, and China will not be profitably included in such an inquiry as I propose, neither will Italy afford information of any considerable value. The United States is, except in regard to its ownership of Hawaii, too recently in possession of a colonial empire for the history of its colonial trade to be regarded from the same point of view as that of other countries. Something will have to be said of its trade with colonies of other powers, but that is a different matter. The German colonial empire is also of so recent acquisition that it will not contribute much of value to the comparative statistics sought. Denmark's colonies are small in extent, and in situation peculiar, from the point of view of trade, and, though included in the inquiry, do not afford a very important section of the material. There remain then as subjects of inquiry and comparison the colonial empires of Spain (to be considered as it was before the recent war), Portugal, Holland, France, and Britain [a term which I shall crave leave to use in place of the more cumbersome expression—the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland].

The first side of the comparison will occupy no great space or time; a summary statement is sufficient. It shows the average amount of the import and export trade of each of the countries concerned in the two quinquennia 1887-1891 and 1892-1896; the figures for 1897 not being available as yet for all the countries, the latest date of comparison is more remote than one could wish. The imports and exports to colonies and dependencies are stated for comparison with the total.

## TOTAL TRADE COMPARED WITH COLONIAL TRADE.

## ANNUAL AVERAGE, 1892-1896.

COUNTRIES.	Total imports. <sup>1</sup>	Imports from possessions.	Percent- age of colonial imports.	Total exports <sup>2</sup> (special).	Exports to possessions.	Percent- age of colonial trade.
	£	£		£	£	
Britain .....	419,065,000	94,437,000	22.50	225,551,000	74,804,000	33.20
France .....	155,285,000	14,725,000	9.50	132,399,000	12,607,000	9.50
Holland .....	120,542,000	17,433,000	14.50	98,014,000	4,945,000	5.00
Portugal .....	10,861,000	1,714,000	15.80	5,628,000	517,000	9.20
Spain .....	31,609,000	3,078,000	9.70	29,831,000	7,166,000	24.00
Denmark .....	19,333,000	221,000	1.10	14,487,000	232,000	1.60
Germany .....	203,464,000	110,000	0.05	158,506,000	146,000	0.09

## ANNUAL AVERAGE, 1887-1891.

	£	£		£	£	
Britain .....	406,727,000	92,721,000	22.8	243,230,000	83,243,000	34.2
France .....	173,235,000	13,184,000	7.6	140,162,000	10,803,000	7.7
Holland .....	105,170,000	12,844,000	12.2	90,475,000	4,842,000	5.3
Portugal .....	11,033,000	959,000	8.7	4,992,000	224,000	4.5
Spain <sup>3</sup> .....	34,828,000	3,117,000	9.0	34,017,000	4,419,000	13.0
Denmark .....	16,345,000	194,000	1.2	11,799,000	220,000	1.9

<sup>1</sup>Special imports into France, Holland, and Germany. Total imports in other cases. Bullion and specie not included.

<sup>2</sup>Total exports from Spain. Bullion and specie excluded in all cases.

<sup>3</sup>Total trade, including bullion and specie.

This table shows some important contrasts, and marks some changes which call for attention. Detailed tables on another page show nearly two-thirds of the French trade with French possessions is accounted for by the trade with Algeria and Tunis; that the Dutch colonial trade is mainly with the East Indian possessions, a well-known fact; that the growth in Portuguese colonial trade is mainly with Angola, and in a secondary degree with St. Thomas and Principe; and that the Spanish figures are dominated by the Cuban trade, which was rendered abnormal by the disturbances in that unhappy island. Even the earlier quinquennium does not get quite clear of these disturbances. The movements of specie were quite abnormal in the final years to which figures relate, and the exclusion of these movements was effected in order to avoid, so far as might be, these exceptional movements.

Summing up the figures in the above tables for the four countries which alone, besides our own, show any considerable proportion of colonial trade, namely, France, Holland, Spain, and Portugal, we find the following result:

FROM OR TO—	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	1887-1891	1892-1896	1887-1891	1892-1896
Possessions .....	£ 30,104,000	£ 36,959,000	£ 20,288,000	£ 25,235,000
All countries .....	324,266,000	318,297,000	269,646,000	265,872,000
Percentage colonial .....	9.3	11.6	7.5	9.5

In spite of a growth of some 20 per cent in both imports from and exports to the colonies of these four nations, and of a slight fall in the totals of their imports and exports, as against a quite small increase in imports from, and a noteworthy decrease of exports to, British colonies as shown in these tables, the contrast in the importance of colonial trade to Britain and to other countries is most striking.

The figures of trade may be viewed in connection with a statement of areas and populations compiled from official sources as far as possible.

DATE.	COUNTRIES.	Area.	Population.	Area of colonial empire.	Population of colonial empire.
		<i>Sq. miles.</i>		<i>Sq. miles.</i>	
1895.....	Britain ("Colonial Office List," 1897).....	121,562	39,465,720	11,090,490	325,088,320
1893 <sup>1</sup> .....	France ("Annuaire Statistique," 1895-96).....	201,116	38,517,975	1,195,702	36,151,322
1896.....	Holland ("Annuaire Statistique," 1896).....	12,560	5,004,204	785,884	34,489,024
1896 <sup>2</sup> .....	Portugal.....	34,336	4,660,065	834,541	7,917,456
1896.....	Spain.....	191,744	18,217,538	323,750	8,500,000
1895.....	Denmark ("Statistik Aarbog," 1897).....	14,789	2,256,000	41,079	127,184
1895.....	Germany ("Statistisches Jahrbuch," 1898).....	208,694	52,279,901	1,026,709	9,800,000

<sup>1</sup>Algeria and Tunis, 1891; France, 1896.

<sup>2</sup>Portugal, 1890.

#### TRADE OF BRITISH COLONIES WITH GREAT BRITAIN.

A further analysis of the British Empire will be useful for comparative purposes:

	Area.	Population, 1891.	Imports to Britain from thence.		Exports of British and Irish produce thither.	
			1887-1891	1892-1896	1887-1891	1892-1896
	<i>Sq. miles.</i>		£	£	£	£
India .....	1,533,611	303,000,000	32,479,000	27,223,000	31,828,000	28,188,000
Self-governing colonies.....	6,991,713	12,125,030	44,579,000	50,177,000	38,372,000	34,232,000
Other colonies and protectorates ...	2,565,166	9,963,230	15,663,000	16,737,000	13,043,000	12,384,000
Total.....	11,090,490	325,088,320	92,721,000	94,137,000	83,243,000	74,804,000

The contrast, both in area and in population, of the British and other colonial empires, and of the extent of the trade between metropolitan states and dependencies, is a good deal modified by this more precise location of the larger portions of area, of population, and of trade.

#### IMPORTANCE TO THE COLONY OF CLOSE TRADE RELATIONS WITH THE MOTHER COUNTRY.

The main object of this paper, however, is to gather together information relating to the importance of the trade with the metropolitan state to the dependency rather than to the governing state. To the consideration of this we must presently proceed, but there are two points on which a passing remark appears first desirable. The first is the extent to which the metropolitan state serves as a center of distribution for colonial products. In the case of Britain this undoubtedly takes the place to a very large extent, and some of the items of foreign and colonial produce reexported bear witness to the importance of this trade. The most striking example is wool, with a valuation in the reexport returns of over £14,000,000 out of a total reexport of under £60,000,000 on the average of the years 1892-1896. I am not aware, however, of any means of determining the total extent of this description of trade. We can determine the amount of the corresponding trade carried on by Portugal, whose trade returns record a reexport of colonial goods to the value of £1,318,500 in 1896 out of a total value reexported only amounting to £1,839,000. The average of the five years 1892-1896 is £1,458,000 out of £2,573,000. The excess of value of goods arriving in France from her colonies and possessions over the value of colonial goods taken for consumption in 1897 was only £873,000; the difference between the total general and special imports into France in that year was £47,260,000; it would hence appear that the colonies contribute very little indeed to the transit and entrepôt trade of France.

Viewed from the other side, the exports to British colonies of non-British goods are given at over £6,500,000 in 1896, a figure exceeding by about £300,000 the average of the quinquennium ending at that date. From Portugal the foreign goods exported to colonies in 1896 are stated at £348,700, and for the quinquennium, 1892-1896, they average £508,500, an amount not far short of the value of Portuguese goods exported to colonies of Portugal, and an amount approximately equal to the similar figure for the preceding quinquennium, when the Portuguese goods exported to colonies of Portugal were of much smaller value. The general exports from France to her colonies and possessions exceeded the special exports (i.e., of French or naturalized goods) by £3,465,850, or nearly

one-fourth the value of French goods exported to her possessions by France in 1897. According to a writer in the *Depêche Coloniale*, quoted in the *Board of Trade Journal* for October last, a value of £1,061,900 of these exports of foreign goods from France to French possessions consisted of cotton tissues, and a writer in the *Manchester Guardian* of about the same date shows reason for supposing that considerable quantities of English prints were exported to French possessions in this way. Whether this writer's further suggestion, that these prints are sold as French when they reach their destination, be justified or not, the fact of a large export of foreign goods from France itself to French colonies is a noteworthy one.

#### TRADE OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE WITH BRITAIN.

We will now turn to the main theme of the paper and begin by a consideration of the recorded imports from and exports to Britain in comparison with the total foreign trade of British colonies. As our colonial trade has been recently discussed by this society a summary statement will suffice:

#### TRADE OF THE EMPIRE WITH BRITAIN—ANNUAL AVERAGE, 1892-1896.

POSSESSION OR GROUP OF POSSESSIONS.	Total imports.	Imports from Britain.	Percentage of British imports.	Total exports.	Exports to Britain.	Percentage of exports to Britain.
	£	£		£	£	
India .....	52,577,000	37,811,000	71.9	68,250,000	22,656,000	33.2
Australia .....	25,699,000	18,243,000	71.0	33,238,000	22,831,000	68.7
New Zealand .....	6,836,000	4,381,000	64.1	9,125,000	7,402,000	81.1
Canada .....	23,327,000	7,697,000	33.0	24,029,000	13,200,000	54.9
Newfoundland <sup>1</sup> .....	1,383,000	444,000	32.1	1,295,000	318,000	24.6
Cape of Good Hope .....	14,113,000	11,075,000	78.5	14,610,000	14,088,000	96.4
Natal .....	8,214,000	2,293,000	27.9	1,231,000	875,000	71.1
West India Islands .....	6,387,000	2,903,000	44.1	6,948,000	1,613,000	27.1
West Africa .....	2,881,000	2,107,000	73.1	3,060,000	1,621,000	53.0
Straits Settlements .....	21,021,000	2,703,000	12.9	18,562,000	8,344,000	45.0
Ceylon .....	4,629,000	1,153,000	24.9	4,237,000	2,999,000	70.8
Mauritius .....	1,981,000	443,000	22.4	1,681,000	122,000	7.3
British Guiana .....	1,631,000	890,000	54.6	2,100,000	1,142,000	54.4
Other <sup>2</sup> .....	1,105,000	244,000	22.1	1,038,000	146,000	14.1
Total .....	166,984,000	92,387,000	55.3	188,404,000	92,357,000	49.0

<sup>1</sup> Average of 1893-1896.

<sup>2</sup> Namely, Labuan, British New Guinea, Fiji, Falkland Islands, St. Helena, Bermuda, and Honduras.

In preparing this table the Indian trade figures, which represent only the sea-borne trade, have been converted into sterling for each year at the average rate of council bills, and the same for Mauritius. In dealing with Australia the intercolonial trade between the six Australian colonies, amounting to some £22,500,000 each way, has been omitted in compiling the total, so as to obtain a representation corresponding to a federated Australia.

There are a few of the minor possessions of Great Britain whose trade is not included in the above table, and there are necessarily excluded, for want of sufficient information, the trade of Gibraltar, Malta, and Hongkong. The exports to these three together averaged £3,410,000 in the period in question, and the imports from them averaged £910,000.

#### HIGH PERCENTAGE OF COLONIAL TRADE WITH THE MOTHER COUNTRY.

In looking down the table the high percentage of trade with Britain is noteworthy. The first exception to the general high percentage is Canada, whose import trade is larger with the United States than with the mother country. The next is Newfoundland, importing more largely from Canada than from Britain, and nearly as extensively from the United States as from the mother country. On the export side the trade of Newfoundland is more widely spread. Great Britain comes first, but Brazil and Portugal, as well as Canada and the United States, share largely in this trade, for obvious reasons when the nature of the chief export is considered. Next comes the West Indies, for some of the principal productions of which the neighboring United States market is more favorably situated than the comparatively distant British market. More striking by far, perhaps the most striking case in the list at first glance, is the position of the Straits Settlements. We have only to remember how large a part in this case is played by the entrepôt trade to have a full explanation of the situation. Ceylon and Mauritius do their chief trade with India and Australia (and the Cape of Good Hope in the case of Mauritius), and thus the small proportion done with Britain indicates no large current of extraimperial trade. The same kind of explanation applies to the miscellaneous group. Fiji, for example, does the bulk of its trade with Australia, and taken altogether, here again trade with other colonies is greater in amount than with the mother country. In fact, taking the whole list in the table, besides the inter-Australian trade already referred to, there is recorded fully £22,750,000 per annum on the import side and £24,350,000 on the export side of the trade from or to other portions of the Empire than Britain itself. These amounts bring up the percentage of imports from other parts of the Empire to 69 and of exports to other parts of the Empire to 62, or, on the whole trade, over 65 per cent. A rearrangement, or rather a partial grouping, of the figures in the last table corresponding to the grouping of the preceding table may be of service. We obtain the following:

	Total imports.	Imports from Britain.	Percentage of British imports.	Total exports.	Exports to Britain.	Percentage of exports to Britain.
	£	£		£	£	
India .....	52,577,000	37,811,000	71.9	68,250,000	22,656,000	33.2
Self-governing colonies .....	74,572,000	44,133,000	59.2	83,528,000	58,714,000	70.3
Other colonies .....	39,835,000	10,443,000	26.2	36,626,000	10,987,000	29.8
Of which Straits Settlements .....	21,021,000	2,703,000	12.9	18,562,000	8,344,000	45.0
The remainder .....	18,814,000	7,740,000	41.1	18,064,000	7,648,000	42.3

In comparing the figures of this table with the previously given summary of the British record of trade with colonies, it must be remembered that the present table is not so exhaustive as the British record in the section which includes the miscellaneous lesser colonial markets. A striking discrepancy in the two sets of figures is the recorded export from self-governing colonies to Britain of £58,714,000 per annum on the five year average, while the recorded receipt of imports from self-governing colonies amounts to but £50,477,000. The latter figure, however, does not include gold, which is included in the former.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> The recorded imports into Britain of gold and silver bullion and specie from Australasia, British South Africa, and British North America, averaged £11,327,000 in 1892-1896. If to this the value of diamonds imported from South Africa, nearly £4,000,000 per annum, be added, the agreement between the two accounts is satisfactory.

The changes in a quarter of a century may be seen by comparing the tables just given with similar statements for a quarter of a century previous, which now follow:

TRADE OF THE EMPIRE WITH BRITAIN—ANNUAL AVERAGE, 1867-1871.

POSSESSION OR GROUP OF POSSESSIONS.	Total imports.	Imports from Britain.	Percentage of British imports.	Total exports.	Exports to Britain.	Percentage of exports to Britain.
	£	£		£	£	
India .....	45,818,000	31,707,000	69.2	56,532,000	29,738,000	52.6
Australia .....	17,639,000	11,353,000	64.4	20,104,000	14,156,000	70.4
New Zealand .....	4,805,000	2,406,000	50.0	4,681,000	2,280,000	48.7
Canada .....	16,237,000	8,102,000	49.9	13,414,000	4,214,000	31.4
Newfoundland .....	1,159,000	444,000	38.3	1,165,000	386,000	33.1
Cape of Good Hope .....	2,398,000	1,889,000	78.8	2,661,000	2,200,000	82.7
Natal .....	874,000	308,000	35.2	361,000	240,000	66.6
West Indian Islands .....	4,486,000	2,003,000	44.7	4,954,000	3,626,000	73.2
West Africa .....	1,004,000	696,000	69.3	1,324,000	599,000	45.2
Straits Settlements .....	8,712,000	2,324,000	26.7	7,780,000	1,514,000	19.5
Ceylon .....	4,595,000	1,357,000	29.6	3,777,000	2,709,000	71.7
Mauritius .....	2,001,000	468,000	23.4	2,440,000	737,000	30.2
British Guiana .....	1,697,000	870,000	51.3	2,379,000	1,390,000	58.4
Other .....	666,000	237,000	35.6	897,000	123,000	31.0
Total .....	111,591,000	64,164,000	57.5	121,969,000	63,912,000	52.4

Comparing this table with that for 1892-1896, the broadest contrasts are to be found in the larger proportion of the exports of the West Indies and of Mauritius, which formerly sought the British market, the smaller exports to this country from India, and the approximate reversal of the proportions of import and export trade done by Canada with Britain.

Summarizing in the same manner as before, and using the term self-governing colonies to indicate those which now fall under that description, whether they did so at the time referred to or not, we get as the result:

TRADE OF 1867-1871.

	Total imports.	Imports from Britain.	Percentage of British imports.	Total exports.	Exports to Britain.	Percentage of exports to Britain.
	£	£		£	£	
India .....	45,818,000	31,707,000	69.2	56,532,000	29,738,000	52.6
Self-governing colonies .....	42,612,000	24,502,000	57.5	42,386,000	23,476,000	55.4
Other colonies .....	23,161,000	7,935,000	34.3	23,051,000	10,698,000	46.4
Of which Straits Settlements .....	8,712,000	2,324,000	26.7	7,780,000	1,514,000	19.5
The remainder .....	14,449,000	5,631,000	39.0	15,271,000	9,181,000	60.1

THE SELF-GOVERNING COLONIES.

The great source of the growth of Britain's colonial trade is very clearly shown to be the growth of trade with the colonies to which self-government has been granted. Their foreign trade has nearly doubled, and the proportion of it which is carried on with the mother country has increased from about 56½ per cent to 65 per cent. In spite of the fact that the growth of India's trade has been mainly with other countries so far as the exports are concerned, the value sent to Britain having even considerably decreased, and that the sugar-growing colonies have also decreased their exports to Britain, the growth of the trade of the self-governing colonies has maintained, almost at its old figure, the proportion of trade done by the colonies as a whole with Britain. It has only fallen from 55 to 52 per cent, while the value of the trade has increased by one-half. As to the trade between the colonies, the Australian intercolonial trade, which we have stated at £22,500,000 for 1892-1896, was only between £7,000,000 and £8,000,000 at the earlier date here considered. Other intercolonial trade has hardly grown in value. It was recorded at about £20,000,000 on the import side and £25,000,000 on the export side during the years 1867-1871. Thus, nearly 76 per cent of colonial imports were then derived from the Empire, and about 73 per cent of the exports went to the Empire, or about 74 per cent of the total trade was carried on with other parts of the Empire as compared with the 65 per cent at the more recent date as recorded above.

THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

The peculiar nature of the trade of the Straits Settlements, which has been remarked upon, and the exceptional change in the export trade of India suggests a comparison of figures omitting these two from the summary. The summaries already given readily afford the following:

TRADE OF BRITISH POSSESSIONS OTHER THAN INDIA AND THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

ANNUAL AVERAGE.	Total imports.	Imports from Britain.	Percentage from Britain.	Total exports.	Exports to Britain.	Percentage to Britain.
	£	£		£	£	
1867-1871 .....	57,061,000	30,133,000	52.8	57,657,000	32,660,000	56.7
1892-1896 .....	93,386,000	51,873,000	55.5	101,592,000	66,357,000	65.3

The portion of the Empire here separately considered shows a more progressive trade, and a trade with the mother country both larger in proportion and increasing more rapidly than is shown by the Empire at large. In the twenty-five years' interval the percentage of trade done with Britain has increased from about 55 to over 60. Let us see how other colonial empires compare with our own in this.

## FRENCH COLONIES AND THEIR TRADE WITH FRANCE.

In presenting a comprehensive view of the trade of French colonies and protectorates, I am, unfortunately, unable to offer a table as uniform in date and representing the same years as that covered by the table relating to British colonies and possessions. I give first a table showing the figures for the year 1896 in most cases, but, as the "Annuaire Statistique de la France" does not supply the figures quite regularly, the figures of 1893 are used for French India and French Guiana, those of 1894 for Anam and St. Pierre and Miquelon, those of 1897 for the French Congo and Tahiti and its dependencies.

TABLE OF FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN 1896.

COLONY OR PROTECTORATE.	Total imports.	Imports from France.	Percentage of French imports.	Total exports.	Exports to France.	Percentage of exports to France.
<i>Cochin China and Cambodia,</i>	<i>Franks.</i>	<i>Franks.</i>		<i>Franks.</i>	<i>Franks.</i>	
Anam and Tonkin.....	85,564,000	30,423,000	35.6	92,718,000	9,510,000	10.3
French India.....	3,277,000	532,000	16.2	20,129,000	12,709,000	63.1
Réunion.....	21,888,000	13,160,000	60.1	16,918,000	16,055,000	94.3
Madagascar.....	13,988,000	5,798,000	41.4	3,606,000	737,000	20.4
Tahiti, etc.....	3,745,000	390,000	10.4	3,151,000	311,000	9.9
New Caledonia.....	9,193,000	4,737,000	51.5	5,749,000	2,411,000	41.9
Sénégal.....	29,180,000	16,853,000	57.8	21,137,000	13,414,000	63.5
Congo, Gulf of Guinea, Dahomey, and Soudan.....	23,798,000	6,531,000	27.4	23,950,000	7,568,000	31.6
French Guiana.....	10,921,000	7,400,000	67.8	4,734,000	4,387,000	92.7
Martinique.....	22,885,000	9,376,000	42.0	21,431,000	19,725,000	92.0
Guadeloupe.....	21,762,000	10,755,000	49.4	18,793,000	7,107,000	37.8
St. Pierre and Miquelon.....	6,750,000	3,054,000	45.2	9,400,000	7,091,000	75.4
Total.....	252,951,000	109,009,000	41.1	241,716,000	101,025,000	41.8
Tunis.....	46,445,000	25,563,000	55.0	34,508,000	20,223,000	50.9
Algeria.....	275,799,000	217,802,000	79.0	240,471,000	196,842,000	81.9
Final total.....	575,195,000	352,371,000	61.2	516,695,000	318,093,000	61.6

In the compilation of the above table there is more than one feature which is unsatisfactory. In some cases the imports into the colonies are given, not as from France, but as French goods. In at least one case (Sénégal) the details further given show that the resulting totals are not quite the same if the figures of "French" goods be substituted for the figures of imports "from France." While it may be desirable to have the former rather than the latter, the admixture of figures of one class with those of the other is not satisfactory. Further, the figures for Tonkin include imports from other French colonies with those from France. It will be, therefore, well to take the details given in the "Annuaire Statistique" for 1895-96, which permits the further gain of averaging over a series of years, and thus avoiding any misleading conclusions based on exceptional conditions of a single year, should the year selected happen to be exceptional. I am not asserting that this was actually the case with 1896.

ANNUAL AVERAGE, 1887-1891.

FRENCH COLONIES.	Total imports.	Imports from France.	Percentage from France.	Total exports.	Exports to France.	Percentage to France.
<i>Indo-China.....</i>	<i>Franks.</i>	<i>Franks.</i>		<i>Franks.</i>	<i>Franks.</i>	
Indo-China.....	67,549,000	17,163,000	25.4	65,955,000	2,538,000	3.8
India.....	7,301,000	2,733,000	37.4	21,282,000	12,200,000	57.3
Mayotte.....	912,000	386,000	42.3	1,244,000	1,088,000	87.5
Nossi-Bé.....	2,063,000	191,000	9.3	2,106,000	200,000	9.5
Ste. Marie de Madagascar (1887-89).....	315,000	151,000	47.9	144,000	7,000	4.9
Réunion.....	22,771,000	9,047,000	39.7	15,486,000	12,731,000	82.2
New Caledonia.....	9,845,000	4,269,000	43.4	5,559,000	1,115,000	20.1
Tahiti.....	3,607,000	726,000	20.1	3,391,000	130,000	3.8
Congo and Gulf of Guinea.....	4,063,000	1,460,000	35.9	4,012,000	700,000	17.4
Sénégal (1887, 1890, and 1891).....	19,737,000	9,059,000	45.9	14,006,000	10,940,000	78.1
Guiana.....	9,752,000	6,300,000	64.6	4,941,000	4,683,000	94.8
Martinique.....	26,643,000	8,885,000	33.3	22,812,000	21,197,000	92.9
Guadeloupe.....	22,663,000	9,692,000	42.8	22,117,000	21,145,000	95.6
St. Pierre and Miquelon.....	13,822,000	3,694,000	26.0	16,296,000	9,843,000	60.4
Total.....	211,043,000	73,756,000	34.9	199,350,000	98,517,000	49.4
Tunis.....	42,032,000	22,863,000	54.4	35,914,000	20,386,000	56.8
Algeria, 1892-96.....	258,956,000	198,936,000	76.8	219,988,000	202,518,000	81.0

The figures for Tunis and Algeria are not included in the summaries of colonial trade in the "Annuaire Statistique," and the later quinquennium is given as representing more nearly present conditions, the fact that the returns for Tunis in 1891 include nearly fifteen months' trade, owing to a revision of the beginning of the year of account, introducing a difficulty in the earlier quinquennium. The relations between France and these two dependencies are, further, rather special, and their separation from the main group is desirable on that account. The term Indo-China in the table covers Cochin China, Anam, and Tonkin.

In addition to the trade with France, noted in the preceding table, an import to the value of 2,082,000 francs, and an export to the value of 4,162,000 francs annually, represents trade with other French colonies carried on by the fourteen colonies to which the greater part of the table is devoted.

Taken together, 42 per cent of the trade of these fourteen colonies is recorded as taking place with the mother country in the quinquennium 1887-1891, and altogether 43½ per cent of the colonial trade was directed to or derived from France or some other colony.

It will not be without interest to make here a comparison with the direction of the trade of the French colonies a generation ago, somewhat as was done for the British colonies. Considered from the point of view of France, the trade with colonies formed then 7.4 per cent of the special trade, or about as large a proportion as in the quinquennium 1887-1891, a quarter of a century afterwards. It should be remarked that in the interval it had fallen to a lower level, being only about 6 per cent in 1882-1886, for example. Another



point is that the exports to the colonies formed 8 per cent of the special exports from France at the beginning of the sixties, while in the early eighties they were less than 7 per cent. The advancing proportion of importance of the colonial trade shown in previous tables is then not part of a long-continued advance, but a recovery after decline, though to a larger figure than any of those which I offer for comparison.

On the side of the colonies the following table presents, on the same lines as before, the proportion of trade with France:

ANNUAL AVERAGE, 1859-1863.<sup>1</sup>

COLONIES.	Total imports.	Imports from France.	Percentage of imports from France.	Total exports.	Exports to France.	Percentage of exports to France.
	<i>Francs.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>		<i>Francs.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>	
Martinique .....	28,584,000	19,788,000	69.2	22,820,000	20,250,000	88.7
Guadeloupe .....	25,914,000	17,282,000	66.7	20,408,000	18,661,000	91.4
Guiana .....	7,425,000	4,828,000	65.0	1,320,000	1,030,000	79.5
Réunion .....	47,976,000	26,774,000	55.8	50,144,000	47,623,000	95.0
Sénégal .....	17,627,000	10,552,000	59.9	15,370,000	11,761,000	76.5
Ste. Pierre and Miquelon .....	3,912,000	1,409,000	36.0	4,872,000	1,269,000	26.0
French India .....	7,788,000	604,000	7.6	25,741,000	14,006,000	54.8
Total .....	139,226,000	81,237,000	58.3	140,675,000	114,620,000	81.5
Corresponding total, 1887-1891 .....	122,689,000	49,410,000	40.3	116,940,000	92,739,000	79.0
Algeria .....	182,703,000	163,669,000	89.6	53,147,000	42,411,000	79.8

The falling off in the trade of Réunion more than accounts for the whole of the reduction in the totals of imports and of exports shown in this table, and also accounts for the fall of exports to France. But on the other side, that of imports, the reduction of French imports is only accounted for to the extent of about one-half by the falling off in the trade of Réunion. An equal reduction of imports from France, with only a comparatively small reduction of imports generally, is shown by the French West Indies. The produce of these colonies seeks the home market in overwhelming proportions still, but that has not prevented a very marked fall in the reliance on the home market for necessary supplies.

A further point, resulting from comparing the figures for the older groups of colonies with those for the whole of the colonies, is that the trade of these more recent acquisitions is carried on to a smaller extent with France than is that of the older possessions. Leaving aside Tunis and Algeria, we see that the older group had in 1887-1891 a total import of about £5,000,000 annually, of which about £2,000,000 was from France. The newer acquisitions imported to about £3,500,000 annually, of which £1,000,000 was from France, or about 27½ per cent, as compared with the 40 per cent for the older group. On the export side, the older colonies exported some £4,700,000 worth of goods annually, of which £3,700,000 went to France. The newer acquisitions exported some £3,300,000 worth of goods annually, of which only £230,000 went to France, or about 6 per cent only, as against the 79 per cent from the older group.

The figures of trade with other French colonies were much larger in the earlier than in the later period, in spite of the inclusion of additional colonies or protectorates at that later date. The imports from other colonies averaged 9,939,000 francs, in the quinquennium 1859-1863, and the exports to other colonies averaged 8,628,000 francs annually. The external trade of the colonies at that date was carried on, therefore, to the extent of 70 per cent with France, and to nearly 77 per cent with France and French colonies together, as compared with the 42 and 43½ per cent, respectively, shown for 1887-1891.

#### TRADE OF THE DUTCH COLONIES.

In the case of the possessions of the Netherlands, whether in the East or West Indies, the information provided in the *Annuaire Statistiques des Pays Bas* does not permit of the compilation of tables precisely on the lines of those given for the French or British colonies. So far as the imports are concerned, something not far short of such a statement can, however, be made as follows:

##### IMPORTS INTO DUTCH COLONIES (MERCHANDISE ONLY).

	1892-1896			1887-1891		
	Total imports.	Imports from Holland.	Percentage from Holland.	Total imports.	Imports from Holland.	Percentage from Holland.
East Indies, on Government account.....	£ 581,000	£ (?)	.....	£ 436,000	£ (?)	.....
On private account:						
Java and Madura .....	8,939,000	3,942,000	30.8	{ 7,255,000 3,984,000 }	3,742,000	33.2
Other East India possessions .....	3,854,000					
Surinam .....	462,000	255,000	55.2	426,000	215,000	50.5
Curaçao .....	272,000	(?)	.....	288,000	(?)	.....

On this table a few remarks must be made. The absence of a statement of origin of imports into Curaçao, and of any sufficient statement as to imports into the lesser Dutch West Indies, makes the table incomplete, quite apart from the doubt as to the sources of the imports on Government accounts into Java and Madouira.

It should further be stated that the basis of valuation of imports into Surinam underwent a change in 1895, which causes the rate of growth of the trade of that colony to be underestimated. But for this change the total import would be shown as quite close to £500,000 instead of £462,000.

<sup>1</sup> The values used in this table are official, not real, values. Hence, comparisons with figures of later date must be made with every reserve. The figures for all the colonies except Algeria are obtained from the "Statistical tables relating to foreign countries." The data for Algeria being there incomplete, the French annual trade returns have been the source for the Algerian figures. It may be noted that the figures which are given in the "statistical tables" relating to Algerian trade do not coincide with those given in the French trade returns. They are nearer, on the whole, to the official than to the real values, but differ markedly from both.

## THE DUTCH EAST INDIAN TRADE.

But a more important point still in regard to the trade of the East Indies is the fact that a large proportion of the imports are recorded as from Singapore, as to the ultimate origin of which an absolute statement would probably be difficult to make. How important this feature is appears from the following statement:

## IMPORTS INTO DUTCH EAST INDIES ON PRIVATE ACCOUNT.

DATE.	Percent- age from Singa- pore and Penang.	From Penang.	From Singapore.	FROM ELSEWHERE THAN SINGAPORE AND PENANG.				
				Total.	From Holland.	Percent- age.	From Britain.	Percent- age.
1887-1891.....	39.7	£ 1,207,000	£ 3,258,000	£ 6,774,000	£ 3,742,000	55.2	£ 1,492,000	22
1892-1896.....	39.8	1,160,000	3,930,000	7,708,000	3,942,000	51.2	1,847,000	24

Whether the true proportion of the imports from Holland to the Dutch East Indies be over one-half or about one-third is not ascertainable from the figures here supplied, or from any I have as yet found. Judging from records of Dutch trade with the Straits, the lower figure is the nearer. The percentage of the previous table can not certainly be accepted as a satisfactory indication, apart from the question of imports on Government account. The important position recorded for British trade is sufficiently worth noting to be included in the table. No other single country approaches to the degree of importance of this.

Turning to the export side of the accounts, the record is less complete. On Government account the exports averaged £1,876,000 in the quinquennium 1887-1891, and £1,672,000 in 1892-1896. On private account the exports from Java and Madura rose from an average of £10,026,000 to an average of £11,230,000, and from other East Indian possessions of the Netherlands the exports rose from £3,995,000 to £4,060,000. Altogether the exports of merchandise were, on the average of 1887-1891, £15,897,000, and five years later amounted to £16,962,000.

The distribution of the exports as a whole among various destinations is not stated. The great bulk of them go to Holland, the one important exception being sugar. The export of this article has grown rapidly during the last decade, the increase being fully 40 per cent. As to the countries to which it goes, America stands first, China second; these two together taking in 1897 some four-fifths of the total; a total of, roundly, half a million tons. This account of the ultimate destination of the sugar exports, which is derived from information afforded by market reports, differs somewhat from an official table, according to which shipments which are (apparently) assigned to America in the market reports are recorded as being sent to the Mediterranean or to the English Channel "for orders."

The export of tea has grown recently about as fast as that of sugar. About three-fifths of the whole was shipped to Holland in 1897, and most of the remainder to England. Indigo is another export of growing importance, of which Holland took some three-quarters of the total in 1897. Some fifteen years ago over one-half the coffee exported was on Government account, derived from the Government plantations; at present only some 30 per cent of the coffee exported is exported by the Government.

A reference to the trade returns of the Straits Settlements suggests that a much smaller proportion of the export trade of the Dutch East Indies is carried on with Singapore than occurs in relation to the converse. The exports from the Straits Settlements to the Dutch East Indies are given as £3,955,000, annual average of 1887-1891; and as £4,133,000 for 1892-1896. These figures compare with the £4,465,000 and £5,090,000 recorded in the imports of the Dutch colonies as from Singapore and Penang. The records of the Straits Settlements' trade show imports from the Dutch colonies in the East Indies at £3,611,000, annual average of 1887-1891, and £3,048,000 for 1892-1896. As the total exports on private account were £14,021,000 for 1887-1891, and £15,290,000 for 1892-1896, it seems just to conclude that of the export trade not 20 per cent goes to Singapore and Penang, as against 40 per cent thence of the import trade.

It may be further noted that the exports from this country to the Dutch East Indies, though shown in our records as larger than the accounts at the other end show, namely, averaging £1,890,000 in 1887-1891 and £2,112,000 in 1892-1896, are shown in both records as steadily growing on the whole, with variations of amount which correspond fairly well. The evidence of our record of imports may, therefore, be assumed as indicating well enough the course of trade. There is shown, then, an average import from Dutch possessions in the Indian seas of £2,104,000 for 1887-1891, and £1,010,000 for 1892-1896. Germany records a growing import from this source, reaching about £2,500,000 on the average for 1892-1896. The French imports are under £1,000,000 and decreasing; those into the United States are about £2,000,000 and increasing. The fact, too, that the record of imports into Holland from her East Indian possessions shows some £12,661,000 for the annual average of 1887-1891, and £17,280,000 for 1892-1896, confirms the statement that the great bulk of the exports of these colonies go to Holland, and apparently the proportion is increasing.

Turning now to Surinam, we find the following state of the export trade:

## EXPORTS FROM DUTCH GUIANA.

AVERAGE OF YEARS.	Total amount.	To Hol- land.	Percent- age to Holland.
1887-1891.....	£ 311,000	£ 116,000	37.3
1892-1896.....	404,000	122,000	30.2

The destination of exports from Curaçao, and even the total value of exports, is not supplied. The latter but not the former is given for the other Dutch West Indian Islands, being as follows for the periods 1892-1896:

## EXPORTS.—ANNUAL AVERAGE, 1892-1896.

	£
Bonaire .....	4,701
Aruba.....	16,457
St. Martin.....	5,946
St. Eustatius .....	990
Saba .....	919
Total .....	29,013

Holland records an export to Curaçao averaging over these years just over £36,000, and an import just under £36,000.

The United States records an import from the Dutch West Indies amounting to about £30,000, and an export thither of about £130,000. What precise share in the trade this represents can not be stated in the absence of export figures for Curaçao and import figures for the other islands. The large share which the United States takes in the trade of the West Indies generally, and the fact that the trade statement of Surinam shows about 26 per cent of the imports to be from the United States, and over 48 per cent of the exports to be sent thither, gives some interest to the statement of the American records of trade with the Dutch West Indian Islands.

A comparison of the present position of Dutch colonial trade with that of a generation ago, as was done with the British and French colonies, presents one feature of very considerable difficulty. The source of the figures used in the case of France was the "Statistical tables relating to foreign countries," which came to an end in 1868, and the figures now to be given for Holland and Dutch possessions are derived from the same source. While, however, the movements in the trade are shown as progressing steadily in the trade returns of Holland itself, so that it would appear to be a matter of indifference what particular series of five years were employed to illustrate the state of trade about the time in question, a startling change in the figures of Java trade takes place in 1860, reducing the exports by about one-half in value at a jump. Whether this is the result of a new basis of valuation or of some other cause is not indicated in the tables. It appears desirable, on account of this change, to give the figures, not for a single five-year period, but for one such period preceding the change noted, and for a second dating from the beginning of the lower figures. We take, therefore, the two periods 1855-1859 and 1860-1864.

## TRADE OF DUTCH EAST INDIES AND SURINAM.

ANNUAL AVERAGE.	Total imports.	Imports from Holland.	Percentage from Holland.	Total exports.	Exports to Holland.	Percentage to Holland.
East Indies:	£	£		£	£	
1855-1859.....	3,062,000	1,091,000	35.6	8,310,000	6,191,000	74.5
1860-1864.....	3,712,000	1,521,000	41	4,396,000	2,460,000	56
Surinam, 1855-1859.....	239,000	119,000	50	332,000	196,000	59.1

It will be observed that the falling off in exports to Holland is greater in proportion than the reduction of exports as a whole, as represented by the record. Some other change than a mere change of basis of valuation would appear to be involved. I was unable to regard ignorance of the nature of the change in the mode of preparing the record as a sufficient reason for avoiding reference to the very striking fact.

The figures from the trade returns of Holland itself may be compared with the colonial statement:

## TRADE OF HOLLAND WITH HER COLONIES (GENERAL TRADE).

TO OR FROM—	EXPORTS.		IMPORTS.	
	1855-1859	1860-1864	1855-1859	1860-1864
Java.....	£ 2,422,000	£ 3,767,000	£ 6,672,000	£ 7,061,000
Surinam.....	118,000	209,000	309,000	234,000
Curaçao.....	27,000	84,000	24,000	22,000
Total, colonial.....	2,567,000	4,010,000	7,005,000	7,307,000
Total of all countries.....	28,040,000	32,990,000	33,075,000	38,063,000
Percentage of colonial.....	9.2	12.2	21.2	19.2

It will be seen on comparing this table with the last that the recorded import to Holland from Java increased between the intervals selected for comparison, while, as was observed, the recorded export from Java to Holland fell from a figure corresponding fairly well with the Dutch record to much less than half that amount. The recorded export from Holland to Java in both periods stands far above the amount shown in the colonial record.

The proportion of the colonial trade to the total Dutch trade stood far above what the more recent figures show. Had we taken the figures of special trade, these percentages would have been even greater.

## TRADE OF PORTUGUESE COLONIES.

The information on this section of my inquiry which I am able to present is far from satisfactory. Consular reports dealing with Portuguese East Africa provide certain statements available for my purpose, and the Statesman's Yearbook has been my resource for a statement relating to the total of import and export trade of the other colonies for any date not too distant to be useful. For comparison I state alongside the total trade movements the corresponding figures from the Portuguese trade returns, so as to provide some measure of the proportionate extent of trade between the colonies and Portugal.

## TRADE (EXCLUDING TRANSIT TRADE) OF PORTUGUESE COLONIES IN 1896.

[N. B.—Amounts are stated in milreis.]

	EXPORTS FROM PORTUGAL TO THE COLONY.		Imports into colony.	Exports from the colony.	IMPORTS TO PORTUGAL FROM THE COLONY.	
	Portuguese products.	Total.			Total.	For Portuguese consumption.
Angola.....	1,733,800	2,645,600	3,750,273	4,668,361	4,588,500	246,300
Cape Verde.....	229,800	445,900	1,595,900	386,500	313,600	279,500
Guinea.....	43,900	108,500	1,283,000	1,221,000	51,800	10,900
S. Thomé and Príncipe.....	377,400	581,200	1,055,500	2,283,917	2,069,800	483,700
East Africa.....	486,800	630,700	4,902,711	803,409	89,900	37,200
Goa.....	24,000	33,600	191,089	22,277	36,400	36,400
Macao and Timor.....	4,200	4,200	( <sup>2</sup> )	( <sup>4</sup> )	200	200
Total.....	2,899,900	4,449,700	11,778,473	8,385,464	7,100,200	1,094,200
Pounds sterling.....	652,480	1,001,200	2,650,156	1,886,729	1,597,500	246,200

<sup>1</sup> 1895. The Portuguese trade with Guinea was larger in 1895 than in 1896.

<sup>2</sup> 1897.

<sup>3</sup> In 1894 a trade to the value of £886,000, imported, and £68,000, exported, passed through the Chinese custom-house at Lappa. (Cf. Deutsches Handels-Archiv.) Imports into Timor, 1893, £123,130; exports, 1892, £80,500. (Cf. British Consular Reports.)

<sup>4</sup> Opium to the value of £285,600 was exported. (Cf. Statesman's Yearbook, 1898.)

It would appear from this table that the imports into Portuguese colonies might be estimated as coming to the extent of about one-half or less from Portugal, though only one-third or less of the imports were Portuguese goods. The exports are directed to the extent of about two-thirds to Portugal, but these reach Portugal, in the main, not as an ultimate destination.

The consular reports issued within the last month or two relating to the trade of Portuguese East Africa afford some valuable information on its trade from the point of view of this paper. In regard to Beira, a remarkable growth is shown in recent years in imports, the imports of 1898 (incompletely returned) being given as six and a half times those of 1895. The year 1896 shows imports double those of 1895, and 1897 was similarly related to 1896. It is possible that the completed returns for 1898 may bring its figures even nearer than as stated in the report to showing a doubled import for the third time. The exports show considerable progress, but irregularly and to a quite slight degree in comparison with imports. Of the £911,163 of imports in 1898 into Beira, £106,298 is stated to be from Portugal and £505,364 from Great Britain and colonies.

Of the trade of Mozambique nothing further need be added from the consular report, while as to Quilimane the chief further point afforded is the considerable decrease of trade since 1891 and the neighboring years, the lowest point, with trade less than half that of 1891, being reached in 1897.

At Lourenço Marquez imports advanced rapidly between 1894 and 1898, being £221,000 in the former year, and reaching over £750,000 both in 1897 and 1898. Meanwhile exports fell off considerably. In 1897, of the £754,416 of imports, those from Portugal amounted to £225,219, while £299,148 came from Great Britain and her colonies, rather over half of this being from Great Britain. In 1898 almost exactly one-third of the imports were from Portugal. The transit trade grew very rapidly in the five years in question, reaching £2,660,000 in 1897.

The rapid growth of imports into Lourenço Marquez, and especially into Beira, in recent years has an obvious explanation which prevents their records being taken as illustrative of the conditions of Portuguese colonies in general.

Throughout the statement relating to Portugal and her dependencies the milreis has been taken as equivalent to 4s. 6d. sterling, a merely nominal rate, but one which avoids the difficulties of changing rates of exchange.

### TRADE OF SPAIN'S FORMER COLONIES.

In dealing with this section of the inquiry, the facts adduced will be limited in range to the cases of Cuba, Porto Rico, the Philippines, and the Canaries. On all but the last of these, recent publications of the United States Government departments provide material from which I select what is necessary for my purpose.

The Consular Report (annual series No. 1851, 1897) gives valuable information as to Cuban trade not fully utilized in the American statements. Taking the two years beginning April, 1894, and April, 1895, the trade of Cuba was as follows:

#### IMPORTS INTO CUBA.

YEARS.	Total.	From Spain.	Per-centage.	From United States of America.	Per-centage.
1894-95.....	£ 18,358,000	£ 6,882,000	37.5	£ 6,723,000	36.6
1895-96.....	14,291,000	6,936,000	48.5	3,414,000	23.9

#### EXPORTS FROM CUBA.

YEARS.	Total.	To Spain.	Per-centage.	To United States of America.	Per-centage.
1894-95.....	£ 22,634,000	£ 2,344,000	10.4	£ 19,132,000	84.5
1895-96.....	20,388,000	2,173,000	10.7	17,260,000	84.6

The rather exceptional events affecting Cuban trade, however, make it desirable to attempt to secure a more extended comparison than the above.

Reference to the *Ubersichten der Weltwirtschaft*, Lfg. 16, provides us with a statement of the total imports and exports of Cuba for the quinquennium 1886-1890, and for each of the three years 1890, 1891, 1892. This enables the following table to be prepared, some of the later figures being repeated for comparison:

#### CUBAN TRADE STATEMENT.

YEARS.	Total imports of Cuba.	EXPORTS TO CUBA FROM—		Total exports of Cuba.	IMPORTS FROM CUBA TO—	
		Spain.	United States of America.		Spain.	United States of America.
1886-1890.....	£ 8,445,000	£ 2,914,000	£ 12,293,000	£ 13,400,000	£ 1,535,000	£ 10,519,000
1890.....	9,825,000	3,487,000	22,740,000	14,315,000	1,782,000	211,229,000
1891.....	10,355,000	4,594,000	22,973,000	15,145,000	1,491,000	214,241,000
1892.....	12,200,000	5,813,000	24,572,000	14,200,000	1,984,000	216,089,000
1894.....	18,358,000	4,682,000	23,533,000	22,634,000	1,506,000	215,707,000
1895.....	14,291,000	5,450,000	21,952,000	20,388,000	1,487,000	210,631,000

<sup>1</sup> Fiscal years ending June 30.

<sup>2</sup> Year ending Mar. 31, 1895.

<sup>3</sup> Calendar years.

<sup>4</sup> Year ending Mar. 31, 1896.

The growth in Cuban imports, especially from Spain, is brought out here, to which reference was made on another page. The influence of Cuban disturbances on the trade of its powerful neighbor and present protector is also effectively shown. The difference in the amounts of trade between Cuba and Spain and between Cuba and the United States shown here and in the preceeding table may be due to the nominal rate of conversion used for turning Cuban currency into sterling.

In regard to Porto Rico the United States Department of Agriculture gives, in Bulletin No. 13 of the Section of Foreign Markets, information which enables such comparisons as those made in this paper to be readily instituted. The following is extracted from this report:

#### TRADE OF PORTO RICO.

From or to—	IMPORTS.				EXPORTS.			
	1887-1891		1893-1896		1887-1891		1893-1896	
	£	Per cent.	£	Per cent.	£	Per cent.	£	Per cent.
Spain.....	847,000	28.6	1,205,000	32.5	470,000	21.4	847,000	24.8
United States.....	699,000	23.6	866,000	23.8	618,000	28.7	541,000	15.8
All countries.....	2,963,000	100	3,644,000	100	2,168,000	100	3,414,000	100

As a source of imports, the United Kingdom takes the third place, and Cuba, as a destination for exports, rises from third to second place in the interval covered by the table.

The figures on which the above table is based are stated to be derived, as to the years 1887-1891 and 1893, from the *Deutsches Handels-Archiv*, which quoted them as from the original Porto Rico trade returns. As to 1894 and 1895 the source is the official returns of trade of the island, and the 1896 figures were obtained from the customs officials in advance of publication.

For 1892 the separation of trade according to countries is not available, but the totals of the trade movement are not, on the import side, greatly different from neighboring years, and, on the export side, were quite similar to those of succeeding years, there being a leap upwards at this point, marking an advance which was maintained. The nominal gold value of the peso has been used in converting the values into sterling.

A comparison of Spanish with Porto Rican accounts shows a want of precise agreement, but in the totals of trade the indications of change from period to period are similar. The island accounts, however, show a markedly slower growth of imports from Spain than do the Spanish accounts of exports to Porto Rico.

In the item of coffee, as a particular specimen of disagreement, the island records for 1894-1896 show an export to Spain of £600,000 in value, while the Spanish records show an import of barely £570,000. The difference is not due to incorrect reductions of the peso and peseta, respectively, for Porto Rico records for these three years an average annual export to Spain of over 12,800,000 pounds of coffee, while Spain records a receipt of only 11,651,233 pounds on the average from the island. This is an illustration of the differences in records which profess to represent the same transaction.

The details of the trade of the Philippines by countries are only given in the bulletin referred to for the years 1881, 1892, and 1893, for which alone they were procurable. In the *Monthly Summary of Trade and Finance* for February, 1899, further particulars are given for 1894 and for 1896. From these the following statement is prepared:

#### TRADE OF THE PHILIPPINES WITH SPAIN.

YEARS.	IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.		
	Total.	From Spain.	Per cent from Spain.	Total.	To Spain.	Per cent to Spain.
	£	£		£	£	
1881.....	3,801,000	281,000	7.4	4,497,000	200,000	4.4
1892.....	3,353,000	304,000	27	3,939,000	378,000	9.6
1893.....	3,266,000	1,049,000	32.1	4,560,000	394,000	8.6
1894.....	2,334,000	1,077,000	36.7	3,395,000	297,000	8.8
1896.....	2,185,000			4,147,000		

I have not used here figures given in the latest report of Her Majesty's consul at Manila, on account of reasons given in the American statement for believing that the import figures are considerably deficient.

In reference to this table one point is of importance similar to what was mentioned in the case of Java, namely, that a very considerable proportion of the trade is carried on via Hongkong or Singapore, and thus ultimate origins or destinations are masked. This feature is much more important in the 1881 returns than in those for later years.

On the import side more continuous information is recorded in the bulletin, from which it appears that in the four years, 1885-1888, Spain contributed 8.8 per cent of a total import averaging £3,172,000, and that in 1891-1893 there was obtained from Spain 26.3 per cent of a total import averaging £3,358,000. The United Kingdom was the most important source of the imports of the islands (and the tables previously under consideration show it to be a yet more important destination for exports in relation to other countries), and Hongkong and Singapore bulk less largely at the later than at the earlier date, as already noted. Some of the changes in distribution of trade to and from other countries may be associated with this lessened degree of importance of trade via these free ports.

The indication of increased exports from Spain to the Philippine Islands afforded by preceding tables is confirmed by examination of the Spanish records relating to the trade. From £178,000 in 1887 there has been a steady increase, only interrupted in 1895, till in 1896 the export of Spain to these islands reached £1,521,000. Comparing these records with those of the United Kingdom and other countries it would appear that since 1892 Spain has occupied the first place in the trade, and that by 1896 she was as much ahead of Britain here as she was behind in 1890. In the converse current of trade, as judged by the records of the countries importing Philippine products, the United Kingdom occupies the most important place, the United States ranking second and Spain third in importance.

From these somewhat scattered records of the trade of the former Spanish colonies I do not propose to attempt to compile a summary table similar to those which have preceded. The general results, however, appear to be that Spain was not so important a factor in the trade of her great colonies now lost as the other countries which have been passed under review.

In reference to the trade of the Canary Islands, though complete records are not available, the information supplied in the "consular reports" (Annual Series, No. 246 of 1892 and No. 1828 of 1896) from Tenerife gives some addition to our materials—namely, the following summary prepared from the reports in question. It will be observed that over half the trade is with Britain:

## TRADE OF THE CANARIES.

YEARS.	IMPORTS.				EXPORTS.			
	Total.	From Spain.	Per cent from Spain.	From Britain.	Total.	To Spain.	Per cent to Spain.	To Britain.
1887-1891.....	£ 537,898	£ 45,860	8.5	£ 287,607	£ 1283,918	£ 17,588	2.7	£ 133,451
1892.....	575,017	33,876	5.9	307,160	438,931	34,661	7.9	234,219
1893.....	583,387	60,516	10.3	344,020	612,350	100,330	16.4	319,238

<sup>1</sup> £267,884 in 1891.

<sup>2</sup> 1891 only.

## TRADE OF DANISH POSSESSIONS WITH DENMARK.

The records of trade of the external possessions of Denmark are not complete. So far as concerns the islands of the West Indies, such information as was available was issued as a report from the statistical bureau in Copenhagen. [Statistiske Meddelelser, Tredie Rælle, 18 De Bind.]

The larger island, St. Croix, provides a report of both import and export trade, as follows:

AVERAGE OF YEARS.	IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.		
	Total.	From Denmark.	Per cent from Denmark.	Total.	To Denmark.	Per cent to Denmark.
1884-85 to 1888-89 .....	£ 151,000	£ 4,990	3.3	£ 124,000	£ 14,630	11.8
1889-90 to 1893-94 .....	153,500	3,985	2.6	125,000	10,880	8.7

The imports into this island from its neighboring Danish colonies are many times more important than those from the mother country, but, as shown by the records for the last four years of the ten, the trade is very largely with the United States, nearly three-fifths of the imports and nearly four-fifths of the exports being assigned to the trade with that country.

Taking now St. Thomas, the trade recorded is much larger, because this island does a considerable entrepôt trade. The imports only enter into the published record, and the summary of that record is as follows:

## IMPORT TRADE OF ST. THOMAS.

YEARS.	Total imports (annual average).	FROM DENMARK.		FROM UNITED STATES.	
		Value.	Percentage.	Value.	Percentage.
1884-85 to 1888-89 .....	£ 314,200	£ 9,900	3.1	£ 71,100	22.6
1889-90 to 1893-94 .....	223,300	5,700	2.6	73,900	33.1

To obtain the total import from Denmark to both islands such imports to St. Croix from Denmark as reach that island via St. Thomas must not be reckoned twice. The outcome of the summation, with this proviso, is the following:

## IMPORTS TO DANISH WEST INDIES FROM DENMARK.

YEARS.	Island records.	Danish records.
1884-85 to 1888-89 .....	£ 12,830	£ 12,110
1889-90 to 1893-94 .....	9,550	10,390

The division of the total export trade can not be made, nor any separate statement for the island of St. John.

A consular report issued (Annual Series, No. 2285, 1899) supplies some information on the trade of Iceland. It is there stated that the total imports and exports of the island in recent years have been as follows:

## TOTAL VALUE OF GOODS IMPORTED TO AND EXPORTED FROM ICELAND DURING THE YEARS 1891-1896.

YEARS.	VALUE.	
	Imports.	Exports.
1891-1895 (yearly average) .....	£ 356,373	£ 340,353
1895 .....	403,888	416,222
1896 .....	459,834	392,888



The proportion which the trade with Denmark bears to the total trade is stated in the report for the years 1895 and 1896. The figures are given in the following table:

TRADE OF ICELAND WITH DENMARK.

	Total value.	Amount of trade with Denmark.	Percentage with Denmark.
Imports:	£	£	
1895.....	403,898	272,541	67.5
1896.....	459,834	305,208	66.4
Exports:			
1895.....	416,222	143,087	34.4
1896.....	892,898	117,619	29.9

It may be added that the report records an export to Britain somewhat greater than that to Denmark in each of the two years, while the imports from Britain were approximately one-third of the value of those from Denmark.

TRADE OF GERMAN COLONIES WITH GERMANY.

ANNUAL AVERAGE, 1892-1896.	Total im-ports.	German ex-ports thither.	Total ex-ports.	German im-ports thence.
German East-Africa.....	£ 371,500	£ 95,800	£ 230,650	£ 33,500
Cameroons.....	261,500	185,000	213,800	176,650
Togo.....	110,300		134,200	
Southwest Africa.....	(?)	10,700	(?)	9,850
Marshall Islands.....	(?)		(?)	
Total.....	743,300	291,500	578,650	220,000

The returns of German exports to Southwest Africa are separated from those from other possessions on the West African coast for the first time in 1897. For that year a recent foreign office report (Miscellaneous Series, No. 474, 1898) and the statement of "Trade and shipping of Africa," already referred to, enable the following tables to be compiled for the African colonies of Germany:

IMPORTS INTO GERMAN AFRICAN POSSESSIONS, 1897.

	Total im-ports.	Imports from Germany.	Percentage from Germany.	German ex-ports thither.
Kamerun.....	£ 268,000	£ (?)	(?)	£ 224,000
Togo.....	94,000	(?)	(?)	
Southwest Africa.....	244,366	183,000	75	143,000
German East Africa.....	478,851	128,646	27	92,000
Total.....	1,085,217			459,000

EXPORTS FROM GERMAN AFRICAN POSSESSIONS, 1897.

	Total ex-ports.	Exports to Germany.	Percentage to Germany.	German im-ports thence.
Kamerun.....	£ 198,000	£ (?)	(?)	£ 178,000
Togo.....	83,000	(?)	(?)	
Southwest Africa.....	62,337	7,550	12	10,000
German East Africa.....	261,633	58,100	22	88,000
Total.....	604,870			226,000

No sufficiently complete statement of the trade of the other German possessions can be given to show the proportion of that trade carried on with Germany. The tables given appear to show that the German share of the colonies' trade does not much, if at all, exceed 40 per cent.

#### A REVIEW OF THE GENERAL SITUATION.

After so long a series of tabulations it is quite out of the question to attempt to rearrange the material for purposes of direct comparison of what is really comparable. Further, only totals of trade have been dealt with, not details and the commodities entering into the trade. Again, for the most part the direction of the trade has not been indicated except in the one point of its extent with the metropolitan State. I am aware of these omissions and of the very limited usefulness of a paper omitting such facts as these, and also neglecting to consider such matters as the singling out of the most and least prosperous of each group of colonies, leading to inquiries such as that into the reasons for the superiority of Indo-China in the progress of its trade and industry over other French colonies. I have only placed before myself on this occasion a limited inquiry, namely, into the materials for finding an answer to a part of the question, "What are the facts?" The question, "Why are things as they are?" is probably far more important, but can not be entered upon on this occasion.

I will only bring together one portion of the facts for the purpose of indicating where some application of such materials might perhaps begin.

I do not propose to comment on this table beyond pointing out that, as some of the estimates of population are quite rough, those of Cuba and Porto Rico, to wit, the deduction of trade per head is also only approximate. The nature of the trade of St. Thomas makes its amount exceptional, and many other qualifications are necessary before any very useful results can be deduced from such a comparative statement. It would not, however, be impossible to institute some useful comparisons between portions more similar and comparable than the units of this 1st table. Any such use of the records must be postponed. The reference to them may suffice to show that I do not suppose that such a collection of tables as is contained in this paper constitutes something worth seeking as an end in itself, but rather that it, or something like it, may serve as a means to attain ends not here aimed at. Were they more perfect they would serve such ends better, and the lack of completeness has been a source of great regret to me in preparing the paper. I can only trust that it is not so far lacking in this and other respects as to be considered unworthy of the attention of this society.

## THE TRADE OF THE WEST INDIES AND GUIANAS.

	Area (square miles).	Approximate population.	AVERAGE IMPORTS.		Average exports.	Foreign trade per head (to the nearest sixpence).
			Value.	Years.		
British West Indies.....	12,058	1,400,000	£ 6,587,000	1892-1896	5,948,000	£. s. d. 8 18 6
French West Indies.....	990	360,000	1,972,000	1887-1891	1,797,000	10 9 6
Cuba.....	41,655	1,630,000	10,793,000	1890-1892	14,553,000	15 11 0
Port Rico.....	5,200	800,000	3,644,000	1893-1896	3,414,000	8 16 6
British Guiana.....	109,000	280,000	1,631,000	1892-1896	2,100,000	13 6 6
French Guiana.....	47,000	30,000	1,360,000	1887-1891	198,000	19 12 0
Dutch Guiana.....	46,072	65,500	462,000	1892-1896	404,000	13 4 6
Curacao, etc.....	436	50,000	272,000	1892-1896	(?)	5 9 (1)
Danish West Indies.....	120	32,800	2347,000	1889-1894	(?)	10 11 (1)

<sup>1</sup>Imports only.

<sup>2</sup>Omitting imports to St. Croix from other Danish West Indies.

## SUMMARY OF RESULTS.

(1) The proportion which colonial trade bears to total trade is, except in the case of our own country and Spain, not large. It is, however, on the side of imports, considerable in the cases of Holland and Portugal, and important on both sides in both these cases and that of France. It is, too, apparently of growing importance.

(2) The external trade of the various British colonies and possessions takes place to the extent of over one-half with the mother country, to the extent of 65 per cent within the Empire.

(3) If Algeria and Tunis be included among French colonies, some 60 per cent of the colonial trade is with the mother country. If they be excluded, this proportion falls to 42 per cent, a figure not substantially increased if to the trade with France is added that with other French colonies.

(4) The newer French colonies do the greater part of their trade with other countries than France, in this contrasting with the older colonies.

(5) The Dutch East Indies take rather over one-third of their imports from Holland, and send thither the greater part (so far as the record permits of a definite figure, about three-quarters) of their exports. Dutch Guiana does over half its import trade and about a third of its export trade with Holland.

(6) The Portuguese colonies take something like one-third of their imports in Portuguese goods, though nearly one-half of the total are received from Portugal. Portugal receives near two-thirds of the exports, but mainly en route for other countries.

(7) The Spanish colonies (now lost) took well under half their imports from Spain, and sent her only a small proportion of their exports, except in the case of Porto Rico, which sent nearly one-quarter of its exports to Spain. Spain occupied a less important position in the trade of her colonies than the great trading nations previously considered.

(8) France and Holland stand contrasted with Britain in the matter of colonial trade in the fact that with them it is the colonies' export trade of which they have by far the larger share in most cases. With us the contrast is not so marked between the proportions of import and export trade carried on by our colonies with us. Further, the large share of the import trade of her colonies which falls to Britain contrasts favorably with the corresponding percentages in the records of the colonies of other countries.

(9) Comparisons with periods about thirty years back show that the course of the trade of the British Empire with Britain compares not unfavorably with the corresponding course of events in the cases of France and Holland.

(10) The efficiency of the policy of exclusive trade privileges to the sovereign State, whether in promoting its own trade or the trade of its colonies, is not conspicuous in the records.

## APPENDIX.

## FRENCH TRADE WITH FRENCH POSSESSIONS.

FROM OR TO—	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.	
	1887-1891	1892-1896	1887-1891	1892-1896
Algeria.....	Francs. 177,543,000	197,540,000	Francs. 181,490,000	198,935,000
Tunis.....	15,118,000	25,200,000	17,299,000	20,096,000
Senegal and Gulf of Guinea.....	22,309,000	22,058,000	11,517,000	21,078,000
Mayotte and Nossi Bé.....	960,000	2,429,000	400,000	3,255,000
Réunion.....	14,519,000	15,406,000	6,219,000	8,221,000
India.....	18,181,000	10,542,000	800,000	699,000
Indo-China.....	5,770,000	18,436,000	12,238,000	18,806,000
Oceania.....	8,456,000	9,773,000	5,819,000	6,024,000
Guiana.....	3,306,000	2,226,000	5,252,000	8,362,000
Martinique.....	22,346,000	19,401,000	13,044,000	13,257,000
Guadeloupe.....	19,795,000	16,115,000	11,636,000	11,904,000
St. Pierre and Miquelon.....	29,249,000	27,968,000	4,365,000	5,045,000
Total.....	329,606,000	368,119,000	270,080,000	315,192,000
Pounds sterling.....	13,184,000	14,725,000	10,803,000	12,607,000

## SPANISH TRADE WITH SPANISH POSSESSIONS.

FROM OR TO—	IMPORTS (INCLUDING BULLION AND SPECIE).		EXPORTS (INCLUDING BULLION AND SPECIE).	
	1887-1891	1892-1896	1887-1891	1892-1896
Cuba .....	£ 1,519,000	£ 1,902,000	£ 3,281,000	£ 6,260,000
Porto Rico.....	676,000	1,218,000	670,000	1,286,000
Philippines.....	863,000	878,000	843,000	1,098,000
Canaries.....	59,000	61,000	125,000	157,000
Total .....	3,117,000	4,059,000	4,419,000	8,801,000
Total of all countries.....	34,828,000	33,032,000	34,017,000	31,695,000

## PORTUGUESE TRADE WITH PORTUGUESE POSSESSIONS.

FROM OR TO—	IMPORTS.				EXPORTS.			
	1887-1891		1892-1896		1887-1891		1892-1896	
	Special.	Total.	Special.	Total.	Special.	Total.	Special.	Total.
Angola .....	£ 38,300	£ 636,300	£ 49,600	£ 1,149,600	£ 115,500	£ 504,500	£ 309,700	£ 682,200
Cape Verde.....	34,800	44,400	51,800	71,000	28,400	68,700	47,200	85,000
Guinea .....	1,200	6,000	6,400	21,500	6,700	13,900	9,200	32,500
S. Thome and Principe...	99,700	252,400	102,500	447,600	32,000	73,000	79,200	131,800
Mozambique .....	2,100	7,700	9,400	13,400	37,400	49,400	65,900	87,700
India .....	7,200	11,700	10,500	10,500	4,100	4,300	3,600	4,100
Macao and Timor .....	800	800	500	500	500	500	2,300	2,300
Total colonial .....	182,100	959,300	230,700	1,714,100	224,600	714,300	517,100	1,025,600
Total of all countries	9,039,000	11,033,200	8,287,900	10,861,200	4,992,400	6,986,800	5,627,800	8,201,100

## DISCUSSION ON PROFESSOR FLUX'S PAPER, BY MEMBERS OF THE ROYAL STATISTICAL SOCIETY.

Mr. H. Moncreiff Paul said they must all feel that the society owed a debt of gratitude to Mr. Flux for gathering together, under circumstances of considerable difficulty, very much valuable information regarding the trade of this and other countries with their respective colonies. He wished to add a few figures with regard to Australasian colonies, as Mr. Flux had not segregated them from other British possessions. For that purpose he would take the year 1896, to which special reference had been made in the paper. In the group he included Tasmania and New Zealand. Their population was about 4,500,000 in round numbers, and their total trade (imports and exports) £129,000,000. From that £129,000,000, however, it was necessary, in looking at the matter from Mr. Flux's standpoint, to eliminate the intercolonial figures, because no doubt there was a considerable duplication in the statistics of imports and exports from that cause. He believed that that intercolonial trade represented some £54,000,000 out of the £129,000,000, leaving an external trade of something like £75,000,000; and of that last figure £54,000,000 was with the mother country, £5,000,000 with British possessions, and £16,000,000 with foreign countries. What they had to see to was that the Australasian group should continue to maintain its trade with the mother country, and not allow that trade to go outside of Greater Britain. The trade between the Australasian group and Canada had not increased; but he looked to the results of the proposed Pacific cable to stimulate trade in that direction by cheapening telegraphic communications. But they knew that the Australasian group had in certain particulars withdrawn from the mother country in respect of trade. A portion of their export trade in their main staple, wool, which formerly went entirely to the mother country, had been in recent years diverted to the continent of Europe and to the United States in consequence of improved transit facilities and increased telegraphic communication; and the same causes, in conjunction with cheapness of production abroad, had affected the trade in manufactured articles imported by these colonies. Still there was in 1896 this very satisfactory feature, that out of the total Australasian external trade—£75,000,000—£54,000,000 was with the mother country. This compared very favorably with the trade of Great Britain with other countries, having regard to the relatively small population of the Australasian group. Thus the trade between the United Kingdom and the under-mentioned more populous countries was as follows: United States of America, £138,000,000; France, £71,000,000; Germany, £62,000,000, and British India, £56,000,000. A comparison of the trade of the British possessions with the United Kingdom showed the following proportions: The Australasian group, 29 per cent; India, 30½ per cent; Canada, 11½ per cent, and Straits Settlements and Hongkong, 4½ per cent. So that, as far as British possessions were concerned, the Australasian colonies occupied a very prominent position.

## PROFESSOR MAYO-SMITH.

Prof. R. Mayo-Smith said he considered himself particularly fortunate to have been at a meeting when a subject was discussed which was of very great interest to the people of the United States at the present time, and he must say that that interest was more one of curiosity and inquiry than anything else. He could not expect to give to Englishmen any information with regard to the value of colonies as a source of trade, or on the question whether colonies paid or did not. England had been the great colonial power for so many years, and had had so much experience, and carried out such enormous transactions, that it would be very presumptuous on his part to say anything as to the policy of Great Britain with regard to her colonies. His desire was simply to gain information.

The position of the United States at the present time with regard to this whole question of dependencies was a very peculiar one. They did not know exactly what they were going to do or what were the advantages and the disadvantages. For that reason they were very much interested in this question of trading advantages, and the question whether trade did follow the flag or whether trade went to the cheapest market. One point was whether a country that became a colonial power at the present time could enter upon those colonies and expect to absorb their trade in the way in which the older colonial empires had absorbed the trade of their colonies. Great Britain's colonies were occupied more or less by Englishmen; and the direct connection between the mother country and the colony was very close, and the whole influence was on the side of the mother country. The question then was, Was it possible for the United States, in

acquiring foreign possessions of that sort, ever to occupy a position toward them such as the United Kingdom had occupied through her historical connection with her own dependencies? That point of view was primarily purely American; but he would ask Mr. Flux's attention to this point, whether that consideration did not to some extent invalidate any general conclusion that it was the simple colonial relation that turned trade toward the mother country. The second point they would have to think of in the States was whether geographical situation had not a more potent influence upon trade than the flag; but he did not see that Mr. Flux had dealt with that question at all. For instance, taking Cuba and Porto Rico, did not the situation of those two islands tend constantly to throw their trade to the United States rather than to Spain? Again, taking the trade of Canada. Her geographical situation threw the Canadian trade to a large extent into the United States; and it seemed to him that even in dealing with the figures as Mr. Flux had, it might possibly be well to study the countries separately and see whether their geographical position did not really tend to counteract the influence of the colonial connection in many cases. The third point was whether the facilities of transportation also did not to a great extent determine the question of trade. Taking the South American countries as an example, the people of the United States had always rather of a notion that they ought to have the trade of South America, as they were nearer to South America than England; they were able to supply the people of South America with many things they needed, and could take a great many things they had. Why was it that the United States did not have the trade with South America which England had? One explanation was that the United States had a protective policy which was choking foreign trade. Another influence was the manning of the merchant marine and the great transport facilities from England to the States of South America. There was not apparently any suggestion as to a personal preference for one nationality; the question was one of transport. If they could get goods to Europe better, if the foreign exchanges were more favorable, and banking facilities were greater, the trade would go to England. Another thing which would occur to an American was that in this colonial trade the character of the products which could be exchanged would count very much. Taking the trade with Australia, England wanted Australian wool and Australia wanted English manufactures. The trade between Australia and the Pacific coast of the United States was very different. They did not want Australian wool and Australia did not want their wheat or raw products. It was a question with him whether England did not hold her own in this colonial trade, to a very great extent, because she was a manufacturing country, having precisely the commodities that the colonies wanted; and, on the other hand, the colonies had what England needed. But the United States was still a new country; its people were producers of food stuffs and raw materials.

It seemed to him that while England might hold on to her colonial trade, it would not be on account of the colonial connection, but on account of the fact that England and the colonies, so to speak, fitted each other. These were the points which he would wish to make; and he must say that most people in the States who had been brought up to English political economy had been rather sceptical about the cry that trade followed the flag. They were inclined to accept the teaching of the older economists that men sought the best market to buy in and the best market to sell in. Though the colonial connection might be a powerful influence socially on trade lines, America and her infant colonial power would not have very much to gain by it commercially.

MR. BIRCHENOUGH.

Mr. H. Birchenough said one's first feeling upon hearing this paper read was one of astonishment at the amount of material it contained. He imagined that in drawing it up the author did not intend to make it at all controversial. He regarded it as a large statistical picture of various countries and various colonial empires, and it would, therefore, be unfair to expect Mr. Flux to have touched in his paper upon more debatable questions than he could help. So far as the indications of his opinions went he cordially shared them. He believed that trade did, to a very considerable extent, follow the flag, and he thought so because it seemed to lie very considerably in the nature of the human mind that purchases should follow familiar channels. Undoubtedly the temptation to the experienced business man was to buy in the cheapest market; but, looking at the statistics, it would be seen that the tendency of people who migrated to the colonies was to purchase those articles to which they were accustomed at home. If one examined the figures of our colonial exports, it would be seen that the United Kingdom did its largest trade with those colonies which were inhabited by true colonists—people of our own race—for the simple reason that they retained the same sort of tastes and wants that they had at home. The great extension of trade was in the great self-governing colonies, so like ourselves in every way. He should like to add a word or two in reply to what had fallen from the last speaker. He felt great sympathy with the difficulties Professor Mayo-Smith expressed as lying in the minds of the citizens of the United States. In reply to his first question, he should be prepared to say that a country could not expect to absorb the trade of existing foreign colonies which it annexed in the same manner as it might expect to absorb the trade of colonies which it founded and built up. He would even go further, and say, in illustration, that the United States could not hope to-day to absorb the trade of the Philippines in the same manner as Great Britain absorbed the trade of the Cape after annexing it in the early years of the present century for the obvious reason that the political and commercial situation had entirely changed. The rest of the world would certainly now expect the United States in annexing the Philippines to maintain something like an "open door." The States could hardly apply their tariff to the Philippine Islands, and therefore those markets would be open to the whole of the rest of the world in a sense in which the earlier markets were not. But, on the other hand, he was perfectly confident the United States would find an enormous increase of trade through their annexation and colonization, because by the mere fact of annexation America obtained a position which enabled her to control the finances of the islands. One of the most potent causes of successful trade between the mother country and her colonies was the control of finance. For instance, all the great undertakings for the development of the Philippines, or Cuba, or Porto Rico—the building of railways, piers, and harbors—would be more or less under the control of the United States Government or of American mercantile companies. That would bring into the United States a large amount of trade, just as the execution of the great public works in Australia and South Africa brought trade to British shores. Being financed here, the loans raised went out in the form of railway materials, telegraphic appliances, and so on. For that reason he was quite confident that in obtaining political control over territory the country which obtained that control acquired a very strong position for the purpose of trade. Beginning with official control, the connection became commercial and industrial. The United States had had enormous territory to open up, and at present had its hands full in developing its own resources, but by and by it would overflow its borders. If to-day it did not feel any want of colonies for trade purposes, he felt certain that by the middle of the next century it would have such needs.

He agreed with Professor Mayo-Smith that geographical position must of necessity be a very important factor in trade. That one saw illustrated by the trade between France and Algeria, and by the large trade between the United States and the West Indian Islands. But it did not exercise a paramount or dominating influence. Owing to the improvements in communication, the widespread character of modern commerce, and the immense influence of financial considerations, too much importance should not be attached to geographical proximity, except as regards trade in articles which were more or less perishable. Take the case of South America. When the United States became as great a financial power as Great Britain was, they would to a large extent absorb the trade of South America. But, in his opinion, it would be more because they were a great industrial and financial people than because of their geographical proximity.

On the general question, he argued that Mr. Flux's tables proved that hitherto, in the case of all empires, trade had very largely followed the flag. There were, however, other factors of great influence. If they had tables showing the business which different countries did with each other's colonies, they would see the strength and power of those influences which lay outside a common country or what was meant by the flag. Some two years ago he made a study of our trade with the colonies of foreign countries, and he was then obliged to admit that if it was true that trade followed the flag, it was also true that it followed any and all civilizing agencies which established order and stability, in which alone trade could flourish. In spite of the barriers which the French Government had set up in order to keep all the trade to themselves (except where there were conventions to the contrary), we did somehow manage to do a very large trade with the French colonies. Taking Tonquin as an example, there was a pause which lasted several years in our trade with that place after the French annexation. But immediately the country was fairly settled, our trade increased, in spite of the French tariffs and attempts to cripple it, and it was still increasing. The same was true even in Tunis. The French did a very large trade with their older colonies, probably because they were largely settled by French people, or people brought up under the influence of French tastes; but

when the French annexed new countries in Africa or Asia, it would be found that they did relatively only a small proportion of the trade, because French manufacturers did not supply the particular articles which were required by an undeveloped country. Where the connection had been a long one, where the tastes of the population were the tastes of France, the figures were growing rapidly.

In conclusion, he expressed the conviction that, although many causes combined to produce successful trading relations between a mother country and its colonies, yet the most important single cause was the fact of political connection represented by the flag. That connection was of immense value in the early years, since it afforded guarantees so necessary to confidence in trade, and the longer it lasted the more important it became, owing to the thousand ties—financial, commercial, and social—which it fostered and maintained.

#### FURTHER DISCUSSION.

Mr. J. T. Taylor said that to answer the question, Did trade follow the flag? it would be necessary first to answer another question: Was the colony in favor of the flag or did it dislike it? He quite agreed with Professor Mayo-Smith that the mere fact that a colony was a colony would not in itself cause it to trade with the mother country under unfavorable conditions. But in the case of a colony and a mother country, where each felt that a real advantage was to be gained by their continuing to be associated, efforts would be made both by the mother country and by the colony to create such conditions as would be favorable to a common trade. Where you had such conditions—and they would always be created where proper relations existed between the mother country and her colonies—there trade would follow the flag, but in the absence of such conditions trade would to only a very small extent, if at all, follow the flag. He did not think, therefore, that it was a question which could be properly answered with a simple yes or no. Geographical and other physical conditions had, no doubt, bearing upon it, but their influence was slight compared with that exercised by the general relations subsisting between a mother country and a colony. The character of those relations, be they cordial or irksome, must be fully considered in each case before a trustworthy reply can be given to the question, Does trade follow the flag?

Mr. P. de Jersey Grut drew attention to a point in connection with the tabulation of statistics of exports and imports between the European countries. Transfers of gold were very properly eliminated in the case of the trade statistics of European countries, none of the European countries, with one exception, being producers of gold, and the transfer of gold between all these countries was almost entirely for the purpose of settling balances of exchange. But the case was wholly different when one of the countries involved in the transaction was a large producer and exporter of gold. That was the case with the Australasian colonies, South Africa, the United States, and one or two other countries. In these figures the gold exports from Australia to the United Kingdom were not included, and it seemed to him that they ought for such a purpose as the present to be included. Gold was as much a trade product in the case of Australia as iron was in the case of Great Britain and had as much claim to be included in the exports.

Mr. J. Barr Robertson called attention to the fact, in connection with France and her colonies, that the importations from the latter came in free of duty or at a much reduced duty, whereas the productions from other countries had to pay a high duty. This was completely protective in the case of French colonial products entering free of duty, and it was at least a differential duty in favor of colonial products entering France at a much reduced duty against foreign products. Similarly French products were favored as against foreign in entering the French colonies. That was a reason why there might be a large importation into France from its colonies and a large exportation from France to the colonies, since they were so much favored in regard to duties at the ports of entry.

Mr. Sydney Young suggested that the large trade done with French colonies was chiefly for the support of the official life in those colonies, and if that were taken off the trade would be very much less. It would throw great light on the trade of the colonies and on the point as to whether they were good for the mother country or otherwise, if some statistics could be afforded as to the comparative cost of French and German colonies and our own.

Mr. Frederick W. Lawrence pointed out that if the Straits Settlements were taken out from the other colonies, the percentage of imports by British colonies from the mother country had actually increased from one period to the other.

Mr. R. H. Hooker remarked that the author's last conclusion, viz, that "the efficiency of the policy of exclusive trade privileges to the metropolitan State, whether in promoting its own trade or the trade of its colonies, is not conspicuous in the records," afforded no evidence that the trade of the United Kingdom had lost ground at the expense of those other countries for which statistics were available over a sufficiently long period. To take France as an instance, the author showed that the proportion of the imports of her colonies from the mother country had certainly not increased, but rather declined during the past thirty years. It would seem to be a fair deduction from this, that whereas thirty years ago the excellence of certain foreign goods was such that the French colonies took them in preference to goods of home manufacture, these colonies were now, in spite of tariff and shipping facilities, still less satisfied with French goods. In satisfying the demands of her colonies, therefore, it would seem that other countries (among which the United Kingdom might not improbably be included) had made more rapid progress than France. It was unfortunate that, owing to their very recent acquisition of colonies, no similar comparison could be made with the United States and Germany, now usually considered our most dangerous commercial rivals.

Mr. M. Macfie dwelt on the importance of a point which had been brought strongly before him in 1887, the year of the great international exhibition in Melbourne, and frequently since that time. That was the remarkable progress which had been made in the exports from Germany and even from the United States to all parts of Australasia. From recent inquiries he found that the ratio of increase certainly did not fall off. If they were to form an adequate idea of the importance of British trade with the other parts of the empire, there was a collateral inquiry of the greatest importance to be made as to whether they were fully alive to the fact that while the ratio of our trade with the other parts of the empire might be maintained, the ratio of the trade with Germany and the United States, and all other countries with certain portions of the empire might be increasing even beyond the ratio of our own exports to the same destinations.

Another question of great importance to England and to the empire at large was the relation of our interimperial trade, with the attempt which was now being made extensively, and on very patriotic grounds, to effect the federation of the empire. The basis of those who advocated imperial federation was undoubtedly that of Zollverein, and consequently they attached greater moment to interimperial trade than to the trade between the United Kingdom and foreign countries. He believed the statistics up to date would not quite favor the conclusion toward which they seemed to tend. It would appear that the proportion of trade which we did with other parts of the empire was considerably below what we did with foreign countries. It should be considered, therefore, whether in their anxiety to promote interimperial trade—which formed a comparatively small fraction of the general trade of this country—they might not be ignoring conditions vital to the trade we did with foreign countries. Without desiring to neglect interimperial trade, it would be unfortunate if they were to take any step which might prejudice foreign countries against their own and excite the notion that they were aiming at interimperialism rather than maintaining the old Cobden idea of free trade with the world and "open doors" wherever they could get them.

Mr. J. Johnston, referring to the point introduced by the last speaker, said, if they were to introduce imperial federation he presumed they would try and carry out the broad principles which that speaker had been telling them should be carried out. It was quite possible that if Australia federated, the free-trade colony of New South Wales would be able to get a great many of her principles carried out in the other colonies as well, possibly the whole of them; and if they could federate the whole empire on a free-trade basis and shut up a great many custom-houses, it would be a great advantage to the trade of the whole empire and of the world at large. Proximity was of great importance, as Professor Mayo-Smith had shown, but he thought facilities of intercourse were of almost greater importance, and they had a specimen of a great commercial market arising within the last twenty years through facilities of intercourse. He was one who fully believed that Germany would not have taken the position in the markets of the world she was taking now had it not been for the action of the German Government in subsidizing lines of steamers to all parts of the world and sending her men forward as commercial travelers to push German trade in all directions. If England would school her young men in the languages of the countries to which they were about to be accredited, it would be of far more importance in increasing trade than annexing territory in West Africa or elsewhere.

## DR. J. FORBES WATSON ON THE FLAG AND TRADE.

[Paper read before the Royal Colonial Institute, London, February 26, 1878, by Dr. J. Forbes Watson, director of the India Museum.]

## THE CHARACTER OF THE COLONIAL AND INDIAN TRADE OF ENGLAND CONTRASTED WITH HER FOREIGN TRADE.

Two years ago I had occasion to compare the trade carried on between the United Kingdom and the British possessions with that between the United Kingdom and foreign countries. The results of that comparison were published at the time, the figures then given being those for 1874. Desirous of ascertaining to what extent the conclusions then formed would be borne out by later statistics, I recently examined the trade returns for 1876, the last ones published, and was struck not only by the large relative increase of that portion of our trade which is carried on with our own possessions, but also by the evidences afforded of the peculiarly advantageous nature of that trade. Our colonial trade, in fact, is distinguished from our foreign trade by certain characteristics which considerably enhance the degree of importance it already possesses on account of its magnitude. It is the purpose of the present paper to endeavor to throw some light on these special characteristics.

## THREE KINDS OF COLONIES.

In the following table will be found the principal data referring to the trade and population of the different colonies, which have been grouped as follows:

- (a) Trading and military stations, such as Hongkong, Singapore, and Malta.
- (b) Plantation colonies, such as the West Indies, Ceylon, and Mauritius.
- (c) Agricultural, pastoral, and mining colonies, such as Australia, Canada, and the Cape.

## POPULATION AND TRADE OF THE COLONIES.

COLONIES.	Total popu- lation.	English or European population exclusive of naval and military establish- ments.	Total exports and imports.	Trade with England, exports and imports (merchandise only).	Remarks.
I.—TRADING STATIONS.					
Hongkong.....	124,198	2,979	£ Not known ...	£ 4,657,000	3,500,000 tons entered the port in 1874. 1,853,000 tons entered the port of Singa- pore in 1874. The English trade not separately re- corded.
Straits Settlements .....	307,951	1,350	26,635,000	5,413,000	
Labuan.....	4,898	43	189,000	.....	
Gold Coast.....	400,000	70	556,000	1,531,000	
Lagos.....	28,963	94	835,000		
Sierra Leone and Gambia .....	53,126	311	1,267,000		
Aden.....	22,507	117	2,620,000		
Malta.....	145,599	1,850	16,205,000	538,000	
Gibraltar.....	25,216	1,800	Not known ...	1,283,000	
				1,316,000	
Total .....	1,112,458	7,596	Not known <sup>2</sup> ..	14,738,000	
II.—PLANTATION COLONIES.					
The Bahamas.....	39,162	6,500	314,000	9,782,000	
Leeward Islands:					
Antigua.....	35,157	2,146	343,000		
Montserrat.....	8,693	240	57,000		
St. Christopher.....	28,163	1,500	275,000		
Nevis.....	11,735	600	135,000		
Anguilla.....	2,732	100	.....		
Virgin Islands.....	6,426	500	.....		
Dominica.....	27,178	800	125,000		
Windward Islands:					
Barbados.....	162,042	11,560	2,190,000	257,000	
St. Vincent.....	35,688	2,344	362,000		
Grenada.....	37,684	1,000	266,000		
Tobago.....	17,054	250	91,000		
St. Lucia.....	31,610	900	273,000		
Turks and Caicos Islands.....	4,723	500	45,000		
Trinidad.....	109,638	5,000	2,754,000		
Jamaica.....	506,154	13,000	3,205,000		
British Guiana.....	212,000	15,000	4,635,000		
British Honduras.....	24,710	377	419,000		
Mauritius.....	331,371	15,000	5,135,000	1,659,000	
Ceylon.....	2,401,066	18,700	10,379,000	4,840,000	
Total .....	4,032,993	101,017	31,000,000	16,538,000	
III.—AGRICULTURAL, PASTORAL, AND MINING COLONIES.					
Africa:					
Cape and Kaffraria.....	776,158	200,000	9,792,000	8,999,000	
Griqualand West.....	50,000	15,000			
Natal.....	317,000	20,000			
Total .....	1,143,158	235,000	11,684,000	8,999,000	
Australasia:					
Victoria.....	808,000	808,000	32,395,000	39,217,000	
New South Wales.....	584,000	584,000	23,640,000		
Queensland.....	164,000	159,000	7,068,000		
South Australia.....	205,000	205,000	8,385,000		
West Australia.....	26,000	26,000	793,000		
Tasmania.....	104,000	104,000	2,183,000		
New Zealand.....	345,000	294,000	13,373,000		
Total .....	2,236,000	2,180,000	87,837,000	39,217,000	
North American Colonies:					
Dominion of Canada and Newfoundland .....	3,747,000	3,747,000	48,533,000	22,070,000	
Total colonies .....	12,271,609	6,270,613	Not known ...	101,562,000	

<sup>1</sup>The second column contains only the number of the English population.<sup>2</sup>Probably not less than £75,000,000.



This table was worked out two years ago on the basis of the returns for 1874. As it is quoted here solely with the view of illustrating the striking differences in the functions, so to speak, of each of these three groups of colonies, the figures of that year will answer the purpose; nor would the results have been materially affected by the substitution of later figures. These results may be thus briefly summarized:

Taking first the last named but most important group of colonies, viz, the agricultural, pastoral, and mining colonies, we find that they contain a European population of above 6,000,000, and that their trade with England amounts per head of the European population to £38 in the case of the Cape, £18 in the case of Australia, and £8 in the case of the North American colonies.

The extent of the commercial relations with England which these figures imply may be best gathered from the fact that the corresponding figure for the English trade with the United States—the foreign country which has the most extensive commercial relations with England—would be £2 5s. per head, or not much more than one-third of that for Canada, about one-seventh of that for Australia, and about one-fifteenth of that which shows the trade with England of a colonist at the Cape.

In the case of the Cape, however, the estimated amount of trade for each white inhabitant is naturally greater than that for Australia and Canada, from the fact that the Cape contains a considerable native population, which helps to increase its producing and consuming power.

In the case of the plantation colonies, in which the number of European settlers is altogether insignificant as compared with the native population, the trade per white inhabitant ranges still higher, amounting to £310 of total trade, and to £165 of English trade. Although in the case of these colonies the bulk of the imports is consumed by the native population, and the bulk of the exports produced by native labor, the practice of estimating the trade per head of the white inhabitants only is justified by the consideration that but for the capital and enterprise of the European planters, the bulk of the trade would probably not have existed.

In the case of the trading stations, the few European residents are only the intermediaries of a trade carried on, in reality, not with the population of the colony, but with the adjacent foreign countries, and in this case the numbers for each white inhabitant rise to £10,000 of total trade, and to £2,000 of English trade.

The principal data for each class of colonies are recapitulated in the following tabular form:

DESCRIPTION OF COLONY.	European population.	Total trade.	Trade with England.	TOTAL TRADE.	TRADE WITH ENGLAND.
				Per white inhabitant in colony.	
Trading stations.....	7,600	£ 75,000,000	£ 14,750,000	£ 10,000	£ 2,000
Plantation colonies.....	100,000	31,000,000	16,500,000	310	165
Agricultural, pastoral, and mining colonies:					
Cape and Natal.....	235,000	11,500,000	9,000,000	49	38
Australasia.....	2,180,000	88,000,000	39,000,000	42	18
North American colonies.....	3,750,000	48,500,000	22,000,000	13	6

In a view of the trade of the whole of the British possessions, the Indian trade must be included with that of the colonies proper.

\* \* \*

#### COMPARISON OF TRADE AT TWO PERIODS.

The period of eight years, which has been selected for comparison, just marks the beginning and the end of that period of extraordinary inflation of trade which followed the Franco-German war. The year 1869 presents in every way many analogies with that of 1876. Both were years of depression, subsequent upon years of great excitement. The year which followed 1869 witnessed the beginning of a wonderful development of trade; and probably that which followed 1876 would, but for the political complications in the east, have been likewise marked by a recovering trade. The years 1869 and 1876 were also both preeminently normal years, in which trade depended more upon the permanent economical conditions of the world than upon any accidental circumstances. There is also this advantage, that, with the exception of the heavy fall in the value of cotton, the general level of prices is very similar in the two years, so that a comparison of the values alone may also be taken as representing approximately the relative bulk of trade done in the two years.

In the trade returns for the year 1876, the first circumstance which attracts attention is that India stands ahead of every other country as the one which absorbed the largest quantity of British produce and merchandise, whereas in 1869 it only occupied the third rank, both the United States and Germany coming before it. Another interesting fact is, that in 1876 for the first time, the British exports to Australia exceeded those to the United States, although the population of the latter exceeds that of Australia almost twenty-fold. In that year the exports to Australia amounted to £17,700,000 in value, while to the States they only amounted to £16,100,000.

These two facts at once point to the change which has taken place between the years 1869 and 1876, viz., to the growth of the trade with British possessions, and to the diminution of that carried on with foreign countries. Between these two dates the exports of British home produce to the British possessions increased by £17,000,000, while the exports to foreign countries diminished by £6,000,000. Thus but for the great expansion of the colonial and Indian markets, the export trade of 1876 would have shown a diminution as compared with that of 1869, instead of which there is an increase in the sum total of exports from £189,000,000, to about £200,000,000. This result will appear even more striking when we compare the figures for the two final years with those for all the intervening years, as shown in the subjoined table:

YEARS.	EXPORTS OF BRITISH PRODUCE—			Percentage of colonial and Indian trade.
	To foreign countries.	To British possessions.	Total.	
1869.....	£ 141,900,000	£ 48,100,000	£ 190,000,000	Per cent. 25.3
1870.....	147,800,000	51,800,000	199,600,000	26
1871.....	171,800,000	51,300,000	223,100,000	23
1872.....	195,700,000	60,600,000	256,300,000	23.6
1873.....	188,800,000	66,300,000	255,200,000	26
1874.....	167,300,000	72,300,000	239,600,000	30.2
1875.....	152,400,000	71,100,000	224,500,000	31.8
1876.....	135,800,000	64,900,000	200,700,000	32.3

It will be noticed that the export trade to foreign countries was subject to great fluctuations, increasing from £141,900,000 in 1869 to £195,700,000 in 1872, but subsequently falling to much below its initial amount, while the proportion of colonial and Indian trade has steadily risen from 25.3 per cent to 32.3 per cent—that is, from about a fourth to a third of the entire exports. Although there is an absolute falling off from 1875 to 1876, even that is due more to lower prices than to any great diminution in the quantity of the merchandise exported.

In order to account for the greater steadiness of the colonial trade, it is necessary to review in detail the trade in the different articles of export.

#### GROWTH IN EXPORTS OF MANUFACTURES TO THE COLONIES.

One important fact is apparent from even a cursory examination of the trade list. It is, that although the average share of the colonies and India in the English export trade does not exceed one-third of its total value, there are a great many articles which are exported chiefly to the colonies, and in which the colonial and Indian share amounts to from one-half to three-fourths of the whole quantity exported. On examination it is found that the articles which show this predominance of colonial demand are all related in character to each other, and that they may be arranged in a few well-defined groups.

There is first a group including articles of personal use and attire, such as apparel, haberdashery and millinery, hats, boots, umbrellas, etc. The proportion of the total quantity of these articles exported to India and the colonies is shown below for the two years 1869 and 1876:

ARTICLES.	PROPORTION EXPORTED TO THE BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN—	
	1869	1876
	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Apparel and slops .....	70.6	88.6
Hosiery (stockings and socks only) .....	48.1	62
Haberdashery and millinery .....	57.1	76.1
Hats .....	67.9	56
Boots and shoes .....	76.5	87.5
Blankets and flannels .....	57	74.7
Umbrellas .....	56.9	74.4
Total articles of personal use and attire .....	63.5	78.5
Total value of articles .....	£9,500,000	£10,800,000
Value exported to British possessions .....	6,000,000	8,500,000

#### COLONIAL DEMAND FOR FOOD STUFFS AND MANUFACTURES.

There is another group of exports allied to the previous one and comprising a variety of articles of domestic consumption, such as provisions, pickles, beer and ale, soap, medicines, and perfumery, as well as books, musical instruments, saddlery and harness, hardware and cutlery. The preponderance of colonial demand for all the articles in this group, if not quite so striking as it is in the previous one, is yet very considerable. The actual proportion taken in the two years 1869 and 1876 by the British possessions is shown below:

ARTICLES.	PROPORTION OF TOTAL VALUE EXPORTED TO THE BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN—	
	1869	1876
	<i>Per cent.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Cheese .....	53.5	78
Pickles, vinegar, and sauce .....	69	76.9
Provisions (unenumerated) .....	59.1	57.3
British spirits .....	47.4	88.2
Beer and ale .....	68.5	77.6
Soap .....	54.1	72.7
Medicines .....	52.1	62.4
Perfumery .....	55.4	59.3
Candles .....	92.3	89
Glass of all kinds .....	57	63.4
Lucifer matches .....	76.7	89
Furniture .....	59.5	78
Musical instruments .....	88.4	85.8
Paper hangings and stationery .....	81	83.9
Books .....	44.5	64.6
Plated and gilt wares .....	57.1	67.6
Cordage .....	67.7	75.1
Saddlery and harness .....	68.7	86.6
Hardware and cutlery .....	28.3	40.6
Averages for the articles of domestic consumption .....	52.7	64.7
Total value of group .....	£11,300,000	£12,800,000
Value exported to the British possessions .....	6,000,000	8,300,000

#### FINISHED MANUFACTURES DEMANDED BY THE COLONIES.

The articles just enumerated have this feature in common, that they are all exported in the final stage of preparation and ready for immediate consumption; as such, therefore, they represent for the same weight and value a larger proportion of British labor than those articles which have yet to undergo some process of manufacture in order to fit them for immediate use. Not only do the British possessions take by far the larger proportion of such articles, but on comparing the two years 1869 and 1876, we find that, large as the colonial share was in 1869, it is larger still in 1876, the percentages of the colonial demand for the latter year being almost uniformly higher than they are for the former. It is especially interesting to examine in detail the change which has taken place within this short

period of eight years. The results are so uniform that it is sufficient to mention only a few of the principal articles above referred to, together with the totals for each class. The values and percentages exported to British possessions and to foreign countries are shown below:

ARTICLES.	EXPORTS IN—		Increase.	Decrease.
	1869	1876		
Apparel and slope:	£	£	Per cent.	Per cent.
To foreign countries .....	700,000	400,000		51.8
To British possessions .....	1,700,000	2,700,000	55.8	
Haberdashery and millinery:				
To foreign countries .....	1,600,000	900,000		56.1
To British possessions .....	2,100,000	2,900,000	34.5	
Total of articles of personal use and attire:				
To foreign countries .....	3,500,000	2,300,000		33.3
To British possessions .....	6,100,000	8,500,000	40.8	
Beer and ale:				
To foreign countries .....	600,000	400,000		27.5
To British possessions .....	1,300,000	1,500,000	14.9	
Hardware and cutlery:				
To foreign countries .....	2,600,000	2,100,000		19.6
To British possessions .....	1,000,000	1,400,000	38.6	
Total of articles of domestic consumption:				
To foreign countries .....	5,300,000	4,500,000		15.4
To British possessions .....	6,000,000	8,300,000	38.7	
Total articles of personal use and attire and of domestic consumption:				
Total exports .....	20,800,000	23,600,000	13.5	
To foreign countries .....	8,800,000	6,800,000		22.4
To British possessions .....	12,000,000	16,800,000	40	

EXPORTS TO THE COLONIES INCREASE WHILE THOSE TO OTHER COUNTRIES DECREASE.

It will be noticed throughout that the exports to foreign countries are marked by a striking decrease while the exports to the colonies exhibit an even more striking increase, amounting on the average to about 40 per cent—an increase which far more than outweighs the decrease in the foreign demand. The proportion of these articles exported to the British possessions is now so great that in 1876, out of a total export of £23,600,000, they took as much as £16,800,000, or about 70 per cent of the whole exports of this class, whereas their share in 1869 amounted to only 58 per cent, thus showing the growing dependence of that portion of British trade upon colonial demand.

THE COTTON GOODS TRADE FLOURISHES IN THE COLONIES, BUT LANGUISHES ELSEWHERE.

There are likewise several other trades, some of them the leading export trades of England, which in the same way become every year more dependent upon the demand from the British Empire itself. Foremost amongst them is the cotton trade, which alone constitutes about one-third of the whole of the English exports. The comparative growth of the Indian and colonial demand for cotton manufactures since 1869 is shown below.

	1869	1876	Compara- tive in- crease.	Compara- tive de- crease.
Plain cotton piece goods:	£	£	Per cent.	Per cent.
Total export .....	30,100,000	31,500,000	4.6	
To foreign countries .....	18,700,000	16,100,000		14.6
To British possessions .....	11,400,000	15,400,000	35.8	
Total cotton manufactures exclusive of yarn:				
Total export .....	53,300,000	54,900,000	3.6	
To foreign countries .....	37,400,000	32,900,000		11.9
To British possessions .....	15,900,000	22,000,000	40.3	

The general result is the same as in the class of articles already examined—that is, a decrease of foreign demand, and an even more rapid growth of the demand from the British possessions, which in the year 1876 absorbed 40 per cent more cotton manufactures than in 1869. As regards the trade in plain cotton piece goods, the quantity exported to the British possessions in 1876 amounted to very nearly one-half of the entire exports, or to £15,400,000 out of a total of £31,500,000, a result which must be attributed to the great expansion of the Indian trade. As regards the whole of the cotton manufactures, the quantity exported to the British possessions in 1876 amounted to about two-fifths of the entire export, or £22,000,000 out of a total of £54,900,000, being about £6,300,000 more than in the year 1869; whereas the export of cotton manufactures to foreign countries diminished during the same period by about £4,500,000. Thus the growth of the Indian and colonial demand for cotton manufactures and the corresponding decline of the foreign demand show about the same ratio as that already observed in the case of articles of personal use and of domestic consumption.

These results are well calculated to excite apprehension regarding the future of our trade with foreign countries. It must be remembered that the year 1869 was specially selected as being a comparatively normal year, and one in which the foreign demand was very much smaller than in the years subsequent to the Franco-German war, and yet the year 1876 shows a further reduction even upon such a comparatively unfavorable year as 1869. Had the figures for 1876 been compared with those of any of the immediately preceding years the diminution of the foreign demand would have appeared still more alarming.

Similar observations apply to most of the other trades, the present foreign demand as compared with that of 1869 being either stationary or declining, while the exports to the British possessions are rapidly rising. Thus as regards the silk manufactures, while the quantity exported to foreign countries has only slightly increased, the export to British possessions has increased more than fourfold, having risen from £180,000 to £818,000. In general it is safe to assume that of those articles exported in an advanced stage of preparation a considerable and rapidly increasing proportion go to the British possessions, while those articles which have still to undergo some manufacturing process to fit them for immediate use are mainly exported to foreign countries.

It is interesting to notice how uniformly this remark applies to every class of British exports, as will appear from the following numbers:

INDUSTRIES.	EXPORTS IN 1876 TO—		Proportion exported to British possessions.
	Foreign countries.	British possessions.	
Cotton industry:	£	£	Per cent.
Yarn.....	9,900,000	2,900,000	21.9
Manufactures.....	32,900,000	22,000,000	40
Woolen industry:			
Yarn (woolen, worsted and alpaca).....	5,100,000	14,000	.3
Manufactures.....	14,200,000	4,400,000	23.4
Iron industry:			
Pig, puddled, and old iron.....	2,800,000	100,000	3.6
Manufactured iron of all kinds.....	9,600,000	6,500,000	40.4
Steel industry:			
Steel, wrought and unwrought.....	1,300,000	300,000	17.7
Hardware and cutlery.....	2,100,000	1,400,000	40.6
Tools and implements.....	200,000	200,000	53.2
Total of the above:			
Half manufactures.....	19,100,000	3,300,000	14.7
Finished manufactures.....	59,000,000	34,500,000	36.8

Thus the colonies take 40 per cent of the finished cotton manufactures and only 21.9 per cent of the cotton yarn exported; they take 23.4 per cent of all the woolen and worsted manufactures and only 0.3 per cent of the yarn; they take 40.4 per cent of manufactured iron and only 3.6 per cent of pig, puddled, and old iron; and, finally, while of steel—wrought and unwrought—they take only 17.7 per cent, their share of hardware and cutlery amounts to 40.6 per cent and of implements and tools to 53.2 per cent. For the whole of the above industries, which together form the mainstay of our export trade, the proportion of unfinished manufactures exported to the British possessions amounted to only 14.7 per cent, while of finished manufactures the proportion rose to 36.8 per cent of the value exported to all countries.

#### BRITISH EXPORTS TO COLONIES INCREASE WHILE THOSE TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES DECREASE.

The export trade to the British possessions is thus distinguished from that to foreign countries by two marked characteristics. The first is the steadiness and rapidity of its growth as compared with the violent fluctuations to which the foreign demand is liable; the second is the preponderance in the exports of finished manufactures over those in various stages of preparation, or what may be termed half manufactures. Both these characteristics tend very much to our advantage. On the one hand, the comparative steadiness of the colonial and Indian markets render trade with them less subject to sudden losses, while the permanent expansion of these markets has mitigated, and to a considerable extent neutralized, the disastrous effects produced by the rapid withdrawal during the last four years of a considerable portion of the foreign demand. On the other hand, the preponderance of finished goods among the exports to the colonies and India means that they represent a larger amount of British labor than is represented by an equal value of exports to foreign countries. It may be reasonably inferred, therefore, that the British possessions, which consume British goods to the extent of almost one-third of our total exports, give employment to considerably more than one-third of the working population employed by our export trade.

#### WHY THE COLONIAL TRADE IS MORE REGULAR AND PERMANENT THAN FOREIGN TRADE.

These two characteristics of our colonial trade are in reality due to one and the same primary cause. It is that in the case of our own possessions the consumers of our manufactures constitute the bulk of the populations; hence the demand is subject only to those fluctuations produced by the comparatively slow and more or less regular changes in their numbers and wealth.

But in the case of many foreign countries our manufactures are merely subsidiary to a large local supply. To a considerable extent, also, our exports to foreign countries do not go directly to the consumer, but are imported by the foreign manufacturers themselves as a kind of raw material, entering into their own manufactures. The foreign demand for English manufactures has therefore in the case of many countries, no necessary relation with either the numbers of the population or their total consuming power for a given article, and is liable to be disproportionately affected by even slight fluctuations in the aggregate consumption. Hence such variations as those which have taken place in the exports to the United States, which from £40,700,000 in 1872 fell to £16,800,000 in 1876, or as those presented by the exports to Germany, which between the same years declined from £31,600,000 to £20,100,000.

#### CONCLUSION.

On the whole it might be held that, in consequence of its dependence upon the regularly increasing consuming powers of the vast bulk of the population, the export trade to our possessions partakes largely of the character of our own internal trade, and the additional markets obtained for our manufactures may in every way be considered as being simply extensions of our home market. This is especially the case as regards those colonies which are really peopled by English settlers, such as Canada, the Cape, and Australia.

## THE MALAYAN PENINSULA.

#### THE METHODS OF GOVERNMENT AND DEVELOPMENT DESCRIBED BY AN OFFICER OF THAT GOVERNMENT.

[Paper read by Hon. F. A. Swettenham, British resident in the Federated Malay States, before the Royal Colonial Institute, London, March 31, 1896.]

I had meant to call my paper "The British Government of Native Races," but I felt that the subject was too wide and too open to controversy to be dealt with in the time allotted to a lecture of this kind. I therefore ask you to bear with me while I give to your consideration an account of "British Rule in Malaya," as illustrating a particular and somewhat peculiar instance of the British government of native races, a subject which is certainly not without interest however I may fail to do justice to its attractions.

I say the case is special, because the Malay is imbued with peculiar characteristics which make him unusually difficult to deal with, and as I am now speaking of the beginning of our close intimacy with Malay affairs, and that took place in the year 1874, I had better use the past tense, though I do not mean by that to infer that everything that was then is altered now. It is almost inconceivable that up to January, 1874, so little was known of the Malay or his home, but it is no exaggeration to say that at that time there were not in the Straits Settlements half a dozen Europeans who could have correctly stated the names of the Malay States or the titles by which their rulers were known. The Straits Settlements, as you know, is an exceedingly ill-named Crown colony, embracing the small island of Singapore at the Southern extremity of the Malay Peninsula; the smaller island of Penang, 360 miles farther north, with two strips of

the peninsula called respectively Province Wellesley and the Dindings, and yet another strip of the mainland called Malacca, lying between Singapore and Penang. The country from which Singapore is divided by a narrow but deep channel is Johor, and between Johor and Province Wellesley lie all the States over which we have established our influence since 1874. They are, going northwards from Johor, the Negri Sembilan or Nine States, at the back of Malacca, and Pahang to the east and north of them; then Selangor, and, lastly, Perak, the northern district of which marches with Province Wellesley. It is convenient here to state that on the east coast there are two independent Malay States, Trengganu and Kelantan, north of Pahang. There are also a number of small States (formerly called Patani), under Siamese influence, to the north and west of Kelantan, and there is the State of Kedah (now also under Siamese control) to the north of Province Wellesley. It was from the Raja of Kedah that the East India Company purchased the island of Penang and the strip of mainland called Province Wellesley in 1786, and one of the conditions of that purchase was that the ruler of Kedah should be protected against his enemies. The honorable company, however, failed to observe that condition of the bargain, and the Siamese shortly afterwards attacked and conquered Kedah, driving the sultan to an asylum in the company's territory.

#### LACK OF DEVELOPMENT AND INTELLIGENCE UNDER FORMER CONDITIONS.

These are dull particulars, but they are necessary to convey some vague idea of the geographical position of the remote countries in whose later history I wish to interest you, and also to make it clear that if "the Straits Settlements"—which, in truth, suggests nothing at all—is but an empty sound to those who live 8,000 miles away, it is certainly curious that while the colony in part was actually on the Malay Peninsula its inhabitants, with few exceptions, knew almost as little of the rest of the land as they might be expected to know of Patagonia.

As to the state of ignorance regarding the Malay Peninsula and its inhabitants in 1874, I can speak from personal knowledge, without fear of contradiction, and, so far as I have been able to ascertain, our predecessors were not much better informed than we were, and no one who has left any written record of his experience knew any more of the interior than could be learned by the briefest and most cursory visit to some place of comparatively easy access. I may, however, dismiss the subject with the statement that my friend, Mr. Clifford, the newly appointed resident of Pahang, was, so far as we know, the first white man who ever got any distance into Trengganu and Kelantan. His journey was made last year, and he went not alone, but as the leader of a considerable armed expedition.

#### KNOWLEDGE OF THE PEOPLE NECESSARY.

So much for the country and our knowledge of it. As no one could guide us to the place, it will be understood that we were hopelessly ignorant of the people. I am not going to draw the Malay for you—I have done that elsewhere—but I question whether there was in 1874 an Eastern race more difficult for an Englishman to approach, to understand, or to appreciate. The native of the Golden Chersonese has been well styled "the mysterious Malay." When we first attempted to help him and teach him how to help himself, he was an unread book to us, a book written in a language we did not understand, a book of which we had scarcely seen the cover. Beyond this the Malay did not want us. His jungles and rivers were all sufficing; his traditions told him nothing of the white man, except that a few had come to trade with him in the past centuries, but they had either left of their own accord or he had got rid of them by his own peculiar methods, and no real punishment had overtaken the murderers of an isolated garrison or the pirates of a lonely sailing ship. The up-country Malay used to be so little of a traveler that, in the days I speak of, few of those who lived 50 miles from the sea had ever seen it, and this, added to the fact that no stranger ever trusted himself into the fastness of the peninsula, will explain the extraordinary ignorance of the people as to all matters beyond the narrow confines, not only of their own States, but of their own villages. When I first went into the Malay States the Malays of Perak laughed at the idea of a British soldier or sailor ever making his way through their roadless forests, and there is no doubt they believed that if they could get rid of Mr. J. W. Birch and me, the only two white men they knew, no others would ever come to seek satisfaction of them.

In order to appreciate the people, to secure their trust and sympathy, it was necessary to get to them, to speak to them, to understand them, to conciliate them. It was an undertaking for which we were not then qualified, and I have insisted upon the premises because I wish you to understand the real nature of the task we undertook in trying to make ourselves, our methods of government, our ways of life and of looking at things, acceptable to the mysterious, the dignified, the suspicious, the high-spirited Malay. Add to what I have already said that the foreigner, the interloper, the introducer of new and distasteful ideas was at least a professing Christian, while the Malay was something more than a professing Mohammedan, and you have the outlines of the terms on which we entered, with characteristic lightheartedness, into a position that has, I believe, no exact parallel in English administrative experiments.

With such antagonistic elements it is hardly surprising that the first development should have been the assassination of the officer who represented the uprooting of old Malay life and the passage of power from hereditary Mohammedan chiefs to the dictate of an unknown but infidel stranger. It is true the solitary white man had foreseen this contingency and had told the people to whom he was sent that behind him was a power that, having once set its hand to the plow, never looked back; but it was natural that the Malays, circumstanced as I have described them, should smile at this statement and prefer to believe that the white man was seeking his own profit and aggrandizement and had nothing to support him beyond what they could see.

#### A BRIEF ACCOUNT OF BRITISH INTERFERENCE IN MALAYA.

It will be asked how and why we were in the Peninsula at all, at least in that part of it beyond the confines of the colony. If I try to answer this question with the brevity necessary to the time at my disposal, you will understand that a real explanation of the causes which led up to our interference in the Malay States in 1874 can not be given in such narrow limits.

The highest British authority in the Straits of Malacca is the governor of the colony I have already named. The settlements contained in it formed an Indian presidency, first under the old company and then under the Indian government, until, in 1867, they were converted into a Crown colony by desire of the European inhabitants. Outside their proper jurisdiction the Indian and colonial governors of the Straits had always had to deal with what had been to them a serious bugbear, the independent Malay States, of which they knew practically nothing, except that they were the hotbeds of internal feud and external piracy and raid; that they were the cause of constant trouble in themselves and complaint from British subjects; that no satisfaction whatever was to be got out of them under any circumstances; and that the distant authority to which the governor felt he must refer these extraterritorial questions invariably declined to consent to any measures of coercion being taken to bring recalcitrant Malay rajas to reason, or to enforce any orders or advice which the governor might think it necessary or expedient to offer. So much was this the case that British subjects in the Straits were warned that, if they chose to seek adventure or profit in the Malay States, they would do it at their own risk, and it was concluded that if they got into trouble they could get themselves out of it without any hope of assistance from the British Government. In the face of modern views of British expansion all this sounds very long ago and far away, but it was as I have stated until Lieut. Gen. Sir Andrew Clarke became governor of the Straits in 1873. With his coming there was a change of policy, and as, at that moment, the state of the Peninsula was at its very worst, Sir Andrew Clarke took advantage of the position and of his instructions to put an end to a condition of affairs that had become well-nigh intolerable. I will not pretend to describe the circumstances; I have partially done so in another paper; but the most violent struggles were going on in Perak and Selangor, both Malays and Chinese being equally concerned, and both States were being rapidly depopulated. The small States around Malacca (now happily united into one) were each and all in a state of ferment, if not of open fighting, and, worse than all, these quarrels on our borders were spreading to the colony; our police stations were attacked, the Penang house of a rich Perak chief was actually blown up, in the hope of destroying its owner, and every day peaceful British subjects sailing through the Straits of Malacca were murdered and their vessels looted and burned. It is necessary to add that these proceedings continued for months, in spite of the fact that British war vessels were doing all in their power to protect the shipping and secure the pirates. Owing to the nature of the coast, a complete network of creeks known only to

the pirates and guarded by an immense mud bank, the efforts of our navy were without result, and matters culminated in an attack by the pirates on boats manned by British crews, when two naval officers were seriously wounded.

That seemed to be provocation enough, and the Government of the day must, I think, have determined that something ought to be done; what that something should be, Sir Andrew Clarke, with characteristic promptitude, very soon decided. A Pérak raja had written to the governor explaining that he, the rightful heir to the position of sultan, had been supplanted. The raja asked for the governor's assistance to secure his birthright, and also requested that a British officer might be sent to him to teach the art of administration, offering at the same time to provide him with a suitable residence and to defray the cost of his salary and all other expenses out of the revenues of the country. I believe that this was the first suggestion of the residential idea, and, if I am right, it is both curious and interesting that it should have originated, even in its crudest form, in the Malay States. An experienced officer was sent to Pérak to make inquiries, and his report was to the effect that this raja's claims were good, but that, for various reasons, mainly traceable to his own neglect of established customs, he had been passed over in favor of a man who did not, on his father's side, belong to the ruling family of Pérak. That was for the Malay question interesting enough in its way, but it was like others that had preceded it in other States without leading to any interference on our part. At this time there were many thousands of Chinese mining in Pérak, and the war of Chinese factions, already answerable for such incidents as the slaughter of 3,000 people in one day, a naval engagement which would make a story of its own, the violent antagonism of Chinese secret societies in the neighboring colony, and the daily acts of piracy in the Straits of Malacca, were, however, new factors in Malay politics, and they seriously threatened, if they had not already disturbed, the peace of the British settlements. Governor Sir Andrew Clarke's instructions were to inquire into and report upon Malay affairs, specially the advisability of appointing a British officer to reside in Malay, but he saw that this was an emergency where half measures were useless, and, having first secured the acceptance by the Chinese of his arbitration in their quarrel, he summoned the Pérak chiefs to a meeting and made with them the treaty of January 20, 1874, by which Raja Abdullah was acknowledged to be Sultan of Pérak, and provision was made for the appointment of a British officer, to be styled British resident, whose advice was to be asked and acted upon in all matters other than those affecting the Mohammedan religion or Malay custom. This officer was also, by the treaty, intrusted with the collection and expenditure of all the revenues of the State.

I leave you to imagine the difficulties and dangers of that officer's position. The first man who undertook it, or rather the first who actually held the substantive appointment and attempted to discharge its duties, was Mr. J. W. W. Birch, the colonial secretary of the Straits Settlements. His abilities were great, his energy extraordinary, but he did not speak Malay or understand the people with whom he had to deal. He was murdered in November, 1875—murdered to satisfy the hatred of foreign interference, the intolerance of the white man's control—and it is extremely likely that at that time a better knowledge of things Malayan would not have saved the British representative. His death was very amply avenged; none of his actual murderers escaped, and many of those who had openly or surreptitiously consented to the crime also paid the penalty of their participation in it. More than this, the country was occupied by British troops for months, and the Malays, to their intense surprise, saw both the British soldier and bluejacket in inland strongholds where no white face had ever before been seen, save perhaps that of the man whose death they had come to avenge.

This expedition, and the cause of it, were not incidents of Sir Andrew Clarke's government; he had already left the Straits, and it was only at the moment of his departure that the small cloud of possible trouble first appeared on the horizon. The Pérak difficulty seemed to be solved, and Sir Andrew had at once taken up the cases of Selangor and Sungei Ujong, placing British residents in both of them, and in the latter having to deal with the armed resistance of a dissatisfied chief, who, after defeat, fled the State, and eventually took up his residence in Singapore.

Sungei Ujong and the Negri Sembilan subsequently were the scenes of considerable fighting, and both of them experienced the benefits of occupation by a British military expedition. I say benefits advisedly. I do not mean that a military expedition is all benefit to those against whom it is sent—far from it; but I mean that in the Malay of those days no amount of good advice, no sacrifice of individual lives, no missionary effort even, could have done so much for the Malays, or, to speak candidly, for us, as this show of force. The actual amount of damage done in killing, wounding, or looting was very small indeed; everyone was treated as a friend who did not conclusively prove himself to be an enemy, and the people had very little feeling in the matter; but the chiefs, who alone had anything to lose by our advent, realized at last that the British power really existed, and could make itself felt in a way that was as novel to them as it was disagreeable.

You are now in possession of the facts which led to the acceptance of a Malay invitation to send a British officer to teach British methods of administration; you understand how that idea was extended to all the States from Penang to Malacca, and you will realize that, having set the western side of the Malay house in order, it followed, as surely as day follows night, that we should be compelled to deal similarly with the east coast, and Pahang, the southernmost of those eastern States, has already passed under our protection, and, if it has given trouble, we may fairly hope that its future will be no less prosperous than that of its western neighbors.

#### BRITISH TREATMENT OF MALAYS AND NATIVES GENERALLY AS COMPARED WITH THE METHODS EMPLOYED BY SOME OTHER NATIONS.

I now come to that part of my subject which is perhaps of the greatest interest. It is this: Having been given what, if you like, we will call an opportunity—not perhaps a very attractive one—how did we deal with it? How did we treat the people who invited us to send them a teacher, and then, having obtained the real end they sought, murdered their guest?

You may fairly say that my words convey a suggestion which is incorrect. It was not the Malay people who asked for the British official; it was a disappointed Malay raja who, desiring British recognition of a coveted position, offered the invitation as a means to that end. He obtained the end he sought, and he was properly held responsible for what happened to the guest intrusted to his care.

In all the States there were three classes of natives to be dealt with—first, Malay chiefs, the hitherto rulers of the country; second, the Malay people; third, the Chinese. The lines on which we have treated all classes are the same; we have endeavored to administer the same justice, to show the same impartiality to all. Indeed, we have revolutionized the social life of the people, and if I can convey to you the vaguest idea of the actual conditions of Malay society when first a solitary British officer took up his residence in each of these States, you will be able to appreciate the value of what has been done.

First, remember that I am speaking of the East, and of a corner of it so remote that the rest of the East was hardly aware of its existence. As to what went on therein no outsider knew or cared. In each State the ruler, whether he were sultan, raja, or chief of lower rank, was supreme and absolute. His word was law, and oppression and cruelty were the result. Under the ruler were a number of chiefs, usually hereditary, who took their cue from their master, and often out-Heroded Herod in the gratification of their vengeance or the pursuit of their peculiar amusements. The people counted for nothing, except as the means of supplying their chiefs with the material for indulging their vicious tendencies. They occupied land, but they did not own it; they worked by command, and without payment; they were liable to be deprived of anything they possessed that was worth the taking, or to be taxed to meet the necessities of the ruler or the local chieftain; their wives and daughters were often requisitioned by members of the ruling class, and when they ceased to any longer attract their abductors, these women, often accompanied by other members of their families, went to swell the ranks of the wretched "debt slaves," a position from which they probably never escaped, but while they filled it were required to perform all menial duties, and were passed from hand to hand in exchange for the amount of the so-called debt, exactly like any other marketable commodity. The murder of a "raiya" was a matter of easy settlement, if it ever caused inquiry, and for the man who felt himself oppressed beyond endurance there was left that supreme cry of the hopeless injured, which seems with the Malay to take the place of suicide—I mean the blind desire to kill and be killed, which is known as "mēng-āmok." That was how the Malays were treated in their own country, and you will readily understand that the Chinaman was regarded as fair game, even by the Malay "raiya," who, if he met a Chinaman on a lonely road (and nothing but jungle tracks existed), would stab him for a few dollars, and rest assured that no one would ever trouble to ask how it happened.

I have not exhausted the catalogue of horrors. I have only generally indicated some of them; they still exist upon our borders in the States of Trengganu and Kelantan, where as yet Malay methods of government prevail; but I have told you enough, and it is surely something to be able to say that in every State where there is a British resident slavery of all kinds has been absolutely abolished; forced



labor is only a memory; courts of law, presided over by trustworthy magistrates, mete out what we understand as justice to all classes and nationalities without respect of persons, and the lives and property of people in the protected Malay States are now as safe as in any part of Her Majesty's dominions.

It is a detail that the first residents had no residences. Mr. Birch never had one in Pérak; he lived in a boat, and it was years before anything like a comfortable house was built in any of the States to which British residents were accredited. The climate is trying, and I mention this fact because a good house means all the difference between comparative comfort and certain misery. Once arrived at his post, the resident had to evolve the rest out of his inner consciousness. No one knew what he was to do; there was no precedent for anything, no scheme and nothing to guide residents in those early days beyond a general instruction that they went to the Peninsula, not as rulers, but as advisers; that they were not to interfere in the minor details of government more than was absolutely necessary, and that if they ignored these instructions, and trouble sprang out of their neglect of them, they would assuredly be held responsible. At the same time there was the Pérak treaty, by which the British resident was to collect and expend all the revenues of the State, and his advice was to be asked and acted upon. The caution to refrain from control or interference in details was, moreover, rendered absolutely meaningless by the orders constantly issued in Singapore which concerned every detail of administration. I must not, however, omit to mention that in enjoining upon residents the purely advisory nature of their duties, the secretary of state said he recognized the very delicate nature of their position. You will not forget that at first the resident carried about in his own person the only means he possessed of enforcing his advice.

From the first the resident found that the Malay lower classes were on his side, though they were not always able to openly show it; while the Chinese and all other foreigners were of course delighted with the advent of one whom they looked upon as a protector. The great difficulty was to establish really friendly relations with the ruler, and to either conciliate or overawe the chiefs, many of whom were powerful enough to at least covertly disregard the orders of the ruler. The task was a sufficiently difficult one, as those who were then residents know; but it was accomplished by treating generously the chiefs who had undoubted claims to a share in the revenues; by constantly seeking the society of the malcontents and talking to them in their own language, patiently explaining the objects of every proposed innovation; by putting the men of most consideration on State councils; and, in a few cases, by assuming a determined attitude, and, where necessary, outswagging the greatest swaggerer of them all.

With the ruler, when once freed from the influence of his old advisers, the most successful course was to seek his friendship, to join with him in all his amusements, to go on expeditions with him, to make his acquaintance, and, if possible, earn the confidence of the members of his family, and to persuade him that the interests of his country were your chief care, and that no step of any importance would be taken without first consulting him.

A thorough experience of Malays will not qualify an official to deal with Chinese—a separate education is necessary for that, but it is a lesson more easy to learn. It is almost hopeless to expect to make friends with a Chinaman, and it is, for a Government officer, an object that is not very desirable to attain. The Chinese, at least that class of them met with in Malay, do not understand being treated as equals; they only realize two positions—the giving and the receiving of orders; they are the easiest people to govern in the East for a man of determination, but they must know their master as he must know them. The Chinese admire and respect determination of character in their rulers, and hold that it is a characteristic as necessary as the sense of justice. The man who possesses the judicial mind, but is too weak to enforce his own judgment, will never be successful in dealing with the Chinese.

It is by the employment of such means as I have described that we have obtained our influence in the Malay States, and as British methods in the treatment of native races have been unfavorably compared with those employed by other nationalities or self-governing colonies, I think both the means used and the results obtained by British officers in the Malay Peninsula (and again I must ask you not to forget the difficulties of this case) will favorably compare with, let us say, American methods toward the Red Indians, Australian policy toward the aborigines, the methods of Germany in Africa, or of Spain in South America and Cuba—even with the policy adopted by our experienced neighbors, the Dutch, in Netherlands India. You will not want me to describe to you how our uncontrolled countrymen or these foreign nations have dealt with the question of their subject races; but in America and Australia the original inhabitants are being improved out of existence, while charges, many of which we need not believe, though some could probably be established, are brought against the treatment of their native subjects by German, Spanish, and Dutch officials. They are no doubt quite able to defend themselves and prove to their own satisfaction that their methods are the best; but when comparisons are sought it may at least be stated generally that English governments, in assuming to advise or control native races, aim at securing on the one hand freedom of religion and of trade for all nationalities, and on the other, the expenditure in the country of the whole of the revenues raised there. It is unlikely that anyone has suggested that France has obtained any contribution from her colonies. On the contrary, they have, at least in modern times, been a heavy expense to the mother country, but both Spain and Holland have taxed their colonies for contributions to the parent exchequers.

There are of course many other sources of interesting comparison between British methods of governing native races and those employed by our neighbors, or even by our own countrymen when no longer subject to English control; and specially there is the practice of compelling natives to cultivate certain products and to sell the whole of the crop to the government at fixed rates. The question is, however, too wide for more than the briefest reference here, and I am confident that the lines on which we have not only "advised," but controlled the later destinies of the Malay will bear comparison with the methods employed by any of our neighbors.

#### THE RESULTS OF BRITISH POLICY IN MALAY AND THE PRESENT CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE.

When British officers first entered the Malay States as advisers they found that a very small revenue was raised in each by the taxation of every single article that entered or left the country. As a rule the tax was proportionately higher on the necessities of life than on luxuries. In a few years our influence abolished the duty on every article of import except opium and spirits, while the export duty on tin, the principal product, was much reduced, and on many of the less important exports it was altogether removed. This policy, with the appointment of British officials to all important Government posts, the organization of police forces, and above all the putting of everyone who applied for land in possession of what was meant to be an indefeasible title, gave so much confidence that immigrants from the unprotected Malay States, from the Dutch possessions, from China, and from India poured into the peninsula, and the revenues increased by such marvelous strides that I will venture to give you a few figures to illustrate the actual results of our policy in Malay.

The first year of which it is possible to give any statistics is 1875, and the revenues of the various States then and at intervals of five years since are as follows:

#### REVENUE.

STATES.	1875	1880	1885	1890	1894
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Pérak .....	226,233	582,496	1,522,065	2,604,116	3,542,114
Selangor .....	115,651	215,614	566,411	1,888,928	3,334,468
Sungei Ujong .....	67,405	83,800	120,214	277,910	397,130
Negri Sembilan .....				107,033	137,876
Pahang .....				62,077	100,220
Total .....	409,289	881,910	2,208,710	4,840,064	7,511,808

I give the expenditure during the same period, because it shows that all the revenues were spent in the States; and when, as was the case everywhere at first, and is still true in Pahang, the revenues were not sufficient to meet the expenditure, the difference was covered by loans from the colony or the wealthier States:

## EXPENDITURE.

STATES.	1875	1880	1885	1890	1894
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>
Pèrak .....	256,831	521,995	1,316,625	2,447,929	3,587,224
Selangor .....	111,306	202,806	826,526	1,996,544	2,817,292
Sungei Ujong .....	68,736	70,143	118,804	261,647	364,082
Negri Sembilan .....				115,589	144,678
Pahang .....				297,702	249,120
Total .....	436,872	794,944	2,261,955	5,119,411	7,162,396

## METHODS OF RAISING REVENUE.

[Mr. Swettenham's description of the methods by which revenue is raised in the Malayan Peninsula will be found under the general discussion of methods of raising revenues in colonies, on another page of this volume.]

## NATIVE TROOPS IN THE COLONY.

Under British advice and control a regiment of highly trained and disciplined Indian troops has been raised, and these men have on several occasions been called out on active service, and have undoubtedly saved the employment of British troops. We have organized police forces, constructed admirable model prisons, hospitals in every center of population, and public buildings to meet all requirements. We have built light-houses and waterworks, but our principal and I think our best efforts have been directed toward the construction of roads and railways and the erection of telegraphs. British advice has prevailed for twenty years in the peninsula; but for a long time we had no funds for the construction of costly works, and yet we can point to nearly 200 miles of railways, 2,000 miles of roads, and over 1,000 miles of telegraph lines, built in a country that not only contained none of these things, but which was covered almost entirely by thick jungle. It is worthy of mention that our railways have been called "works of art," and yet they give higher returns on the capital expended than, I believe, any railways in the world, and our roads are admittedly excellent. We have organized a civil service to whom the main credit belongs for working out the existing results of British influence. The members of this service have shown a zeal and devotion beyond all praise, and I almost regret to say that we have carried on the administration with such economy that it has cost one-third or one-fourth the amount paid in British India for similar services under perhaps less trying conditions. Finally, the trade of the protected States is worth nearly \$60,000,000 annually, and the figures represent real consumption and production. We have not altogether neglected scientific matters, and in Pèrak, where there is an admirable museum, the government has spent a quarter of a million dollars on making a trigonometrical survey of the State. Of the other institutions that most nearly concern the public your chairman can, I think, bear out the statement that the hospitals are very ably managed institutions, under the personal supervision of English surgeons; that the prisons are built and conducted on the most approved principles; and though we have not done all for education that was possible, still we have done a good deal, and the question of education in the East is one that I feel possesses great difficulties. Nothing but good can, I think, come of teaching in the native languages what we call the three R's; and of greater value still are the habits of orderliness and punctuality, and the duties inculcated by teachers in the hope of making good citizens of their pupils. We have schools for girls as well as boys, and that, I think, is cause for congratulation in a Mohammedan country, where it will be understood that the only religious instruction is that of the Koran, at special hours, and usually by a special Koran teacher. I do not think that we should aim at giving the Malays the sort of higher education that is offered by the government of India to its native subjects, but I would prefer to see the establishment of classes where useful trades would be taught. It is unfortunate that when an Eastern has been taught to read and write English very indifferently he seems to think that from that moment the government is responsible for his future employment, and in consequence the market for this kind of labor is overstocked, while many honorable and profitable trades find difficulty in obtaining workmen, because of the prejudice against anything like manual labor.

## NATIVE CUSTOMS RESPECTED.

A native of the East is curiously prone to imitate the Western, but his imitation is nearly always only partial—hardly ever goes to the root of things, and fails by the omission of some important particular. He clothes himself in items of the European dress, he learns scraps of the language, essays British sports, without sufficient energy or determination to thoroughly succeed, and he will even, with what seems praiseworthy enterprise, take up the planting of some new product in imitation of a European neighbor, often, I regret to say, wasting thereby a capital that would have been better employed in some other form of planting or business which he really understood. Just as I think the Eastern is never so well or becomingly dressed as in his national costume, so I think it should be our object to maintain or revive his interest in the best of his traditions, rather than encourage him to assume habits of life that are not really suited to his character, constitution, climate, or the circumstances in which he lives; which are, in fact, unnatural to him, and will lead him to trouble and disappointment, if not to absolute disaster.

## THE GREATEST ACHIEVEMENT IS IMPROVED CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE.

The greatest achievement of British influence in Malay is the enormous improvement in the condition of the Malays themselves. They are freer, healthier, wealthier, more independent, more enlightened, happier by far than when we went to them. I think this is a fact on which every officer in the service of the various Malay governments may be sincerely congratulated, and many of those officers are themselves Malays and under our guidance have contributed to this result. I fear it can not be expected that the British Government, still less the British people, should take much interest in such a distant and unknown corner of the world as the Malay Peninsula; but you who have been good enough to come here to-night will be glad to hear this confident statement of mine. I am trying to avoid the mention of individual names—it is so difficult to prevent injustice by omission—but I can not forbear to say that the present happy condition of the Malays in that State where they probably outnumber all the rest of their countrymen under our influence is due mainly to one whose name will never be forgotten in Pèrak, and that is my friend, Sir Hugh Low.

I may tell you two facts that have a special interest as showing what Malays in high places think of British rule. The present Sultan of Pèrak visited England in 1884. When he returned a feast was given to welcome him back, and the banquet was attended by all the principal Malay chiefs in the country. I was present, acting for the resident, absent on leave, and it was rather surprising to hear Raja Dris (for he was not then the Sultan), in a fluent and admirably expressed after-dinner speech, in his own language, state that for ten years they had watched British methods with misgiving and apprehension, but now, on behalf of the regent, of himself, and of the Pèrak chiefs, he wished to say that there was no longer any hesitation in their minds, for they recognized the value of what had been done for them, and they would not accept a return to Malay rule.

The other incident occurred in Pahang a few weeks ago. You know we had trouble in Pahang, and at one period of it the governor of the Straits Settlements thought it well that the Sultan of Pahang should visit Singapore. Our connection with Pahang is comparatively recent, and it appears that the Sultan felt then such little confidence in our good faith that he vowed that if he ever returned to Pahang

he would give his weight in silver to the poor. The other night his highness fulfilled the promise, and after a great feast he duly took his seat on one scale, while silver dollars to the number of 2,362 were piled on the other, and the balance being thus exactly adjusted the money was at once handed over for distribution to the poor.

#### LIBERALITY IS THE KEYNOTE OF SUCCESS.

I have tried to give you some idea of the sort of place Malay was in 1874; I have mentioned some of the work done under British influence since, and I have imperfectly sketched the present position, both as regards the country and the people. I am no prophet, but I see no reason why the prospects of the future should not be measured by the experience of the past. The keynote of that success is liberality, especially in the treatment of Malays, the owners of the land; in encouragement to all those willing to risk their capital and health in a new country, and in the construction of useful public works, which so far have always returned, directly or indirectly, the money spent on them.

#### THE LABOR QUESTION.

Our main aim now should be the encouragement of planting, because I take it that the permanent occupation and cultivation of the soil is a more worthy object than the desolation of the face of the country by surface mining. Planting in Malay has had much to contend against; but the Englishman who goes to the East to plant is usually the "fine fleur" of his kind, and the men who have made Ceylon what it is, who recovered there from the most crushing blow and from the ashes of Arabian coffee have raised a yet more successful product, are not to be denied, and they have proved to demonstration the value of the Malay Peninsula for the growth of Liberian coffee—proved not only that it will grow, but that it will pay, and will last. There may be a fortune in other tropical products, but I will not go into the attractive but doubtful region of possibilities. The facts are that in the Malay States there are millions of acres of unexplored and uninhabited jungle, magnificently timbered and watered, and capable of producing any species of tropical agriculture that flourishes under the equator. This land has facilities of access that, if not unrivaled, are certainly great, and improving every year. The labor question was a difficulty, but a high authority on planting once said to the members of this institute, "As to labor supply, experienced planters of the right sort, if supported by a liberal government, may be trusted to overcome any difficulty in this direction." I will undertake to say that the planters in the Malay Peninsula are of the right sort, and that if they get that liberal support which I believe it is to the interest of the Government to give them, Mr. John Ferguson, who knew the temper of the men he was speaking of, will be found to have gauged them accurately. At present, you understand that we rely almost for existence upon the export of tin. It may last for ages, but it is certain that we have already seen some fields of the mineral worked out. It goes, and as there is nothing behind it we must find something to replace it. We exact a high duty, and that money we invest in railways that give us a good return and open communications that make our waste lands available for agriculture. That seems a good enough reason why we should encourage the "bona fide" planter, but in my opinion it is a far better one that we should try to secure a settled population to till the soil and convert some of our millions of acres of jungle into cultivated fields that will supply their owners with subsistence. Our first duty, I take it, is to attract immigrants, and the best way to keep them is to settle them on the land. When once they are there, not only will they personally contribute to the revenue by paying land rent and other direct and indirect taxes, but the Government can always impose a moderate duty on any produce exported.

The gold-mining industry in Pahang and Perak is now of such importance that, without being oversanguine, one may regard it as giving promise of a good, perhaps of a great, future. Good indications have also been found in the Negri Sembilan, and, considering the nature of the country and the immense difficulties of prospecting, it would be reasonable to suppose that the little we know of gold, in what I hardly need remind you is the golden Chersonese of the ancients, is surely less than remains to be discovered. The Chinese must ever receive the credit for taking full advantage of the facilities we offered them to make tin mining the most important industry in the protected States, but it is a satisfaction to think that what has been done for gold is the work of our own countrymen, for I imagine that the Australians who, with men of this country, have done such excellent service in Pahang and Perak will not object to my counting them as Englishmen.

#### GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AS TO THE SECRET OF SUCCESS, AND THE BEST POLICY IN DEALING WITH NATIVE RACES.

From what I have already said you may have gathered the principles on which we based our treatment of the Malays. If so, I wish to emphasize those principles, and to state in detail the methods which secured us the confidence of the Malays—methods which will serve equally well with any other native race that comes under British influence.

The first requirement is to learn the language of the people to be ruled. I mean to learn to speak it and write it well. And the first use to make of this knowledge is to learn as much as possible about the people, their customs, traditions, character, and idiosyncrasies. An officer who has his heart in his work will certainly gain the sympathies of those over whom he spends his trouble. In the Malay States we have always insisted upon officers passing an examination in Malay, and the standard is a high one.

The main care of those responsible for the administration should be to keep faith in any matters of agreement, and to do everything possible to secure justice for every class and every nationality, without fear or favor. To punish crime and redress wrong is probably the greatest novelty you can offer to an Eastern, and though he has been accustomed to all forms of bribery he very soon understands and appreciates the change of régime, when to offer a bribe is not only an insult, but will almost certainly get the would-be briber into serious trouble.

I take it the leading motive of government in an English dependency is to spend for its advantage all the revenues raised in it, never seeking to make money out of a distant possession, or exact any contribution toward Imperial funds. The Malay States are not, of course, British dependencies, and the rule I speak of has been very carefully observed with them. This policy is one which appeals specially to intelligent natives of the East, and as long as these principles are maintained the spread of English rule can only be for good, and no native race, Eastern or otherwise, will regret the advent of English advice, as in Malaya, or English control, as in India.

That is as to what we should do. It is almost as important to bear in mind what we should not do. We should not interfere overmuch with native customs and prejudices, and we should be specially careful to avoid any attempt to force English views, even when English opinion is practically unanimous on a subject, upon a people living under utterly different conditions, and who, if their voice is hard to hear, may still bitterly resent what they think an intolerable interference.

#### THE NEW DEPARTURE CONSEQUENT ON THE MALAY TREATY OF FEDERATION AND THE ANGLO-FRENCH TREATY CONCERNING SIAM.

For twenty years British residents filled that curious position in the Malay States which I have described to you; but the difficulties became daily greater as the States increased in importance, and I am glad to say that last July, with the sanction of the secretary of state for the colonies, a treaty was concluded between the governor of the Straits Settlements (Sir Charles Mitchell), acting for and on behalf of Her Majesty's Government, and the rulers of all the States under our protection, by which all previous arrangements concerning the appointment of residents were confirmed, and the following new provisions were actually agreed to:

(a) The federation for administrative purposes of the protected Malay States, with an undertaking to mutually assist each other with men or money.

(b) The appointment of a resident-general as the agent and representative of the British Government under the governor of the Straits Settlements.

(c) The raising of a force of Indian soldiers for service in any part of the peninsula, or, if required, in the colony.

This new departure needs no comment; it has the secretary of state's approval. As no step has yet been taken to get the scheme

into working order, it is early to anticipate the results of the change. I would remind you, however, that this is the first time any scheme of administration has ever been framed, for hitherto the residents in each State have worked without reference to their neighbors' action. I trust that in future, at any rate, a nearer approach to uniformity will be secured. The other advantages of union and a sympathetic control of Malay affairs will easily occur to you. The rulers of the four States (for Sungei Ujong and Negri Sembilan are now one) understand very well the objects of this new treaty, its provisions, and the effect likely to be produced in the peninsula; but certainly one of the principal reasons why they so readily subscribed to it is, that while they undertake to give each other financial and other assistance, under advice of the resident-general, they will now at least be consulted in the matter.

This federation has united the interests of all the Malay States, from the confines of Siamese influence in the north to Johor in the south. Less than two months ago Her Majesty's Government concluded an important treaty with France concerning their respective interests on the borders or in the neighborhood of Siamese territories. I wish only to allude to one provision of this treaty, and that is, that the French and English undertake to recognize and practically guarantee the independence of what may be called Central Siam. That is a very useful provision, for it prevents any possibility of continuous boundaries between France and England. To the north of Pahang and east of Perak there are two independent Malay States, Trengganu and Kelantan, where flourish all those abuses and cruelties that have been swept away from the States under our control. I suppose it is absolutely certain that these States will in time come under British influence. Under present conditions they are bad neighbors; they harbor murderers and bad characters of all sorts, and they have already caused the other States a great deal of trouble and expense. To go further than this would be to indulge in speculations that the Siamese might consider hardly friendly. Everyone can best draw his own conclusions after a careful study of the map of the peninsula; but the conditions of life in some of the small States to the north of Kelantan are such that one may well hesitate to say that Siam claims to exert any influence within them.

One thing, however, is certain, that no connection can at present be made between Malayan and Burmese systems of railway and telegraph without going through territory over which Siam claims suzerain rights, though the land is actually part of Malaya. We are already within measurable distance of a through railway from Province Wellesley to Port Dickson, and if Englishmen in the Straits of Malacca had shown anything like the energy exhibited in Africa or Australia a port of such commanding importance as Singapore would have years ago become the terminus of a Malay Peninsula railway that would at least have traversed the whole of the western States. As the eastern States develop under British control an east-coast railway will possibly be the great civilizing influence on that side, and the systems of west and east coast united would naturally, by a short northern extension, join the railway scheme of Burma, where the gauge is the same as ours. By means of a railway service across the peninsula and a line of fast steamers from the east coast through the Torres Straits it is said that the journey from England to Australia can be materially shortened. What is true of railways is equally true of the telegraph, and it might in time of war be of great Imperial importance to have an unbroken land line from India to Singapore.

#### THE BRITISH OFFICIAL AND THE PUBLIC.

So far I have described to you the results of a unique and most interesting experiment, and I have, I hope, proved to you that in the face of special difficulties we have secured the happiness, the prosperity, and the confidence of all classes of natives in the protected Malay States, because we have observed those principles which, I believe, must always bring them an equally good result.

In conclusion, I wish to say one word about the European and the manner in which he should be treated by Government officers, in order that he also may share in the advantages that can be gained by risking his life and fortune in a new country. I have heard Europeans, especially Frenchmen and Germans, say that they would rather live in a British colony than in one governed by officials of their own nationality. They give many reasons for the view they hold, and it is only necessary to mention here one of them: It is the general statement that British officials are more "get-at-able," more practical, more sympathetic, and more businesslike than either French or German colonial officers. In spite of that independent testimony—on the correctness of which I can hardly, with propriety, offer an opinion—I think that the English official has something to learn in his treatment of men of his own color who approach him in his official capacity. In Malaya so much has been done by Orientals that the achievements of the white man look very small indeed. Roughly speaking, the Chinaman has supplied the revenues, and the Government, under the direction of British officers, has laid the money out and made the country what it is. Of private European enterprise, except in planting and a few mines, there has been practically none. I think there would have been more if further encouragement had been offered, but some British officials appear to acquire, in the course of their service, a habit of looking with suspicion on all their own countrymen who have any official dealings with them. It seems remarkable that it should be so, but almost anyone can bear out my statement; and I think everyone who has influence should use it to discourage an attitude which, if assumed by a senior officer, will very soon be imitated by his juniors.

I have never been able to sympathize with this frame of mind myself, because I have, I am glad to say, in a somewhat long experience, never seen anything to justify it. Ten men may ask a Government official for something, undertaking on their part something in return. Nine may fulfill their promises and the tenth may fail. Because of that one failure, or even if the proportion were higher, it is not a sufficient reason for the official to regard all future comers as untrustworthy. I don't think anyone who knows my official life will accuse me of want of sympathy for the native. I have been trying to tell you how absolutely necessary I think it is for the successful government of natives, but those to whom the administration is intrusted must not ignore Europeans. Government officials are there as the temporary stewards of a property—the servants of the public. It should be their object to encourage every legitimate enterprise for the advancement of the country and the profit and prosperity of those who dwell therein. I trust I shall not be understood as advocating extravagance or carelessness for the interests intrusted to us, but between due caution and restrictions which make profitable enterprise almost impossible, there appears to me to lie the whole art of successful government. It would perhaps seem absurd to remind Government officers that they have not inherited their positions, nor do they hold them for their own benefit or for the indulgence of any personal caprice. Beyond the preservation of peace and the protection of life and property, to which I do not refer, the official is there to open the country by great works—roads, railways, telegraphs, wharves. He is there to encourage capital, and to do everything in his power to make the lives of the people of all classes and nationalities safe, pleasant, and profitable. The climate of the Malay Peninsula, especially to those who must go out of their houses and work in it, is not by any means a good one for Europeans. It is hot, damp, and enervating; full of malaria, and those who live there are constantly exposed to all the diseases common to the Tropics. With proper care, of course, most of the risk may be avoided, but careful precaution is a necessity.

Now, with these attractions on the one hand and Africa on the other, is it likely that any rich, able, energetic Englishman will hurry to the Malay Peninsula to invest his capital and devote his energies to a life in that distant and unknown region? If, however, he does go there, if he is willing to take all the risks, what do you suppose it is for? Not, I imagine, in order that he may lose his health and his money in some fruitless attempt to achieve the impossible, nor yet that he may, by toiling for the rest of his life, secure a return of 5 or 6 per cent on his money. He goes to what is called "make his fortune," and I greatly regret that, though every colony in Australia, though South Africa, America, and numbers of other countries, have produced thousands of wealthy men to be the best form of advertisement of the advantages offered, the Malay Peninsula has, hitherto, done little more for European investors than absorb their money. It is a curious fact that, so far as I know, Crown colonies hardly ever produce really rich colonists, while the constitutionally governed colonies can tell them by hundreds and thousands. I believe the reason is that in Crown colonies there is a narrowness and want of liberality in the treatment of bona fide commercial undertakings that makes it impossible to obtain much success, and in consequence the capital, the energy, and the brains go elsewhere.

I have laid stress on this point, because I think that it is one of the most important. There is probably no one so keenly interested in Malaya as I am. My connection with the protected States has never ceased since I went to Perak, in January, 1874. I have watched the conversion of the various States from jungle places into a country that some of us are almost proud of, and I do not wish now to see advancement checked. I hardly think this is a time to be less liberal, for I do not believe that any country can develop into greatness when it has to rely for prosperity on one industry, especially when that industry is practically limited to the praiseworthy efforts of thousands of Chinese to win from the soil alluvial tin by methods which, if they are successful, are certainly primitive.

## THE FIJI ISLANDS.

## DESCRIPTION OF THE METHODS BY WHICH THE PEOPLE ARE GOVERNED AND THE ISLANDS DEVELOPED UNDER BRITISH COLONIAL RULE.

[From paper on the methods of government in the Fiji Islands, presented by Dr. M. I. Finucane, medical officer and provincial inspector, Fiji Islands, before the Royal Colonial Institute, London, November 27, 1900.]

In no other part of our colonial empire will be found such diversified characters of government as are depicted in our possessions in the southern hemisphere. For instance, due west and to the southwest of the group, a distance of 1,900 miles and about seven days' steam from Suva, the capital of Fiji, is the vast continent of Australia, containing the representative governments of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, and Western Australia. To the south of the continent is the island of Tasmania. Almost due south of the group, a distance of 1,200 miles and five days' steam from Suva, is New Zealand, a colony held to be of a more advanced type even than her sister colonies to the westward, the majority of which have agreed to emerge out of their isolated strength and experience to enter a united and powerful commonwealth, as States welded together for mutual peace and prosperity. New Zealand has not yet joined the commonwealth. To the northwest is the vast possession of British New Guinea, managed and financed by three of our Australian colonies—New South Wales, Victoria, and Queensland—and administered on the same principles as a Crown colony, though no doubt beneficially influenced in such government by the advice, assistance, and sympathy of the parent colonies of Australia. \* \* \*

Passing to the eastward of New Guinea, and still lying northwest of the Fiji group, are the long fringe of Southern Solomon Islands, which for the most part are under the protectorate of the British flag and governed by a resident commissioner under the high commissioner, who is also the governor of Fiji. The jurisdiction of the high commissioner extends to certain islands in the New Hebrides, to the southwest of the Fiji group, as also to Tonga or the Friendly Islands in the same direction, over which latter place we seem to have lately strengthened our relations by the dispatch of a mission to the present king.

To the north of the Fijian group, we are in touch with Samoa, of the Navigator Islands, where, although our commercial interests are largely bound up with the prosperity of these islands, we have, out of political exigencies, relaxed our sway. Still farther north are the Tokelau, or Union group, and the Ellice and Gilbert groups—all under a British protectorate. To the southward are the Cook Islands, administered through the government of New Zealand.

## A MODEL GOVERNMENT FOR AN UNDEVELOPED PEOPLE.

It may be said without fear of contradiction that the Crown colony of the Fiji Islands, outside of the above-named self-governing neighboring colonies, is the parent, model, and pioneer of those later and younger civilizations going on with success—in some rapid, in others slower—as shown in New Guinea, the Solomon Islands, the New Hebrides, the Union, and other groups; and therefore it is that a brief consideration of the Fiji Islands, in the past and present, is not inopportune for enabling us to see how far the new imperial expansion in these seas is likely to benefit civilization, and may not indirectly bear on the future policy of the Australian commonwealth in its relation to neighboring groups under the British flag in the near or distant future. The Fiji group of islands, then, numbering between 200 and 250, is situated between latitude 15° and 22° S., and between longitude 177° W. and 175° E., as will be seen by referring to the map. \* \* \*

The population in the group of the various races is as follows: Europeans, 4,000; half-castes, 1,500; Indians, 13,000; Polynesians, 2,074; Fijians, 98,950; Rotumahans, 2,200; others, 1,100. Total population, 122,824. \* \* \*

## INDUSTRIES OF THE COLONY.

The principal industries of the colony are the following: (1) The cultivation and manufacture of raw sugar. (2) The making of copra, the dried nut from the cocoanut palm. (3) The cultivation and export of green fruit. (4) The manufacture of distilled spirit, a by-product from sugar. (5) The export of the peanut, prized for its oil and in the manufacture of confectionery. (6) Pearl shell, turtle shell, and bêche-de-mer. (7) The growth and manufacture of superior classes of tobacco. (8) Rice is also largely cultivated.

Having enumerated the chief industries of the group, which by no means exhausts the list, it is necessary to consider for a few moments some points connected with the chief ones.

The wealth and future prosperity of the colony undoubtedly depend on the output of sugar, and it has been shown that in the Fiji Islands sugar cane is capable of high cultivation and growth in nearly every district with profit to the cultivator in spite of the falling prices in raw sugar. The sugar industry is entirely in the hands of the wealthy Colonial Sugar Refining Company, who possess practically the monopoly for the supply of sugar in the whole of Australasia, and are even now sending Fijian grown sugar into Canada. The system adopted is that of local planters—European, Indian, and Fijian—cultivating areas of cane land and selling the product to the central mills of the company; proper cultivation of the lands is brought about by the terms in the company's contracts with the growers, by which they are paid, not in accordance with the quantity of cane grown and delivered to the mills, but on the percentage of raw sugar obtained by analysis of the cane supplied, with a sliding scale. \* \* \*

In the vicinity of all the mills large areas of native lands are held in common by the various village communities, and the systematic cultivation of this product is insisted upon by government as an important means of inculcating industry among a race naturally lazy, and also as a means of paying the native taxes necessary for their specialized form of government, and increasing their communal and individual wealth.

The regular growing and cultivation of cane by Fijians has until quite recently been neglected, but under the new régime of our present governor greatly increasing areas have been put in and are properly attended to, thereby yielding good profits both to individuals and to the community, and adding many of the comforts necessary to life among this race, the absence of which comforts has influenced in the past their rapid decrease. The methods of cultivation are carried out under skilled advice by the company's servants, and in the case of government cultivation by the native Fijians under skilled agriculturists called native tax inspectors. The land being virgin soil, in most instances yields good natural crops, and the frequent changing where native lands are available prevents the soil from being worn out. \* \* \*

The cocoanut palm and its products is the second most important industry in Fiji; it abounds in all the South Sea islands, and in none more so than in Fiji, and yields a good profit to the grower; the contract price for Government-grown copra—the dried fruit of the cocoanut—was last year £10 15s. a ton; in the windward islands of the group, where there is a large output, the native taxes are almost entirely paid in copra, and the tax refunds after paying the assessment for each town last year resulted in the largest refund from taxes ever known in the colony, with great material advantage to the Fijian. The planting of large areas of waste native lands with the cocoanut palm has been insisted upon by the Government, which will in time mean a considerable amount of wealth to the colony, and in any case supply the gaps necessarily left in this product after each hurricane, to which the group is unfortunately periodically liable. There ought also to be to capitalists and those understanding the business a good trade in coir fiber, manufactured from the dried husks of the cocoanut, at present freely used by the natives for making "sinnet" and other rope which largely enters into their housebuilding. Cocoanut oil is largely made, and is being turned to good account in the manufacture of soap, both in Fiji and the colonies. The output of copra is of course very dependent upon the absence of hurricane seasons. \* \* \*

The cultivation of the banana, which a few years back was on an ever-increasing scale and represented in value a yearly sum of £70,000, came almost to a standstill by reason of banana-leaf disease. Since then fresh areas of new land have been opened out by a large company and other capitalists and the scientific culture and care of the banana taught the native. The Fiji Banana Company at the Nadi and Sigatoka rivers have entered into thousands of contracts with the neighboring native owners of land, by which, at a fixed sum, they grow the fruit and transport it down from the "hinterland" in flat-bottomed punts to the mouths of the Sigatoka and Nadi



rivers to meet the steamers which call regularly every fortnight for them. This state of affairs is extremely advantageous to the native owners, as, being away from sugar-growing districts and the soil in this part of Viti Levu being unsuitable for the growth of the cocoa-nut, poverty and all it brings in its train was largely the cause of the great mortality amongst Fijians in these districts. Already the material wealth derived from the growth and sale of bananas has given to the people better houses, clothes, and food, and must influence their future considerably. \* \* \*

Indian corn is grown in large quantities in Fiji and seems to thrive in any part of the group. It is largely grown by coolies, and is in the inland and mountain towns grown as a tax product.

Coffee grows well in Fiji, both the Liberian and Arabian varieties, and does best in shaded mountainous districts, such as are found in the upper reaches of the Wainibuka in Viti Levu. Wide areas have been put in by the Fijians as an addition in future years for the payment of their taxes and self-betterment.

Vanilla grows well, and has realized good prices in the open market.

Tobacco is very largely grown by the Fijians as a tax product, and under proper and skilled cultivation and curing has found much favor by experienced European smokers. Already there is a company engaged in growing and manufacturing cigars in Viti Levu. Ramie fiber, cocoa, cinchona, tea, and india rubber are all to be found in Fiji.

Tea does exceedingly well, and has a delicious flavor. There were, when I went to the colony, two flourishing estates with a perfect soil and altitude for the growth of this plant. At present the local consumption of the product is entirely drawn from the group, and it is also exported to New Zealand and Australia.

Raw rubber is also found in the islands, and has been collected as a tax product from the Fijian in some of the mountain towns of Viti Levu.

The enumeration of the foregoing products is but a small record of what can be done under the tropical clime and fertile soil of Fiji, but it by no means comprises the full list. No consideration, however, of these would be sufficient without a reference to labor, without which the most fertile soil would never yield its products.

#### THE LABOR QUESTION.

The labor of the colony is derived chiefly from the immigrant Indian and Polynesian races and the local Fijian. The principal labor on the larger estates is, of course, coolie labor, carried on by the Government annual importation and indenture to the various employers who apply for men, to whom they are bound for a period of five years, after which the Indian immigrant has to live a further period of five years in the colony, but is a free agent to reindenture if he likes, or go and work where he pleases. The preliminary cost of introduction of coolie labor to the employer is about £15 per head. This sum covers the cost of passage, of recruiting in India, detention in depot for quarantine and allotment purposes, medical inspection fees, and return passage to India, to part of which Government contributes, as under contract with the government of India the colony is liable for their return at the end of their ten years' residence. The annual average wages of the coolie is about £18 per annum. They can be employed on time or task work, and the more skilled and experienced hands enjoy better wages as masters of steam launches and responsible work in the mills. The women and children, when suitable, are also employed and paid in proportion to the work they do. Time-expired indentured Indians take up areas of land of their own and do well as freemen in the colony, growing bananas, rice, sugar cane, maize, and such products. Others enter into domestic service, and many are prosperous and industrious shopkeepers and rearers of cattle and live stock. They are, as a rule, a fine hard-working lot of men, and the tendency nowadays is to replace all other native labor by them. The use of them in any numbers is necessarily restricted to employers having available capital at hand when they require them, by reason of the heavy introduction fees; but of recent years there has been a marked diminution in the cost, which must still further diminish as time goes on. The number of immigrants on order for the various estates in 1900 amounted to over 1,000. The actual Indian population in the islands at the end of 1899 was about 13,000. The birthrate among adults under indenture is 6.18 per cent. The adult death rate of Indians in the colony is about 1.04 per cent, and among children 12.34 per cent. This must be regarded as satisfactory in view of the disease to which this race is so liable and the negligence and apathy of parents.

The coolie laborer in Fiji is surrounded by protective legislation of a stringent character during the whole period of his indenture, by which his health, home, food, work, wages, and life are regulated. The immigration office of the colony has a number of inspectors who reside on the larger estates to look after his interests, and the medical service is almost wholly taken up with his sanitary and medical care. Good feeling exists between employers and employed, mainly due to the tact, moderation, and good sense of the Government servants employed in the work. The employers are, without exception, high-minded, honorable men who recognize the necessity of Government control in a race unable to regulate their own conduct and interests. Both Government and employers unite in putting forward schemes advantageous to the important industries concerned and the people employed in bringing about its prosperity. \* \* \*

Other labor of the colony is carried on by Polynesian immigrants recruited from the Solomon and Hebrides group in Melanesia, and is under Government supervision and control; the period of indenture is for three years, and the average rate of wages between £5 and £10 per annum. The introduction fees are about £15, which include the return passage. Many of these immigrants settle afterwards in the colony and reindenture themselves; they are very adaptable to the country, and like the work of making copra, tending cattle, or growing bananas. The immigration of Polynesians, however, has of late years not been popular, as, speaking generally, they are unsuitable for every kind of work and proportionately expensive; the more active government of their various islands, resulting in a more settled state and the diminution of tyranny by the native chiefs, thanks to the influence of Mr. Commissioner Woodford, has also tended to limit the number of these immigrants. The Polynesian in Fiji is a docile and law-abiding subject, and his care and welfare has been provided for in a very comprehensive ordinance, administered under the immigration office.

The Fijian labor of the colony is derived from the native population, and in many districts, where local conditions are unfavorable to the raising of the various products for tax and local requirements, large numbers are indentured to European settlers on annual agreements, the rate of wages being £5 to £8 per annum. For heavy clearing work the Fijian is eminently suitable, but he is not capable of sustained attention, and for skilled labor is quite unsuitable. Under the communal system of government of the Fijians the absence of able-bodied adults is a loss for local productive and other absolutely necessary work connected with village housebuilding, etc. Where there is no real reason for it, Government does not encourage Fijians going out to work for Europeans, but in one or two provinces nearly the whole of their taxes and refund for self-betterment is derived from this source.

#### COMMERCE OF THE COLONY.

The trade of the colony is carried on almost entirely with the Australasian colonies and New Zealand. The imports in 1899 amounted in value to £263,043 16s. 7d., the exports in the same year to £481,856 9s. 8d., the total to £744,980 6s. 8d. There has been a steady increase of tonnage, five-sixths being British, during the past ten years, the figures being in 1899: Entered, 128,791 tons; cleared, 126,656 tons.

The revenue of the colony has been making enormous strides during the past three years, owing principally to the absence of any severe hurricane, the revenue in 1899 being £98,621 and expenditure £95,567. Of the total revenue £50,000 was derived from customs. The cultivated land amounts to 48,803 acres and the uncultivated to 4,905,117 acres.

#### EDUCATION.

The education of the natives is carried on almost entirely by the missionary bodies; Government aid is extended to the public schools of Suva and Levuka, where the children of Europeans and half-castes attend. Affiliation has lately been brought about with the colony of Victoria for these schools, which are annually inspected by one of the inspectors of the Victorian Government, a much-needed reform which has already worked wonders for the pupils. For a period of twenty-five years Fijians have been governed through a native commissioner, with the aid of the native chiefs, who have occupied officially and by virtue of their hereditary rank the position of lieutenant-governors to the various provinces, where they have full power. This patriarchal form of government has been satisfactory in so far as a large population, formerly of a wild class, have been converted into the most law-abiding subjects of Her Majesty; and



further, this system of government has enabled the administration to collect a large revenue—about £20,000 a year—which otherwise would have been unavailable to meet the necessary expenditure connected with their government. Further, it has fostered a system of comparative industry and mutual help such as to draw forth from a recent distinguished American lately visiting the group the opinion “that as the result of an investigation undertaken by him of the conditions of Government prosperity and well-being of the natives under various administrations in this hemisphere, that of Fiji most nearly approaches the ideal philanthropic care in these times expected from sovereign European powers to colored races.”

Further, the system in vogue in Fiji must have much to commend it when the triumvirate of powers in Samoa, as a result of their investigations into the late troubles in those islands, recommended the powers to follow the methods existing in Fiji for the pacification and government of that group by “a council of district chiefs, presided over by the administrator of the colony,” and the doing away with the kingship. \* \* \*

In so far Britain has loyally done her duty to the Fijians on matters of general government, but where she has lamentably failed has been in what I may term the closer domestic interference, which can not be separated from the duties of a State if the individual welfare and the perpetuation of the race are to be an actuality. \* \* \*

#### OLD CUSTOMS DISAPPEARING.

The Fijians have progressed little since annexation either socially or domestically, have clung with tenacity to their old customs and habits, and bid fair to disappear at no very distant date from these beautiful islands. Their internal administration has been the ancient one of ceremonial, and beyond the raising of the local tax, the maintenance of quiet and peace in each province, the planting of a present sufficiency of food for individuals, no heed was given of to-morrow, the systematic cultivation and development of the soil was neglected, and all progressive industry was at a standstill. This chameleon-like existence of the Fijian has stamped itself on the national character, cramped his psychological expansion, and has developed insouciance, lethargy, improvidence, and laziness to such a degree as to baffle all attempts in the past to bring about improvement. \* \* \* The influence of the missionary bodies has been great in Christianizing the people, and it is largely due to them that there is so little crime among the natives, but unfortunately they have not stayed their decrease, and they would now be the first to admit that their methods of education have been faulty in that direction. Indeed, they might have done more but for the undoubted policy hitherto pursued in Fiji, viz, the discouragement of all European interference or association among the natives by the governing power.

No system of State education has been given to native Fijians, their education having been left to the missionary bodies, whose efforts have been directed more successfully to the soul than the body. Therefore it is not remarkable to find that in the past the local internal government of Fijians should have been absolutely neglected, as is so fully evidenced by the terrible state of sanitary neglect of their towns, their wretched houses, the neglect of all the laws of health, the absence of all European medical attendance or supervision, the prevalence of loathsome contagious diseases, and the slavery to native customs untouched, resulting in a tremendous mortality of infant life, easily preventable. \* \* \*

#### METHOD OF GOVERNMENT.

The native Fijian population amounts to about 98,000, scattered over as many as 80 islands. The group is divided into 14 provinces, each province roughly containing about 6,000 people, presided over by a roko, or hereditary chief, having under him heads of districts and towns, and a large native staff of officers, scribes, and native magistrates. European magistrates are resident in parts of the group, and exercise judicial functions for the more serious offenses committed among the natives. Minor offenses are dealt with by natives themselves in native courts. European magistrates have till now been discouraged from in any way interfering in the administration of the provinces. In the past the native administration has been corrupt, inefficient, unreliable, and in a great many instances oppressive by reason of the exactions of chiefs, instability of the native character, and want of direct supervision by European officers. The central native administration from the native office has been in the past hidebound and a victim to a perpetuation of the native status quo, resulting in conditions most unsatisfactory to the native individually and to the continued development of the race.

All that is now changed, and the new system is shortly this: Traveling inspectors are appointed in the various provinces, vested with judicial and administrative powers, whose duty it is to travel about, attain an intimate knowledge of the different districts and villages, the people, their language, customs, habits, condition of life, sanitary state of their towns and houses; to inquire into the water supply to each village and submit schemes for the supply of good wholesome water where possible; the isolation and treatment of contagious endemic diseases; the establishment of provincial hospitals in the natives' midst, with competent European medical attendants; the supervision of native officials, and the correction of abuses and exactions and oppression by the chiefs; the abolition of native customs where prejudicial to public health or progress, and the practical enforcement of the excellent native regulations which, in the hands of an indifferent native administration, have been virtually dead letters up to now. The provincial inspector comes actually into contact with all classes of the community, is as accessible to the weak as the strong, and accords a ready hearing and remedy to the grievances, real or fanciful, of all. He has no office hours, is ubiquitous in his movements, and is a great power in ameliorating the condition of the commoner of the land who, by a cruel despotism, may be and has been for so long a prey to real tyranny by superior chiefs. His presence in the province is the dread of evil doers, and has led successfully to the exposure of dishonest native officials. The crass ignorance and superstition and slavery to custom of Fijian women in the rearing, feeding, and care of infant life, the evil practices flourishing among native “wise women,” resulting in a large stillborn mortality, have all been successfully attacked during the past year. The “condition of women,” their work and status, has been dealt with and improved, and a general incentive to industry and providence given by a vigorous campaign against the native custom of kerekere (the mutual begging and appropriation of property). The material wealth of the different districts has been studied, and government put into a better position to develop the country for reproductive tax work and for the people's own self-betterment.

The planting up of large areas of waste lands with cocoanuts, hitherto neglected, the encouragement given to individual natives by the personal assessment of work done by each individual, and consequent increase of personal wealth, instead of the dividing of the “tax refund” among the community as formerly, are steps of social political economy hitherto quite overlooked, and which must in time completely metamorphose the character of the Fijian and their material condition for the better. That with this improvement we may hope for an alteration in their decrease is not chimerical; but in any case, as Sir George O'Brien said in his late message to council, “Government was bound to see that the large amount of labor annually wasted and the unproductive character of that labor was so altered as to give the Fijian a chance.” The measure of success in these directions already attained by provincial inspectors gives reason to justify such a hope, aided as they now are by hygienic women's missions (European) from the Wesleyan and Roman Catholic bodies, by large water schemes to the various districts, and by the establishment of provincial hospitals, by the education of the Fijian in the benefits and uses of milk and cows, and in a hundred and one other things. \* \* \*

### CONDITIONS IN THE BRITISH WEST INDIES.

#### THE DIVERSIFICATION OF PRODUCTS FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF NATIVE INDUSTRY.

The following is condensed from the report of the British commission which visited the British West Indies in 1896 to inquire into conditions in those islands and the methods which should be adopted for their improvement:

*May it please Your Majesty:*

We, the undersigned commissioners appointed to consider the condition and prospects of the West India colonies in which sugar is produced, humbly desire to submit to Your Majesty, the following report:

The orders which we received from Your Majesty directed us to make an inquiry into the condition and prospects of the colonies of

Jamaica, British Guiana, Trinidad and Tobago, Barbados, Grenada, St. Vincent, St. Lucia, and the Leeward Islands, and to suggest such measures as appeared calculated to restore and maintain the prosperity of these colonies and of their inhabitants. \* \* \*

The colonies may, as a whole, be described as eminently suited, both by climate and soil, for the growth of special tropical products such as sugar cane, cocoa, coffee, logwood, nutmegs, and various descriptions of fruit, of which the most important are bananas, oranges, coconuts, and pineapples.

In some of the islands cattle and horses can be profitably reared, but the raising of stock is never likely to be of more than local importance. There are extensive savannas in the interior of British Guiana which are said to be well suited for this purpose, but they can not be utilized until means of access from the coast are provided.

There is no prospect of manufacturing industries being established on any considerable scale, nor is there any mineral wealth of importance known to exist, with the exception of asphalt, which is obtained from the well-known Pitch Lake of Trinidad, and the gold which has been exported in considerable quantities from British Guiana in recent years.

Owing to the nature of the soil and climate such articles of human food as are yielded by cultivation in the Tropics can, as a rule, be readily produced in large quantities, and there is consequently no likelihood of any permanent deficiency of the bare necessities of existence for the laboring classes. For this class of food, which includes yams, sweet potatoes, and generally what is known in the West Indies as ground provisions, there is, however, no foreign market of any importance. For articles of food which can only be produced in temperate climates, and for manufactured goods, including clothes, and generally, for the purchase of imports of any kind, Your Majesty's West Indian possessions are dependent on being able to find a profitable foreign market for the special tropical products. It is, moreover, only by means of such an export trade that the population can be maintained in such a condition of prosperity as will permit of sufficient revenue being raised to meet the cost of a civilized government. \* \* \*

We do not consider it necessary to treat at any length of the economic history of the West Indies, seeing that the special causes of the present depression have only begun seriously to affect the sugar-producing colonies within the last fifteen years; and the tables of statistics which we shall submit are therefore confined to that period, commencing with the year 1882.

The prosperity of the West Indies in former times was mainly due to sugar and rum, and the production of these commodities attained such dimensions as to dwarf, and, at one time, almost to extinguish every competing industry. For many years the sugar industry has, from various causes, been growing less profitable than it used to be, and the production for export of such articles as cocoa and fruit has made considerable progress in some of the islands; but the extent to which Your Majesty's possessions in the West Indies are dependent, even in the present day, on the cultivation of the sugar cane is clearly indicated in the following table, which shows approximately the amount and percentage of the total exports of each possession in the year 1896 which was due to that industry.

VALUES OF TOTAL EXPORTS AND SUGAR EXPORTS, 1896.

COLONY OR ISLAND.	Total exports of produce and manufactures of the colony, 1896.	Exports of the products of the sugar cane—sugar, rum, and molasses.	Percentages of sugar-cane products in total exports.
	£	£	
Jamaica .....	1,700,000	800,000	18
British Guiana .....	1,814,000	1,280,000	70½
British Guiana, excluding gold .....	1,358,000	1,280,000	94½
Trinidad .....	1,363,000	773,000	57
Tobago .....	20,000	7,000	35
Barbados .....	577,000	558,000	97
Grenada .....	182,000	NIL.	-----
St. Lucia .....	85,000	63,000	74
St. Vincent .....	57,000	24,000	42
Antigua .....	127,000	119,000	94½
St. Kitts-Nevis .....	109,000	105,000	96½
Dominica .....	48,000	7,000	15
Montserrat .....	24,000	15,000	62
Total for all colonies .....	6,108,000	3,251,000	53
Total, excluding Jamaica and gold from British Guiana .....	3,945,000	2,951,000	75

The total value of the sugar products exported was about £3,250,000, the value of the sugar being some £2,790,000, of the rum £265,000, and of the molasses £195,000.

It will be seen that in most of Your Majesty's possessions in the West Indies the products of the sugar cane, though they are now valued at prices which are much below those which prevailed a few years ago, still form by far the larger portion of the total exports of native produce.

#### EFFECT OF FAILURE OF SUGAR PRODUCTION.

The gravity of the immediate danger to the welfare of each colony which would arise from a failure of the sugar-cane industry may, for practical purposes, be measured by the proportion which the exports of sugar, rum, and molasses bear to the total exports of that colony.

In such an event the welfare of each colony would, in the long run, however, depend on the extent to which it might be found possible to establish other industries. \* \* \*

There has been a great increase in the total production of sugar, and to that increase, which has been accompanied by a progressive economy in production, must the fall in the price of sugar be mainly attributed. The chief increase has been in beet sugar, which is alleged to be the dominant factor in regulating the price in the present day. The production of beet sugar has been stimulated by the grant of bounties, and within the past year Germany and Austria have doubled their bounties on the export of sugar, and France has very largely increased hers. \* \* \*

Dealing broadly with the whole question, we may say at once that, looking to the low prices now prevailing and to the probabilities as to the future of prices, which we have just discussed, the sugar-cane industry of the West Indies is threatened with such reduction in the immediate future as may not, in some of the colonies, differ very greatly from extinction, and must seriously affect all of them, with the single exception of Grenada, which no longer produces sugar for export.

If such reduction or extinction of the industry occurs, and if its place can not be adequately filled by the substitution of other industries, the consequences are likely to be of a very serious character. \* \* \*

#### REMEDIES SUGGESTED.

The remedies which may be applied to the state of things which we have shown to exist, or to be rapidly approaching, may be discussed under one or other of the three heads:

- (a) The restoration of the sugar industry to a condition in which it can be profitably carried on.
- (b) The substitution of other and profitable agricultural industries for the cultivation of the sugar cane.

The adoption of subsidiary measures which may assist in preventing or alleviating the strain which is about to be experienced by the colonies in question, such as greater economy in public expenditure, the promotion of emigration from places where the population is excessive, and, generally, the encouragement of all measures having a tendency to maintain the well-being of the population.

Of these remedies the first is the only one that would completely avert the dangers which now threaten your Majesty's West India possessions. Any other measures that might be adopted could only be slowly applied, and must, in some cases at least, be found in the outcome to be partial and inadequate. For this reason we propose to deal, in the first place, with the question of the possibility of a restoration of the sugar industry to a condition in which it can be profitably carried on, and subsequently to consider the remedies and palliatives which could be adopted in case of failure of that industry. \* \* \*

Under any circumstances that can at present be foreseen, the days of very large or excessive profits from the sugar-cane industry appear to us to have passed away; and in those portions of the West Indies which are unsuited for the establishment of large factories equipped with the best machinery, and which do not in soil, climate, and the supply of labor possess special advantages for the production of sugar, even the abolition of the bounty system would probably fail to restore the industry to a condition of permanent prosperity.

There are, however, many places in the West Indies where large and well-equipped factories have already been established, and there are others in which such factories could be established; and, moreover, some of the islands, Barbados for example, possess special advantages for carrying on the sugar-cane industry, and so far as we are able to form a judgment on the question we are of the opinion that the abolition of the bounty system on the Continent would render it possible under present conditions to maintain profitably a large proportion of the present area of sugar-cane cultivation. \* \* \*

#### FUTURE OF THE SUGAR INDUSTRY.

The conclusions with regard to the sugar industry at which we have so far arrived may be summed up as follows:

There is, at present, no prospect of any considerable and permanent rise in the price of sugar in the ordinary course of events.

The effect which the imposition of countervailing duties on the import of bounty-fed sugar into the United Kingdom would have upon price is uncertain, and, for reasons which we have stated, we are unable to recommend such imposition or the grant of a bounty on West Indian sugar.

The cost of producing sugar in those portions of the West Indies where the old processes of manufacture are still followed could in many places be reduced by the introduction, at a considerable cost, of new machinery, but the prospect of profit is not such as to induce capitalists generally to supply the necessary funds.

It is possible that improved varieties of sugar cane may be discovered, but in no case is any such discovery likely to be made in sufficient time to materially alleviate the present distressed condition of the industry.

Some disadvantage is imposed on the producers of rum by the imperial surtax on imported spirits.

Absentee ownership is not a cause of the present depression, and the extension of resident ownership of estates would not materially improve the prospects of the industry.

Wages and salaries have already been reduced, and no further economy can be expected in respect of them.

We feel some hesitation in expressing a positive opinion regarding the future of such an industry as that of the production of sugar, which is liable to be affected by so many unforeseen influences, economic and others, but on a full consideration of the circumstances of the sugar industry in the West Indies we are driven to the conclusion that there is no prospect of the present area of cultivation being maintained. Where the conditions for the production of sugar are favorable, and the latest processes have been adopted, and the best machinery introduced, we believe that some West Indian sugar estates may, even at present prices, continue to show a surplus of receipts over working expenses, but that surplus will not, in our opinion, be sufficient in all cases, after providing for deterioration, and for the results of exceptionally unfavorable seasons, to yield the ordinary market rate of profit on the capital involved in the estates. Under present conditions, therefore, the prospect before the sugar industry is the gradual abandonment of the weaker estates, a process which has already begun, and, in some cases, a failure to renew the machinery as it wears out on estates that are now well equipped, followed in time by similar abandonment. \* \* \*

It may be that no industry, or series of industries, can be introduced into the West Indies which will ever completely take the place of sugar, and certainly no such results will be attained within the space of a few years, but it is of the utmost importance that no time should be lost in making a beginning of substituting other industries for the cultivation of the sugar cane.

#### SYSTEM OF PEASANT PROPRIETORS.

If the sugar estates are thrown out of cultivation, it is extremely improbable, and in fact it may be stated to be impossible, that any industry to be conducted on large estates can ever completely take its place. We have, therefore, no choice but to consider how means can be found to enable the mass of the population to support themselves in other ways than as laborers on estates. If work can not be found for the laboring population on estates, they must either emigrate or support themselves by cultivating small plots of land on their own account. No large industry other than agriculture offers any prospect of success, except possibly the gold industry in British Guiana; and when large estates can not be profitably worked, the adoption of the system of cultivation by petty proprietors is inevitable.

The laboring population in the West Indies is mainly of negro blood, but there is also in some of the colonies a strong body of East Indian immigrants, and the descendants of such immigrants. The negro is an efficient laborer, especially when he receives good wages. He is disinclined to continuous labor, extending over a long period of time, and he is often unwilling to work if the wages offered are low, though there may be no prospect of his getting higher wages from any other employer. He is fond of display, openhanded, careless as to the future, ordinarily good-humored, but excitable and difficult to manage, especially in large numbers, when his temper is aroused.

The East Indian immigrant, ordinarily known as the coolie, is not so strong a workman, but he is a steadier and more reliable laborer. He is economical in his habits, is fond of saving money, and will turn his hand to anything by which he can improve his position.

The cultivation of the sugar cane has been almost entirely carried on in the past on large estates, but both the negro and the coolie like to own small patches of land by which they make their livelihood, and take a pride in their position as landholders, though in some cases they also labor at times on large estates, and are generally glad to have the opportunity of earning money occasionally by working on such estates, and on the construction and maintenance of roads and other public works. The existence of a class of small proprietors among the population is a source of both economic and political strength.

The settlement of the laborer on the land has not, as a rule, been viewed with favor in the past by the persons interested in sugar estates. What suited them best was a large supply of laborers, entirely dependent on being able to find work on the estates, and consequently subject to their control and willing to work at low rates of wages. But it seems to us that no reform affords so good a prospect for the permanent welfare in the future of the West Indies as the settlement of the laboring population on the land as small peasant proprietors, and in many places this is the only means by which the population can in future be supported. The drawbacks to the system of peasant proprietors have hitherto been their want of knowledge and care in cultivation, and the habit of what is called *prædial larceny*. The latter term is applied to the theft of growing crops, which is said to be very prevalent. We do not believe it will disappear until such practices are universally condemned by native and public opinion, which unfortunately does not appear to be the case at present, and in the meantime each colony must deal with the question as may seem best. The small proprietors show some desire to improve their modes of cultivation, and we shall have some suggestions to make on this subject.

But while we think that the governments of the different colonies should exert themselves in the direction of facilitating the settlement of the laboring population on the land, we see no objection to the system of large estates when they can be maintained under natural economic conditions. On the contrary, we are convinced that in many places they afford the best, and, sometimes, the only profitable means of cultivating certain products, and that it is not impossible for the two systems—of large estates and peasant holdings—to exist side by side with mutual advantage. \* \* \*

## ESTABLISHMENT OF A DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMIC BOTANY IN THE WEST INDIES.

The practical work of cultivating new products must be left in the hands of private persons, whether owners of large estates or peasant proprietors, but there are certain directions in which assistance can be given by the state.

Your Majesty's West Indian possessions are, as a rule, not of large extent, and some of them, though possessing separate administrative and financial systems, are of very limited area. Communication between them is difficult, and with the outside world it is both tedious and expensive. The persons engaged in cultivation suffer from this state of isolation, and are often without any information as to what is being done elsewhere. The cultivator of one product is often quite ignorant of the best means of cultivating any other, and does not know whether his soil and climate might be better adapted for something else. These remarks have special reference to the small cultivators, but they are not wholly inapplicable to persons interested in the larger estates.

The botanical establishments in the larger colonies, such as Jamaica, Trinidad, and British Guiana, have already rendered considerable assistance in improving agricultural industries, and they are capable of being made increasingly useful in this respect. In the Windward and Leeward islands and Barbados, small establishments called botanic stations were established a few years ago on the advice of the director of Kew Gardens, and the results, though not yet extensive, have been of a distinctly promising character. It is evident that to grapple with the present circumstances, there is required for the smaller islands a special public department capable of dealing with all questions connected with economic plants suitable for growth in tropical countries, and we recommend the establishment of such a department, under which should be placed the various botanic stations already in existence. These stations should be enlarged in their scope and character, and be organized on the lines found so successful in Jamaica. In the latter colony it is admitted that intelligent and progressive action in the direction of encouraging a diversity of industries has produced most satisfactory results. To achieve this result has, however, taken more than twenty years of persistent effort, and the Government has spent more than £100,000 during that period on its botanical establishments. The department has distributed seeds and plants at nominal prices by means of the post-office, Government railways, and coastal steam service; it has supplied information orally, or by means of bulletins, regarding the cultivation of economic plants, and has encouraged the careful preparation of the produce by sending agricultural instructors on tour through the island to give lectures, demonstrations, and advice.

The special department recommended for carrying on similar work in the Windward and Leeward islands should be under the charge of a competent imperial officer, whose duty it would be to advise the governors in regard to all matters affecting the agricultural development of the islands. He would take part in consultations with the object of improving agricultural teaching in colleges and schools, and of training students in agricultural pursuits, and would attend to the preparation of suitable literature on agricultural subjects. The existing botanic stations should be placed under his supervision, and the charge of maintaining them transferred to imperial funds. Each botanic station would be actively engaged in the introduction and improvement of economic plants, and in propagating and distributing them throughout the island. It would carry out the experimental cultivation of new plants to serve as an object lesson to cultivators, and it would be prepared to give the latest information to inquirers regarding economic products and to provide suitable men as agricultural instructors. \* \* \*

## EDUCATION—ELEMENTARY, AGRICULTURAL, AND INDUSTRIAL.

At the present time a system of training in agricultural occupation is much needed. We think that some, at least, of the botanic stations should have agricultural schools attached to them, where the best means of cultivating tropical plants would be taught, and if elementary training in agriculture were made a part of the course of education in the public schools generally, the botanic department would be in a position to render valuable assistance.

Agriculture, in one form or another, must always be the chief and the only great industry in the West Indies, but a system of training in other industrial occupations, on a limited scale, is desirable, and would be beneficial to the community.

There are good grounds for thinking that the West Indies might profitably grow fruit for export in larger quantities than at present. The fruit trade between Jamaica and New York has already attained important dimensions, and it seems possible that a similar trade might be established with some of the other islands.

In time it might be found practicable to send fruit to the London market. If this could be done, the gain to the whole of the West Indies would be very great. We believe that the opportunity of selling their fruit cheaply in London would be of the greatest value, and there would be no risk of the trade being interfered with by hostile tariffs. If a number of steamers were regularly employed in such a trade, they would, no doubt, carry British products to the West Indies on their return voyage, and to a certain degree reduce the loss of trade which has been caused by the diversion to the United States of West Indian sugar and of the Jamaica fruit exports. \* \* \*

It is of great importance that there should be cheap, regular, and frequent means of communication between the different islands. The want of such facilities was especially brought to our notice in many of the colonies.

Such means of communication will assist, or even create, trade in local products, will tend to remove that condition of isolation which exists at present, and will enable laborers to move freely to the best markets for labor, a result which is of special importance at a time when many persons are likely to be thrown out of employment in some of the islands. \* \* \*

In view of the probable reduction, in the immediate future, of the area of sugar-cane cultivation, and the serious effect which such reduction and the general depression of the industry must have on the welfare of the colony, the chief remedial measures which we have to suggest for the island of Trinidad are: (1) The substitution of other agricultural industries for the cane cultivation; (2) the settlement of the surplus population on the land as peasant proprietors, and (3) the facilitating of access to foreign markets.

The practical work of carrying on new industries must be left in the hands of private persons, but there are certain directions in which the Government can assist.

The botanical department should be entirely relieved of the business of ornamental gardening and the supply of ornamental plants, and should devote itself to the introduction and experimental cultivation of economic plants, and to attempts to secure improved varieties of such plants, and especially of sugar cane. It should comprise a branch for the teaching of tropical agriculture, and should form a center from which teachers would be sent to give practical lessons in the cultivation of tropical plants and the selection of suitable localities for growing them.

Special and well-considered arrangements should be made for facilitating the settlement of the Creole and East Indian population as peasant proprietors on the Crown lands, and on any other suitable lands that may be or may become available. \* \* \*

## DIVERSIFICATION OF INDUSTRIES NECESSARY.

When the general depression of the sugar industry took effect in 1885 there was a collapse of that industry in Tobago. The people began to turn their attention to various minor industries, and they now export cocoa, coconuts, pease, corn, potatoes, plantains, poultry, eggs, cocoanut oil, cattle, goats, horses, pigs, and sheep. Their proximity to Trinidad enables them to find a market for many of the articles which we have just enumerated. \* \* \*

Communication between the two islands should, as far as possible, be facilitated. If, as we have recommended, a cheap and regular service of steamers is established between Barbados and the southern islands, it may be arranged that Tobago shall participate in that benefit.

It also appears desirable that a botanic station should be established at Tobago, subordinate to the botanic department at Trinidad, and having for its object the attainment of the same ends.

Finally, we recommend that the settlement of the population on Crown and other available lands should be persevered with and encouraged. \* \* \*

The recommendations which we desire to make in the case of Grenada are, to a great extent, the same as those which we have to make in the case of most of the West India Islands, and may be briefly summarized as follows:

(1) The work of the botanic station should be extended, and it should be held responsible for agricultural instruction, for the introduction and experimental cultivation of tropical plants of economic importance, and for the supply of such plants, on payment, to the public.

(2) The Government should, as far as may be practicable, encourage the settlement of the creole population on the land as small proprietors. The Crown lands are of small extent, and are situated in the highest portions of the islands. They are covered with forest, which it is of the utmost importance to preserve, and they are, therefore, not available for settlement. The question whether the Government should not purchase estates with the view of reselling them in small lots may fairly be raised in connection with Carriacou, where it is of special urgency, as that island is in a very depressed condition, while the medical officer states that "most of the estates here are owned by absentee proprietors, who demand rents that are much too high under existing circumstances."

(3) Grenada will participate in the arrangements which we have proposed for securing cheap and regular communication between the islands by means of small subsidized steamers.

(4) The cultivation of fruit in Grenada should be encouraged, and the best kinds should be supplied from the botanic station. We do not recommend that any special attempt should be made at the present time to start a fruit trade between Grenada and New York, but we have made a recommendation of this nature in the case of St. Vincent and Dominica, and if the experiment should prove successful there is no reason why it should not in time be extended to Grenada. It would greatly facilitate such extension if in the meantime Grenada were placed in a position to grow suitable kinds of fruit in sufficient quantities. \* \* \*

The most important measure to be taken for the welfare of St. Lucia is the settlement of the people on the land. There is already a large number of persons who cultivate small plots, but we have no doubt that the number can be increased. Roads should be provided for the benefit of the small settlers, and arrangements made for giving them instructions in agriculture. This instruction can be best given in connection with the botanic station, the operations of which should be extended in the way we have indicated in the case of the other islands. More suitable land for the purpose of experimental cultivation in connection with the botanic station is very much required. St. Lucia will, of course, share in the benefits of the scheme for facilitating communication between the different islands, which we have recommended, if that scheme should be approved. \* \* \*

In view of the approaching extinction of the sugar industry in St. Vincent, and of the fact that there is no prospect of private enterprise establishing other industries on a sufficiently large scale to afford employment to the laboring classes, the problem of providing for these classes becomes one of extreme urgency, and is beset with difficulties.

We have already made a general recommendation that the settlement of the creole population of the West Indies as cultivating proprietors should be recognized as the settled policy of the government of the different colonies, and we see no reason to depart from that policy in the case of St. Vincent. On the contrary, it seems to us that, whether the sugar industry is maintained or disappears, it is absolutely essential in the interests of the native population that their settlement on the land should be facilitated. In no other way does it seem to us to be possible to maintain even the most moderate degree of prosperity in St. Vincent.

#### LAND OWNERSHIP BY THE NATIVES IS ESSENTIAL.

At the same time the question is surrounded with special difficulties in the case of this island. There is, no doubt, a large extent of Crown land, but this land is situated in the center of the island, at a considerable elevation, remote from the markets, and is unprovided with roads. A great deal of the land consists of steep slopes, difficult to cultivate, and liable to suffer from heavy rains and floods.

The attempts that have been made in recent years to settle cultivators on the Crown lands have not so far met with much success. A considerable number of the plots were taken up, to be paid for in installments, but the owners complain of the want of roads. They have suffered from the low prices of produce, and owing to the general depression they have found themselves unable to get work so as to earn the wages on which they relied in some degree to pay for their holdings. In 1896 many of these holdings were damaged by floods, to an extent which has made it difficult or impossible for the purchasers to pay the installments due, while much of their cultivation has been swept away. Whether the attempt to settle the population on the Crown lands under such conditions ultimately proves successful or not, we are convinced that it does not afford any prospect of providing in sufficient time for the bulk of the population likely to be thrown out of employment by the stoppage of the sugar-cane cultivation, and we are doubtful whether it is expedient to reduce largely the area of the central forests; a reduction which is inevitable if the lands are occupied by settlers.

There are, however, round the seacoast, thousands of acres of fertile land in the hands of private owners, uncultivated and likely to remain so. The holders of these lands appear to be unwilling to sell them in small lots or at a reasonable price, and are unable to cultivate them. Under the circumstances, we have no hesitation in recommending that suitable portions of these lands be acquired by the State and made available for settlement in small plots. If suitable lands can not be obtained by private agreement with the owners, powers should be taken by the Government to expropriate them on payment of reasonable compensation. The condition of St. Vincent is so critical as to justify the adoption of prompt and drastic measures of reform. A monopoly of the most accessible and fertile lands by a few persons who are unable any longer to make a beneficial use of them can not, in the general interests of the island, be tolerated, and is a source of public danger. \* \* \*

Another measure which we recommend is an attempt to establish a fruit trade with New York, such, though on a smaller scale, as that which has proved of such benefit to Jamaica. In this enterprise Dominica may with advantage be associated with St. Vincent. We have already recommended that a guarantee for five years be given for a fruit steamer to run from St. Vincent and Dominica to New York, to be extended, if necessary, for another period of five years, on condition that each island undertakes to put at least 2,000 acres under banana cultivation. It is, however, probable that private persons will be found willing to make an agreement to this effect when they understand that proper means of communication may be depended upon for at least ten years. \* \* \*

As regards agricultural education, the extension of the operations of the botanic station, and the establishment of steam communication between the islands, our recommendations are practically the same as those which we offered in the case of Grenada, and need not be repeated in detail. \* \* \*

Since, however, Dominica has never been so great a sugar-producing colony as most of the others, and sugar exports now only form 15 per cent of the value of the whole, it is unnecessary to discuss the question of taking special measures, as far as Dominica is concerned, to reestablish the sugar industry there.

It is with the development of the other industries that the colony will be mainly concerned in future. In this direction there is not only very good ground for hope, but considerable progress has already been made. The value of the exports of cocoa have risen from £6,375 in 1882 to £13,453 in 1896; of limes and lime juice from £5,102 to £14,851; of essential oils from £295 to £5,012; of fruit and vegetables from £607 to £1,348; and of coffee from £321 to £967 in the same period.

But this is not enough. If Dominica is to be self-supporting, if an efficient government is to be provided for out of its revenue, and the people are to be prosperous, or even comfortable, these industries must extend still further; and there is, happily, no reason why this should not be the case. \* \* \*

At present the population lives almost entirely within a mile or two of the coast, because there are no roads to the interior. The first step requisite is to make the land, or some parts of it, accessible by a system of roads. When this has been done, the cultivation of cocoa and coffee will probably extend more rapidly than it has been doing, and that of limes also, if the market is not overstocked.

There is, however, no reason why fruit of first-rate quality should not be grown in Dominica as well as in Jamaica, and become a very large industry if only means of communication are provided. We have, therefore, recommended that Dominica should from the first share with St. Vincent in the advantage of direct communication with New York, for which a subsidy must be given. \* \* \*

The excellent prospect as far as the climate and soil of Dominica are concerned, of establishing a fruit industry, and of growing other tropical produce, makes it more than ever desirable that the botanic station should be maintained, its work extended, and instruction in agriculture provided. \* \* \*

Montserrat can only be developed and supported by variety of produce, and for this two things are essential—a good botanic station, capable of supplying plants and giving instruction, and access to markets. Both these needs have been dealt with in connection with other islands, in the general report, but it should be noticed that the work of the botanic station, which might have been made very useful in Montserrat, has been discontinued owing to lack of funds—an illustration of how the island is being pinched by the failure of the sugar industry, and of how, just as its need is greatest, it becomes impossible for it to provide unaided the means which are essential for overcoming its difficulties. \* \* \*



In Antigua, as in several other islands, the Government must, to meet the altered circumstances, take steps—

1. To promote the settlement of the laboring population on the land as peasant cultivators. Some Crown lands are available for this purpose, and the low price of sugar has made it necessary to abandon some sugar estates, and may bring others into the market.
2. To provide more facilities of communication by steamer with other islands.
3. To encourage and extend the work of the botanic station. \* \* \*

The course to be pursued by the Government in St. Kitts-Nevis can only be the same as that recommended for Antigua; the prospects as regards new industries and the future generally are the same. \* \* \*

Whereas most of the other colonies are almost entirely dependent on sugar cane, Jamaica produces, besides coffee, logwood, bananas, oranges, pimento, ginger, cocoa, coconut, tobacco, and other articles of export, the value of which, as shown in the returns of 1895-96, amounted altogether to about £1,415,000, as against £360,059, the value of the exports of sugar, rum, and molasses.

Jamaica is, therefore, in a better position to meet a falling off in the sugar trade than any of the other West Indian colonies, except Grenada, which has ceased to produce sugar except for local consumption, and is supporting itself entirely by other products. \* \* \*

The number of holdings of land in the island is 92,979, of which 81,924 are under 10 acres each. In 1882 there were only 52,608 holdings, of which 43,707 were under 10 acres each. Even allowing for the fact that some persons may hold two or more plots of land, it is clear that the island already contains a very large and increasing number of peasant proprietors.

The Crown-land regulations offer facilities for the settlement of the laboring population on the land, and as sugar estates are abandoned some of them will probably fall into the hands of small cultivators. \* \* \*

Some of the evidence which we received does not give a very satisfactory account of the general condition of many of the people, and there was a tendency on the part of some witnesses to dwell a good deal on the depressed state of the Jamaica peasantry, but there is little doubt that the bulk of them are in a position which compares not unfavorably with that of the peasantry of most countries in the world, and the facts stated in the following paragraph show that the condition of the laboring classes can hardly have deteriorated.

In the last ten years the number of savings bank accounts of the amount of £5 and under has nearly doubled. The census returns of 1891 show that in ten years, 1881 to 1891, there had been an increase of 30 per cent in the number of persons able to read and write. The acreage of provision grounds has increased more than 30 per cent in ten years. There are 70,000 holdings of less than 5 acres. The area in coffee, usually in small lots, increased in ten years from 17,000 to 23,000 acres. More than 6,000 small sugar mills are owned by the peasantry. The number of enrolled scholars was 100,400 in 1896, as against 49,000 in 1881, while the actual average daily attendance at schools had increased from 26,600 to 59,600. These facts indicate considerable advance, though no doubt in certain districts the people are poor. Distress was, perhaps, more apparent at the time of our visit than is usually the case, for there was a severe drought, the logwood industry, which had been flourishing, had fallen off, and employment on railway works had ceased.

On the whole there appears to us no ground for despondency as to the future of Jamaica, either in view of the possible failure of the sugar industry or on general considerations, but it is most desirable that the settlement of the people on the land should be encouraged. \* \* \*

The results, in any case, of a falling off in sugar production will not be so serious as in other West Indian colonies, and we ascertained by personal observation and inquiry that in two large parishes at least, where sugar-cane cultivation has ceased and bananas have been substituted, a larger population is now maintained than existed in former days, nor was there any reason to suppose that there was any special poverty in those parishes.

It does not follow that all abandoned sugar estates could be made to produce bananas, but we received evidence that some such estates were capable of producing abundant crops of bananas, and that in some cases portions of coffee estates which had been abandoned owing to the supposed exhaustion of the soil could, under certain conditions, which are referred to by Dr. Morris, be again brought under the same cultivation. \* \* \*

The education of the people in Jamaica, though no doubt capable of improvement, has made great strides. No school fees are now paid in the elementary schools, and the cost of the education department has risen from £25,000 in 1882-1883 to an estimated cost in 1897-1898 of £69,365. The number of schools has risen from 687 in 1881-1882 to 932 in 1896. There is considerable provision for higher education in Jamaica, partly due to generous bequests of individuals in former days, and partly due to the action of the various churches in the colony. There are also training colleges for male and female teachers, and efforts are being made to introduce training in agriculture and in trades.

The botanical department of the island has done excellent service in the development of various industries, and has no doubt helped the sugar industry also by attention to the best methods of cultivation and by endeavoring to improve the canes. It has also imparted knowledge of cultivation to the peasantry. These efforts should be continued, and there seems no reason to alter the constitution of the department or its relation to the local government, but a competent agricultural chemist is required to be constantly employed in conjunction with the botanical department in analyzing the soil and its products.

There is evidence that good results have arisen from the action of the Jamaica Institute and of the two agricultural associations that exist in the colony.

Before we conclude our remarks on Jamaica some reference must be made to the system of coolie immigration in the island. By the last return received there were 14,128 East Indian immigrants in Jamaica, of whom 3,762 were still serving under indenture; 27,096 have been introduced since immigration began in 1845, and 8,809 have returned to India. Under the present system the whole cost of recruiting of Indian immigrants and of their passage to and from India is paid by those who employ them, the government bearing the cost of the supervising and medical establishment in the island.

Formerly, and until quite recently, the immigrants were imported almost exclusively for the sugar planters, though a small proportion were assigned to coffee estates. Of late, however, they have been allotted to work on banana plantations. This may lead to complaints by peasant cultivators of bananas that the coolie is imported to compete with them, but if such complaints arise the Jamaica legislature, which is elected by the taxpayers, can deal with them, and we do not make any recommendation as to the discontinuance of immigration in Jamaica under the present system, although we look forward to a time when, owing to an improvement in the industrial habits of the negro, there will be no necessity to import labor. \* \* \*

#### CONCLUSIONS.

The special remedies or measures of relief which we unanimously recommend are—

- (1) The settlement of the laboring population on small plots of land as peasant proprietors.
- (2) The establishment of minor agricultural industries, and the improvement of the system of cultivation, especially in the case of small proprietors.
- (3) The improvement of the means of communication between the different islands.
- (4) The encouragement of a trade in fruit with New York, and possibly at a future time with London.
- (5) The grant of a loan from the imperial exchequer for the establishment of central factories in Barbados. \* \* \*



The relative size and importance of these colonies may be illustrated by the following table, in which the area, population, and trade of each are given from recent returns:

COLONIES.	Area.	Population.	Number of persons per square mile.	Revenue.	Total imports, 1896.	Exports of products of colony, 1896.	Total imports and exports.
	<i>Sq. miles.</i>			<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>
British Guiana .....	109,000	278,328	2.5	567,749	1,443,553	1,814,000	8,257,553
Trinidad and Tobago .....	1,858	248,853	132.9	628,332	2,066,872	1,875,000	8,429,872
Windward Islands .....	506	146,061	288.6	1132,491	1,415,990	324,000	739,990
Barbados .....	166	186,000	1,120.4	146,315	1,048,836	677,000	1,625,836
Leeward Islands .....	704	131,000	186.0	1119,082	1,364,075	2,804,000	668,075
Jamaica .....	4,207	694,865	165.1	129,602	2,288,946	2,700,000	4,288,946
Total .....	116,451	1,684,607	14.4	1,723,571	27,618,322	6,102,000	13,720,338

<sup>1</sup> For 1895 only.

<sup>2</sup> Approximate.

<sup>3</sup> Includes about £1,200,000 of goods reexported.

A somewhat general opinion exists that the best soils in the West Indies have already been cleared and planted. How far this is borne out by actual facts will appear from the following table:

COLONIES.	Area in acres.	Acres per unit of population.	Area now cultivated.	Area of cultivable land not beneficially occupied.	Value of exports per head of population.	Number of coolie immigrants.
			<i>Acres.</i>	<i>Acres.</i>	<i>£ s. d.</i>	
British Guiana .....	65,836,000	236.54	825,000	20,000,000	6 7 1	105,463
Trinidad and Tobago .....	1,193,313	4.88	310,000	550,000	5 16 11	83,000
Windward Islands .....	328,122	2.24	95,000	135,000	2 4 4	2,660
Barbados .....	106,470	.57	90,000	10,000	8 2 0	.....
Leeward Islands .....	390,840	2.98	100,000	150,000	2 7 0	.....
Jamaica .....	2,692,480	3.87	693,674	1,500,000	2 12 6	14,128
Total .....	70,547,225	41.87	1,613,674	22,345,000	3 13 8	205,251

Percentage of cultivated area to total area equals 2.18. Percentage of cultivated area to cultivable area equals 7.22.

According to returns placed before the commission the area now under cultivation is only a little over 2 per cent of the total area, and only a little over 7 per cent of the estimated cultivable area. Only about 1,500,000 acres are now under cultivation, while, after allowing for swamps, rocky and other useless lands, and for forest reservations, there are only 20,000,000 acres of land suitable for bearing crops. (This statement includes British Guiana, located on the mainland of South America. The figures for the island alone show that about one-half of the cultivable land is not occupied.)

## EVOLUTION OF COLONIAL POLICY.

[By Arthur A. Brandt, in Beiträge Zur Kolonialpolitik und Kolonialwirtschaft, No. 4, Berlin, 1900-1901.]

### LESSONS OF A CENTURY OF EXPERIMENTS IN MANAGEMENT AND DEVELOPMENT OF COLONIES.

Colonization, i. e., the search, discovery, conquest, annexation, and cultivation to some extent of strange regions, was exercised in ancient times by the nations inhabiting the warmer zone, tending toward the colder regions rather than the Tropics. It was only during the Middle Ages that with increasing technical progress the superiority of the nations of the Temperate Zone over those of the Torrid Zone began to show itself. Owing to superior armament, better construction of ships, and higher organization in general, the first successes of the northern nations are gained.

#### EARLY METHODS AND THEIR CAUSES.

Spanish and Portuguese seafarers cross and conquer the world; Dutch and English follow suit. All these conquests, however, had as their purpose not the acquisition of territory but the gathering of riches. Europe of those days was so thinly populated that there was no necessity for emigration. Whenever there was a chance to abstract metallic treasure found in the hands of the natives the latter were simply killed off. In those cases where neither gold, silver, nor precious stones were procurable, but, instead, products of native growth, such as coffee, cane sugar, tea, spices, or other tropical products, the native population was tolerated to exist as a necessary evil. Their lives were spared, though extreme exploitation by the conquerors was resorted to.

#### THREE KINDS OF COLONIES.

The development of colonies has been different according to differences in the geographical position and constitution of the mother country and the characteristic peculiarities of the colonizing nation. All the colonies, however, may be conveniently grouped under the three following heads:

1. Those colonies in which the native dark-skinned (nonwhite) population was exterminated and where the climate permitted the Europeans to perform industrial and agricultural pursuits. This solution is by far the happiest, and the United States, Canada, as well as the cultivated parts of Australia, present the most notable examples of this type.

2. Those colonies in which the greater part of the natives were likewise exterminated, but where in their place originated a mixed race, produced by the conquerors and the women of the conquered, which by far exceeds in number the pure full-blooded Europeans. These colonies are situated mainly in the Torrid Zone, and all the more important former Spanish and Portuguese colonies in America can be included in this group.

3. Those colonies in which the natives are preserved and are ruled by a relatively insignificant number of Europeans. British India and the Dutch East Indies are the foremost examples of this sort. The extermination of the native population was characterized above as the happiest solution. Such a view may be regarded brutal, but it was surely better for the native to have perished by a bullet

than to undergo the terrors of oppression at the hands of the conqueror, without even a hope of bettering his condition. The only excuse for such treatment may be found in the fact that the peasant serf in Europe was in most cases not better off than the tortured slave in the colonies.

#### THE NATIVE REQUIRES GUIDANCE IN DEVELOPMENT OF INDUSTRIAL POWERS.

The impossibility of educating primitive man within a few years to the state of a consuming and producing member of civilized society, was proven unmistakably by the failure of all efforts in that direction. The primitive man can be used advantageously as a laborer only when he has been a cultivator himself before or when the master possesses ways and means to compel him to work. The native always requires the management of the white man, unless the country is to sink back into the former primitive state. If left to himself he will work only when he is hungry. Clothing and housing are of small account, and just a trifle of the rudiments of agriculture is about all the country can show.

The exclusive presence of whites, the independence from indolent natives, the favorable climate, and the rich mineral resources caused a rapid growth of industry in North America. The European settlers soon ceased to regard the colony as a temporary abode. They came to look on it as their new home. The number of native-born white people soon begins to grow and to exceed that of the immigrants, gaining at the same time more and more influence on the administration and government of the country. The interest in the mother country weakens more and more. A colony in this state no more needs any tutelage or sovereign endeavoring to extract money from it. Such a country with growing vigor and self-consciousness wants to become free, to govern itself, without paying any tribute to the mother country.

The American war of independence thus became a necessity and resulted as a natural consequence of the development of the colonies. The loss of her most valuable colony taught a lesson to Great Britain. Canada and Australia obtained by stages, owing to pressure on the part of the colonists, an autonomous administration. Moreover, a change has taken place in political conditions and doctrines during the last century. A broader view is taken now; it is seen that the combinations of smaller territorial units into a large State on a unitarian basis presents advantages over the system of petty States. The yearning for liberty and independence on the part of modern colonies receives a powerful damper in the consideration that in most cases it is more advantageous to remain a self-governing, autonomous colony rather than begin an independent economic existence as a small, insignificant State. Large amounts of capital are wanted for railway construction, waterworks, and other enterprises, which as a rule are lacking in the colony. A prudent mother country will not refuse its credit to its colony about whose stability it has no doubt, but will hesitate very much to extend its credit to a republic on an insecure basis. It is thus seen that even from a financial standpoint it is more advantageous for a colony to remain a colony, provided, of course, that the mother country grants self-government to it and does away with the old principle of exploitation.

#### DIFFICULTIES IN GOVERNING MIXED RACES.

The second group of colonies, according to our classification, shows more complicated features than the first. The one fact common to all countries of this group is that the descendants of mixed races at some period have deposed their European fathers as the ruling class and instituted a despotic, unstable, and changing misgovernment. Malevolence and envy dictate the laws, civil and neighboring wars ravage the countries, and the fluctuating money stocks keep the prudent European from lending them financial assistance.

The question of "half-castes," i. e., of people of mixed race, is of sufficient importance to warrant a more detailed discussion. The sensual, exotic character of the Spaniards and Portuguese led at once to intermixture with the natives. This would have been socially good if the resulting stock had been a good one. But as is well known this is not the case. The half-caste of dark and white parentage possesses the faults of either race without inheriting their good parts as European. He is despotic, and given to alcohol consumption, and as inhabitant of the Tropics he is indolent, intellectually undeveloped, and lazy. Neither is the history of his origin very inspiring. The white father will not marry the colored mother at all, or only after she has borne children as a serving companion. Only the necessity or desire to give or transfer his name to the latter will cause him to make the unpleasant step of marriage. It goes without saying that under such circumstances the mestizo is not respected either by the full whites or the natives. For the same reason it becomes clear that the half-caste feels hatred against the whites. He claims to be the latter's equal by education, ability, and energy, and more entitled as a native born to occupy positions and well-paying offices; moreover, having grown up amidst the natives, he is superior to the European colonist by his knowledge of the language and proper treatment of the natives. As soon then as he feels himself strong enough he will drive out the hated parent, take hold of the government himself, and establish a régime which, apart from its other faults, will be even more oppressive to the natives than that of the European.

The history of the Central and South American republics shows that the just-mentioned mental characteristics make the mestizo or half-breed unfit to rule for the advantage and prosperity of the country. Cuba and the Philippines are examples of the above-described desire for freedom.

The half-breed, bearing no blame for his origin, is rather to be pitied than despised, and it must be the supreme duty of the colonizing country to prevent the prevalence and spread of this sort of degeneracy. The conduct of the British in this regard is commendable. Cases of matrimony with non white women are exceedingly rare, if only for fear of being expelled from "society." The attitude of the Dutch seems to be different. While observing outward composure they are exceedingly sensual, and seem to seek the solution of the colonial problem in the greatest possible mixture with native elements. The so-called European population of the Dutch colonies is composed almost half of Malay half-breeds. High public offices are kept by the latter, and this perhaps accounts partly for the laxity of the colonial government. If the results of this faulty system have not been such as have been outlined above, it is due to the numerical preponderance of the natives over the Europeans. In Java there are 25,000,000 of natives as against 50,000 Europeans, and it is this strength of the native element which is the surest and most crushing dead weight on any possible enthusiasm for freedom; for in order to achieve the latter all the 25,000,000 Malays would have to be induced to rebel, which could not be done, of course, without the notice and interference of the Dutch Government.

#### CONCLUSIONS.

The principles for the proper government of colonies to be deduced from a historical review of colonial activity between the fifteenth and nineteenth centuries would be as follows:

1. A colony which has attained a high degree of culture and education, and which has developed within its territory mining and manufactures, is lost to the mother country unless the latter at the proper time grants the colony self-government and administration.
2. A colony which yields good results from the financial and economic point of view and which contains a relatively large number of half-castes, will in the long run rise against the mother country, since the half-castes will become determined to assume the government for themselves and to pocket for their own profit the sums which had hitherto been transferred to Europe. This change does not, however, imply any advantage for the inhabitants.
3. The colonies which have not yet shared either of the above modes of evolution compel the mother country gradually to renounce the old rapacious system, and seemingly furnish the mother country smaller gains from year to year.

These results appear discouraging; the opponents of the colonial system point them out and preach that it is nonsense to acquire by sacrifices colonies which are bound to become lost after a number of years. Such a judgment is shortsighted, as it is incorrect. Conditions in Europe have changed during the last century to such an extent that criticism of the advantage of colonial possessions must be based on quite different considerations. The population of the European large countries has increased to such an extent that on the one hand there is not room in the country for all individuals, and on the other the land no more produces the entire food supply for its population. It becomes, therefore, necessary to obtain part of this supply from abroad, for which the equivalent in money must be furnished in form of industrial products. There must, therefore, be regions from which food may be imported, and other regions to

which industrial products may be exported. A country which intends to continue to compete for the world trade requires, therefore, a merchant marine in order to take and ship goods. But in order to buy and sell on the most favorable terms, it requires countries subject to its influence, i. e., colonies whose ports will be open to its ships, no matter what the constellations on the political horizon are.

The advantages resulting from the possession of colonies are at present to be found no more in the fact that they turn into the mother country the greatest possible amount of wealth in a direct way (though indirectly they will continue to do so through commerce and other intercourse), but in the fact that they are likely to contribute toward the political stability of the mother country under all political conditions. The excess of citizens will preferably turn toward the colonies of the mother country. By the proper shaping of the tariff the imports may be restricted to the mother country (for example, the new tariff arrangement between Great Britain and Canada), while the mother country at the same time possesses in the colonies a source of supply for the lacking food stuffs. Thus, even in case the colony requires subsidies in addition to its direct revenues, in most cases it is only a question of time when it is to become a source of profit, for any tropical region requires a long time before the primeval forests and prairies are turned into plantations and fields.

From all that has been said it becomes clear that the State is under obligation to protect its merchant marine and colonies by an adequately strong navy.

#### TWENTIETH-CENTURY REQUIREMENTS FOR COLONIES.

To sum up, the fundamental principles for the administration of colonies during the twentieth century should be as follows:

1. For the purpose of enabling the colony to receive immigration, furnish food stuffs and raw materials in exchange for the industrial products of the mother country, the colony should be opened and developed by agricultural improvements, the construction of roads and railways, subsidies to agricultural undertakings, and educating the people up to the wants of higher civilization.
2. With progressing development the forms of colonial government should be changed so as to turn over at a certain point of development the administration of the colony to the colonists themselves.
3. Protection of the merchant marine and the colonies by a strong navy.

## THE COLONIES OF THE WORLD.

### FORM OF GOVERNMENT, AREA, POPULATION, COMMERCE, ETC., OF THE COLONIES, PROTECTORATES, AND DEPENDENCIES OF THE WORLD.

The colonies, protectorates, and dependencies of the world number 140. They occupy two-fifths of the land surface of the globe, and their population is one-third of the entire people of the earth. Of the 500,000,000 people thus governed, over three-fourths live between the tropics of Cancer and Capricorn, or within what is known as the Torrid Zone, and all of the governing countries lie in the North Temperate Zone. Throughout the globe-encircling area known as the Torrid Zone no important independent government exists save upon the continent of America.

The total imports of the colonies and protectorates average more than \$1,500,000,000 worth of goods annually, and of this vast sum more than 40 per cent is purchased from the mother countries. Of their exports, which considerably exceed their imports, 40 per cent goes to the mother countries. Large sums are annually expended in the construction of roads, canals, railways, telegraphs, postal service, schools, etc., but in most cases the present annual expenditures are derived from local revenues or are represented by local obligations. The revenues of the British colonies in 1899 were £126,000,000, and their expenditures £121,000,000. While the public debt in the more important and active of these communities aggregates a large sum, it is represented by canals, railways, public highways, harbors, irrigation, and other public improvements intended to stimulate commerce and production, the railroads in operation in the British colonies alone aggregating 55,000 miles.

The most acceptable, and therefore most successful of the colonial systems, are those in which the largest liberty of self-government is given to the people. The British colonial system, which has by far outgrown that of any other nation, gives, wherever practicable, a large degree of self-government to the colonies. The governors are in all cases appointed by the Crown, but the law making and enforcing power, being left to legislative bodies which are elected by the people where practicable, in minor cases a portion being elected and a portion appointed, and in still others the appointments divided between the British Government and local municipal or trade organizations, the veto power being in all cases, however, retained by the home Government. The enforcement of the laws is intrusted to courts and subordinate organizations, whose members are in many cases residents or natives of the communities under their jurisdiction. In the French colonies less attention is given to law making and administration by local legislative bodies, the more important of the colonies being given members in the legislative bodies of the home Government. In the Netherlands colonies and in the less advanced communities under British control the laws and regulations are administered in conjunction with native functionaries.

Of the 140 colonies, protectorates, dependencies, and "spheres of influence" which make up the total list, two-fifths belong to Great Britain, their area being about one-half of the grand total and their population considerably more than one-half of the grand total. France is next in order in number, area, and population of colonies, etc., though the area controlled by France is but about one-third that belonging to Great Britain and the population of her colonies less than one-sixth of those of Great Britain.

In the more prosperous and progressive colonies the percentage of importations from the mother countries grows somewhat less as the business and prosperity increase. The chief British colonies in North America (Canada and Newfoundland), which in 1871 took 50 per cent of their importations from the home country, took in 1899 less than 25 per cent from the United Kingdom; those of South Africa (Cape Colony and Natal), which in 1871 took 83 per cent from the home country, took but 68.6 per cent in 1899; those of Australia and the adjacent islands, which in 1876 took 48 per cent from the home country, in 1899 took but 37 per cent.

[In the statements which follow the information has been compiled from the reports of the respective Governments where practicable, and from standard publications, including the Colonial Office List (British), the Statesman's Year-Book, Whitaker's Almanack, Almanach de Gotha, Statistician and Economist, Commercial Year-Book, American Annual Cyclopædia, etc.]

### COLONIES OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

The method of government, population, area, revenues, expenditures, imports and exports, etc., in the principal colonies, protectorates, and dependencies of the British Empire are outlined in the following statements, which are arranged in alphabetical order under the grand divisions of the world to which they belong.

The British colonies proper form three classes: (1) The Crown colonies, which are entirely controlled by the home Government; (2) the representative colonies, in which the Crown retains the control of public officers, but leaves the lawmaking to legislative bodies, retaining, however, a veto on legislation; (3) those having responsible governments, in which the Crown, though appointing the governor, has no control over any public officer, the laws being made by legislative bodies, the Crown, however, retaining a veto on legislation.

## EUROPE.

## GIBRALTAR.

[Area, 2 square miles; population, 24,701, including garrison of 5,653 men.]

A Crown colony in southern Spain, commanding the entrance to the Mediterranean. The governor, appointed by the Crown, is also commander in chief, exercising all the functions of government and legislation. Area, 2 square miles; population, 24,701. The revenue is obtained from port dues, excise, post-office, rent of Crown estate, etc. The legal currency is that of Spain—the peseta.<sup>1</sup>

Revenue .....	pounds sterling..	1899. 59,954
Expenditure.....	do.....	59,520
Total tonnage of vessels entered (1898) .....	tons..	4,328,859
Total tonnage of British vessels entered (1898) .....	do.....	3,241,492

## MALTA.

[Area, 117 square miles; population, 181,650.]

An island in the Mediterranean. Area, 117 square miles; population, 181,650. The governor, appointed by the Crown, is assisted by an executive council. Legislation is carried on by a council of government, 6 of which are appointed by the governor and 13 elected. Revenues are collected from customs, licenses, lands, rentals of Crown property, and postage.

Revenue .....	pounds sterling..	1899. 354,265
Expenditure.....	do.....	351,354
Imports .....	do.....	6,668,961
Exports .....	do.....	5,449,501
Imports from United Kingdom .....	do.....	297,830
Exports to United Kingdom .....	do.....	919,207
Total tonnage of vessels entered .....	tons..	3,297,712
Total number of vessels entered .....		3,560
Total number of British vessels entered .....		1,514
Public debt .....	pounds sterling..	79,168

## ASIA.

## ADEN.

[Area, 80 square miles; population, 41,910.]

A peninsula on the Arabian coast. Area, 80 square miles (including Perim); population (1891), 41,910. The government is administered by a political resident, who is also commander of the troops. The government revenue is derived from a duty on liquor, opium, and salt. Local taxes go to the municipality. Aden is legally a portion of British India, and is also the center of a British protectorate over the neighboring Arab tribes, which are independent of Turkish rule and in subordinate treaty relations with the government of India.

Imports of merchandise:		1893-1900.
By sea .....	rupees..	38,099,806
By land.....	do.....	2,750,444
Exports of merchandise:		
By sea .....	do.....	30,460,258
By land.....	do.....	1,140,755
Total tonnage of vessels entered .....	tons..	2,467,665

## BRITISH NORTH BORNEO.

[Area, 31,106 square miles; population, 175,000.]

A territory occupying the northern part of the island of Borneo, in the East Indies, midway between Hongkong and Port Darwin, Australia. Area, 31,106 square miles; population, 175,000. The government is administered by a governor in Borneo and a court of directors in London appointed under the charter. The governor is assisted by a treasurer-general and one resident each for the west coast, Labuan, and Duvel Bay, all appointed by the court of directors. The colony of Labuan is also under the government of the British North Borneo Company. The laws are based on the Indian penal, criminal, and civil procedure codes and local proclamations and ordinances. The military consists of a native force of 450 men under European officers with one machine and two mountain guns. The revenue is from stamp duty, licenses, import duties, royalties, land sales, opium tax, excise tax, etc.

Revenue .....	dollars..	1899. 542,919
Expenditure .....	do.....	410,290
Imports .....	do.....	2,456,998
Exports .....	do.....	3,439,560

<sup>1</sup> Value of peseta, 19.3 cents.

## CEYLON.

[Area, 25,365 square miles; population, 3,477,094.]

An island in the Indian Ocean. Area, 25,365 square miles; population (1899), 377,094. The government consists of a governor, aided by an executive council of 5 members and a legislative council of 17 members, including the members of the executive council, 4 other officeholders, and 8 unofficial members and representatives of different races and classes in the community. The island is divided into nine provinces, presided over by government agents, who, with their assistants and subordinate headmen, are the channel of communication between the government and the natives. Justice is administered by a police and district courts and a supreme court, through laws based upon the Roman-Dutch law, modified by colonial ordinances. The British troops number 2,006, with a local volunteer force of 1,170. Principal sources of revenue are customs, excise tax, licenses, stamps, port and harbor dues, and a tax upon salt.

	1899.
Public revenue .....	pounds sterling.. 1,727,543
Public expenditure .....	do.... 1,663,497
Imports (including bullion and specie).....	do.... 7,466,157
Exports (including bullion and specie).....	do.... 6,771,794
Imports from the United Kingdom .....	do.... 2,103,680
Exports to the United Kingdom .....	do.... 4,071,743
Total tonnage of vessels entered and cleared .....	tons.. 7,439,205
Post-offices, 1898.....	number.. 364
Telegraph lines, 1900 .....	miles.. 2,266
Paper money in circulation, 1900.....	rupees.. 14,237,450
Savings-bank deposits.....	do.... 4,910,230

## CYPRUS.

[Area, 3,584 square miles; population, 227,900.]

An island in the Mediterranean, 60 miles off the coast of Asia Minor. The government is administered, under the colonial office, by a high commissioner, assisted by an executive council of 4 members, and a legislative council composed of 18 members, 6 being official and 12 elected. The island is divided into three electoral districts, each returning 1 Mohammedan and 3 Christian members. There are six administrative districts, each represented by a commissioner, and having a court of law presided over by an English barrister, assisted by two native judges, one a Christian and one Mohammedan. There is also a supreme court for the whole island, consisting of two English judges. Revenue is derived chiefly from customs duties, excise, stamps, taxes on immovable property, and a salt monopoly.

	1900.
Customs revenue, 1896-97 .....	pounds sterling... 30,571
Total revenue, 1897 .....	do.... 200,638
Total expenditure .....	do.... 134,682
Total imports, 1899 .....	do.... 289,962
Imports from the United Kingdom .....	do.... 82,411
Total exports, 1896 .....	do.... 264,851
Exports to United Kingdom.....	do.... 55,632
Telegraph lines .....	miles..
Letters delivered:	
Local .....	number.. 338,387
Foreign .....	do.... 289,397
Public debt.....	None.

## HONGKONG.

[Area, 29 square miles; population, including military and naval, 254,400.]

An island off the southeastern coast of China, ceded to Great Britain in 1841. It is a military and naval station for the protection of British commerce, and the center of a vast trade in many kinds of produce. There being no custom-house there are no official returns of the value of the imports and exports, but only mercantile estimates, which put the actual trade of the colony at over £20,000,000 per annum. In the year 1899 the shipping entering the port amounted to 6,720,769 tons. Hongkong is a Crown colony, its government being administered by a governor appointed by the home government, aided by an executive council of 8 members, together with a legislative council of 14 members. The revenue is derived chiefly from land, taxes, and licenses, and an opium monopoly, which together more than cover the expenses of administration. Justice is administered by a supreme court, a police magistrate's court, and a marine magistrate's court.

	1899.
Revenue .....	dollars.. 3,610,142
Expenditure .....	do.... 3,162,791
Estimated imports and exports .....	pounds sterling... 25,000,000
Imports from the United Kingdom .....	do.... 2,688,609
Exports to the United Kingdom.....	do.... 883,126
Total tonnage entered .....	tons.. 6,720,769
Bank notes in circulation, 1898 .....	dollars.. 10,121,597
Coin in circulation, 1894.....	do.... 23,199,612



## BRITISH INDIA.

[Area, British India, 903,908; native States, 655,695; total, 1,559,603 square miles. Population, British India, 222,025,357; States, 65,097,993; total, 287,123,350.]

British India comprises that part of the Indian peninsula directly or indirectly under British rule, and includes, in the general term, certain countries beyond that area which are under the control or protection of the governor-general. In the more limited sense of the term, British India applies to the districts under direct British administration, excluding native States, and in the statements which follow the term includes only the districts under direct British control and administration. The executive authority is vested in a governor-general, commonly termed viceroy, who is appointed by the Crown and acts under the orders of the secretary of state for India, who is a member of the home (British) Government and conducts Indian business in England. The secretary of state for India is assisted by a council of not less than ten members, the major part of whom must have served or resided ten years in India and not have left India more than ten years previous to the date of their appointment. The governor-general, termed viceroy, who is appointed by the Crown or secretary of state, is assisted in his administration in India by an executive council of seven members, governors of provinces and lieutenant-governors becoming ex-officio members of the council when it meets within their provinces. All acts of the supreme government in India run in the name of "The governor-general in council," but the governor-general has the power of overruling the opinions of the majority of his council. The council when it meets for purposes of legislation consists of the above members and "additional members for making laws and regulations," and there are similar legislative councils in the chief provinces. In addition to the viceroy, or governor-general, the governors of Madras, Bombay, and the commander in chief, the ordinary members of councils of the governor-general, and the governors of Madras and Bombay, and the governors of the presidency high courts are appointed by the Crown or home secretary of state. The appointment of lieutenant-governor is made by the governor-general, subject to the approval of the secretary of state.

The business of the government of India is divided into departments of finance and commerce, home affairs, revenue, agriculture, military administration, legislation, public works, and foreign affairs. Each department is under the charge of a secretary, and is also the special care of a member of the supreme council. Separate high courts have been established for the various provinces. British India is now divided into thirteen local governments and administrations, which enjoy a large measure of financial and administrative independence. The unit of administration throughout British India is the district, at the head of which is an executive officer called collector magistrate, or deputy commissioner, as the case may be. He has entire control, and is responsible to the governor of the province. The total number of these districts is at present 247. The chief justices of the courts of the provinces are former residents of England, but many of the judges and members of the lawmaking councils are natives. Appellate and original jurisdiction is exercised in the supreme courts by 72 judges of chief courts, with jurisdiction over the whole province; 124 judges, with jurisdiction beyond one district; 492 judges of chief courts in a district; 1,208 subordinate district judges, and 7,565 judges of lesser courts.

Revenues are collected principally from lands, salt, opium, excise, customs, stamps, and provincial rates, the importance being in the order named. The most important source of income is the land revenue, which is levied according to an assessment on estates or holdings fixed periodically at intervals of from twelve to thirty years. In permanently settled tracts the land revenue falls at a rate of about one-third of a rupee per acre of cultivated land, and represents, on an average, about one-fifth of the rental, or one-twenty-fourth of the gross value of the produce.

The total length of railways open in India March 31, 1901, was 25,035 miles. Nearly one-half of this mileage was State lines worked by companies, and one-fourth State lines worked by the State, about one-tenth being lines owned by native States and worked by companies or State railway agency. The total capital expended on the State railways in India to the end of 1899 was 1,808,431,230 rupees; on State lines leased to companies, 443,002,150 rupees; on guaranteed railways, 523,116,640; total, including other lines, 3,111,685,620 rupees. The total miles of roads maintained by public authority is 152,073. The irrigation canals are over 1,000 miles in length, with nearly 10,000 miles of distributaries.

	1900.
Revenue, 1899.....	rupees.. 1,014,266,930
Expenditure, 1899.....	do.... 974,653,830
Imports of merchandise.....	do.... 707,118,634
Exports of merchandise.....	do.... 1,089,761,873
Imports from the United Kingdom.....	do.... 487,531,911
Exports to the United Kingdom.....	do.... 308,838,872
Number of educational institutions, 1899.....	149,948
Number of pupils in attendance.....	4,357,821
Army expenditure.....	rupees.. 223,534,500
Army establishment:	
Number of Europeans.....	74,288
Number of natives.....	140,640
Land cultivated, 1899.....	acres.. 196,487,658
Total tonnage of vessels entered, 1897.....	4,470,348
Total tonnage of British vessels entered, 1897.....	3,650,004
Railway lines in operation.....	miles.. 25,035
Telegraph lines in operation, 1899.....	miles of wire.. { 160,650
	51,769
Number of paid messages sent, 1899.....	miles of line.. 5,448,600
Number of telegraph offices, 1899.....	1,719
Number of post-offices, 1899.....	29,122
Number of letters delivered, 1899.....	431,012,691
Number of newspapers delivered, 1899.....	32,122,502

The following table shows the items of revenue and expenditure for 1896-97 (revised estimate) and 1900-1901 (budget estimate), stated in rupees:<sup>1</sup>

[From The Statesman's Year-Book.]

REVENUE.			EXPENDITURE.		
HEADS OF REVENUE.	1896-1900	1900-1901	HEADS OF EXPENDITURE.	1896-1900	1900-1901
	<i>Rupees.</i>	<i>Rupees.</i>		<i>Rupees.</i>	<i>Rupees.</i>
Land revenue.....	258,012,000	271,180,000	Interest.....	29,317,500	29,427,500
Opium.....	66,057,000	68,297,000	Refunds, compensations, etc.....	18,894,000	18,657,000
Salt.....	88,187,000	87,678,000	Charges of collection.....	93,118,500	96,200,000
Stamps.....	48,475,000	49,017,000	Post-office, telegraph, and mint.....	29,581,000	31,666,000
Excise.....	57,909,000	57,290,000	Civil salaries, etc.....	161,733,500	166,342,000
Provincial rates.....	37,718,000	39,196,000	Miscellaneous civil charges.....	60,778,500	59,011,000
Customs.....	47,299,000	47,013,000	Famine relief and insurance.....	31,094,500	50,525,000
Assessed taxes.....	19,540,000	19,597,000	Railway construction.....	36,000	1,278,000
Forests.....	18,656,000	17,833,000	Railway revenue account.....	247,891,000	261,253,500
Registration.....	4,221,000	4,402,000	Irrigation.....	33,626,500	34,537,500
Tribute.....	9,261,000	9,277,000	Buildings and roads.....	61,961,500	62,442,000
Interest.....	9,069,000	9,460,000	Army.....	225,445,500	243,881,500
Post-office, telegraph, and mint.....	36,994,000	35,963,000	Defense works.....	3,000	.....
Civil departments.....	17,629,500	17,663,000	Total.....	992,679,000	1,058,191,000
Miscellaneous.....	8,180,000	8,161,500	Expenditure from provincial balances.....	2,985,000	8,259,000
Railways.....	246,964,000	256,973,000			
Irrigation.....	36,228,000	36,094,000			
Buildings and roads.....	6,627,000	6,654,500			
Military departments.....	10,359,000	10,563,500			
Total revenue.....	1,027,985,500	1,052,337,500	Total expenditure charged against revenue.....	989,694,000	1,049,932,000

<sup>1</sup> Value of rupee 32.3 cents.

[In the above statements the native feudatory states are not included. They may, however, be properly considered as within the British "sphere of influence," The Statesman's Year-Book, published in London, including them in its table of area and population of the British Empire, while Whitaker's Almanack, also published in London, reporting them as "subject to the control of the supreme (British) government, which is exercised in varying degree, being, generally speaking, governed by native princes, ministers, or councils, with the help and under the advice of a political officer of the supreme government." The British Statistical Abstract for the Colonial and Other Possessions of the United Kingdom gives their area at 595,167 square miles, with a population of 66,050,479, according to the census of 1891.]

#### STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

[Area, 1,542 square miles; population, 1899, 604,916.]

A British possession on the west coast of the Malay Peninsula, the name being derived from the Straits of Malacca, on which the settlements are situated. The settlements include Singapore, Penang, or Prince of Wales Island, the province of Wellesley, and Malacca. The bulk of the population consists of Chinese and Malays. The government consists of a governor, appointed by the Crown, assisted by an executive council of 8 members and a legislative council of 9 official and 7 unofficial members, also appointed by the Crown. Two additional unofficial members are appointed by the chamber of commerce at Singapore and Penang. The resident councilors of Penang and Malacca have seats in both councils. The law of the colony is the common and statute law of England, qualified by Indian acts and local ordinances. The supreme court consists of the chief justice and 3 associate justices, a court of appeal, and a vice-admiralty court in Singapore and Penang; also magistrates' courts in each settlement. Revenues are collected from licenses, port and harbor dues, land revenues, and stamps. The ports are wholly free from duties on imports and exports. The garrison consists of 1 battalion of infantry, 2 batteries of European artillery, half a company of fortress engineers, and a company of Malay submarine miners; also an armed police force of 38 officers and 1,888 men, and a battery of volunteer artillery of 105 men. The commerce centered at Singapore is largely a transit trade, passing thence to eastern Asia and Oceania. The Malay Federated States of Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan, and Pahang, with an area of 26,500 square miles and a population in 1891 of 418,527, are also under the general charge of the governor-general of the Straits Settlements.

	1899.
Total receipts.....	dollars.. 5,200,025
Total expenditures.....	do.... 5,061,013
Imports (exclusive of coasting traffic).....	do.... 283,939,452
Exports (exclusive of coasting traffic).....	do.... 239,054,727
Imports from United Kingdom.....	do.... 29,389,082
Exports to United Kingdom.....	do.... 47,015,148
Total tonnage of vessels entered.....	tons.. 6,595,075

NOTE.—The Mexican silver dollar is the standard coin. The British standard dollar and the Hongkong dollar are also legal tender.

#### AFRICA.

##### BASUTOLAND.

[Area, 10,293 square miles; population, 250,000.]

Basutoland lies upon the northeast of Cape Colony, South Africa. It is governed by a resident commissioner, under the direction of the high commissioner for South Africa, the latter possessing legislative authority, which is exercised by proclamation. This colony is divided into 7 districts for fiscal and governmental purposes, each district being subdivided into wards, presided over by hereditary

chiefs. The currency is exclusively British, but exchange is largely conducted by barter. The revenue is produced by the sale of licenses and by a native hut tax (20 shillings per annum), the post-offices, and an annual contribution of £18,000 from the Cape Colony government.

	1900.	
Revenue .....	pounds sterling..	69,769
Expenditure .....	do....	59,492
Population .....		250,000
Imports (dutiable only) .....	pounds sterling..	85,527
Exports .....	do....	133,864

## BECHUANALAND.

[Area, 386,200 square miles; population, estimated at 100,500.]

A protectorate, adjacent to the Transvaal, Cape Colony, and Rhodesia. The government is administered by the British high commissioner of Cape Colony, who has the power of making laws by proclamation for the protectorate, where he is represented by a resident commissioner and two assistant commissioners. The population is almost entirely native, belonging to three principal tribes, whose chiefs rule their own people as formerly, but under the protection of the Crown, represented by a resident commissioner with assistants acting under the high commissioner of the Cape Colony. The revenue is collected from a hut tax by the chiefs, and customs duties on imports. Railroads and telegraph lines are in operation and being extended.

	1899.	
Revenue .....	pounds sterling..	47,511
Expenditure .....	do....	88,448
Railways .....	miles..	586

## CAPE COLONY.

[Area, 227,151 square miles; population, 2,265,500.]

A colony of South Africa, belonging to the class known as the responsible-government colonies, having a constitution and a legislative council which enacts the laws. The governor is named by the Crown, and by virtue of his office is commander in chief of the forces within the colony. His council consists of a prime minister, a treasurer, colonial secretary, attorney-general, commissioner of public works, and secretary of agriculture. The colony is divided into 77 divisions, and its dependencies into 30 districts, with a civil commissioner in each division, who is also a resident magistrate. There is in each of these divisions, except three, a council, composed of 6 elected members, who have charge of roads, boundaries, beacons, and other matters of this character. The 97 municipalities are governed by mayors, or chairmen and councilors. The legislature consists of a legislative council of 23 members, elected for seven years, and a house of assembly of 95 members, elected for five years. These are elected by voters who must have a house property of the value of £75 or a salary of £50, and be able to sign their names and state in writing their occupations and addresses. Justice is administered by a supreme court, consisting of a chief justice and 8 associate justices, who hold sessions at Cape Town, and circuit courts in various districts. The Roman-Dutch law, modified by colonial statutes, forms the great bulk of the laws of the colony. Revenues are chiefly from customs, excise, and land taxes. The colony has a public debt of £31,409,755; about two-thirds of this sum is expended on railways, the remainder on harbors, public roads, etc. There are over 8,000 miles of roads in the colony proper, 1,990 miles of government railway completed, 500 miles under construction, and 6,619 miles of telegraph line.

	1899.	
Revenue .....	pounds sterling..	8,781,212
Expenditure .....	do....	8,190,124
Imports of merchandise .....	do....	14,561,373
Exports of colonial produce .....	do....	22,831,386
Imports from the United Kingdom .....	do....	9,911,503
Exports to the United Kingdom .....	do....	22,647,719
Government railways .....	miles..	1,990
Private railways .....	do....	400
Telegraph lines open .....	do....	7,360
Telegraph messages sent .....	number..	2,582,451
Letters, newspapers, and cards posted .....	do....	33,952,027
Total tonnage of vessels entered .....	tons..	3,324,147
Total tonnage of British vessels entered .....	do....	3,175,855

## BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA PROTECTORATE.

[Area, 42,217 square miles; population, 900,650.]

A territory in Central Africa, lying on the southern and western shores of Lake Nyassa and extending toward the Zambezi; proclaimed a British protectorate in 1891. The protectorate comprises the eastern portion of British Central Africa, and is administered directly through the foreign office of the Imperial Government by a resident commissioner and consul-general. The protectorate is divided into 12 administrative stations, in which regulations are enforced by officers appointed by the representatives of the Imperial Government. The army necessary to maintain order amounts to 1,285 men, mostly native troops, commanded by English officers.

Area of the protectorate .....	square miles..	42,217
Population .....		900,650
Revenue .....	pounds sterling..	31,314
Imports, 1899 .....	do....	99,290
Exports, 1899 .....	do....	35,263
Post-offices .....		20

## BRITISH EAST AFRICA.

[Area, 1,000,000 square miles; population, 2,500,000.]

British East Africa, under the immediate control of the foreign office, consists of a large area on the mainland of eastern Africa (including the East Africa protectorate and Uganda protectorate), the area being estimated at more than 1,000,000 square miles. The East Africa protectorate, which extends from the Umba to the Juba River and inland to the borders of Uganda, is under the control of a commissioner and the consul-general, appointed by the Crown, and is divided for purposes of administration into four provinces, each under a subcommissioner. The population is estimated at 2,500,000, including 25,000 Asiatic and 450 Europeans and Eurasians. The territory is held on a fifty years' lease from the Sultan of Zanzibar. A large portion of the territory is almost unexplored.

The Uganda protectorate is administered by a special commissioner and commander in chief, but the native son of Mwanga nominally reigns. Uganda proper lies on the northwest shore of Lake Victoria, about 600 miles from the nearest point on the east coast of Africa, on the equator, and 600 miles west of the east coast of Africa. The total population of the protectorate is estimated at 2,500,000, and of Uganda proper, 300,000. A railroad is being constructed to connect Uganda with the coast of Mombosa, the capital of the East Africa protectorate.

The Zanzibar protectorate is administered through an agent and consul-general, appointed by the Crown. The present Sultan, who was installed in 1896, rules over the native population. The city of Zanzibar, which has a population of about 30,000, was declared a free port in February, 1892, and remained so until October, 1899, when a 5 per cent ad valorem duty was imposed on imports. The revenues are mostly derived from customs dues and a tax on produce.

East Africa protectorate:		1899.
Customs revenue .....	pounds..	69,400
Imports, 1900 .....	rupees..	6,642,000
Exports, 1900 .....	do....	1,825,000
Zanzibar:		
Imports .....	pounds sterling..	1,596,606
Exports .....	do....	1,513,407
Imports from British India .....	do....	491,548
Imports from Great Britain .....	do....	146,143
Exports to British India .....	do....	129,896
Exports to Great Britain .....	do....	116,964
Total tonnage entering the port .....	tons..	324,961

## MAURITIUS.

[Area, 705 square miles; population, 379,659.]

An island in the Indian Ocean, 500 miles east of Madagascar. The area is 705 English square miles and the population 379,659, of which two-thirds were natives, of African, Chinese, and mixed races. The government is administered by a governor appointed by the Crown, aided by an executive council consisting of the military commander, colonial secretary, procureur-general, receiver-general, auditor-general, and 2 elected members of the council of government who are ex-officio members. There is also a council of government consisting of the governor and 27 members, 10 being elected, 8 ex officio, and 9 nominated by the governor. A constitution was granted in 1885, introducing an elective element into the legislature by which 10 members are elected. The principal sources of revenue are customs dues, licenses, permits, and railway traffic.

		1899.
Total revenue .....	rupees..	9,066,313
Total expenditure .....	do....	8,407,082
Public debt .....	£1,192,184	
Paper money in circulation, 1897 .....	rupees..	3,114,250
Total imports of merchandise .....	do....	19,096,212
Total exports of merchandise .....	do....	24,745,029
Imports from the United Kingdom .....	do....	7,403,991
Exports to the United Kingdom .....	do....	1,743,225
Total tonnage of vessels entered .....	tons..	377,369
Length of railway .....	miles..	105
Revenue from railway .....	rupees..	1,876,302
Expenditure on railway, 1896 .....	do....	1,254,133
Letters, newspapers, etc., delivered through post-offices .....	number..	2,875,360
Deposits in government savings bank .....	rupees..	2,885,942

## NATAL.

[Area, 35,019 square miles; population, 1891, 902,365.]

A colony of South Africa, formerly part of the Cape of Good Hope Settlement, but granted a charter of constitution in 1856, modified in 1875, 1879, and 1893. The province of Zululand was annexed in December, 1897. By the present constitution legislative authority resides in the Queen, a legislative council, and the legislative assembly. The governor is appointed by the Crown, and he in turn appoints the ministers, and, with their advice, the members of the legislative council. The legislative council consists of 12 members, who must be property owners, and who hold their seats for ten years, the president of the council being appointed by the governor. The legislative assembly consists of 37 members, chosen by the electors. No money bill can pass unless recommended to the assembly

by message of the governor. Revenues are collected from railways, customs, excise, land sales, mails, telegraphs, stamps, licenses, and a native hut tax.

	1899.
Total revenue .....	pounds sterling.. 2,081,349
Total expenditure .....	do.... 1,914,724
Public debt .....	do.... 9,019,143
Imports .....	do.... 5,359,259
Exports .....	do.... 1,325,197
Per cent of imports from the United Kingdom .....	65
Per cent of exports to the United Kingdom .....	59
Tonnage of vessels entered in 1896 .....	tons.. 1,397,306
Railways constructed and worked by the government .....	miles.. 591

## ORANGE RIVER COLONY.

The territory occupied by Great Britain in 1900, formerly known as Orange Free State, and that also occupied in the same year and formerly known as the South African Republic or Transvaal, have, since occupation by Great Britain, been designated, respectively, as Orange River colony and Transvaal colony. Both these colonies have been placed under the government of the high commissioner for South Africa, who is appointed governor of these colonies, and it is announced that when civil government is restored the governor will be assisted by an executive council and that the general aim will be to provide a constitution leading to self-government. Municipalities, with the usual powers for local administration, are to be created at the various cities and centers, and local laws, customs, and conditions, as far as possible, respected.

The area of the colony, according to the Statesman's Yearbook of 1901, is estimated at 48,326 square miles; it is divided into eighteen districts. At a census taken in 1890 the white population was found to be 77,716—40,571 males and 37,145 females. Of the population, 51,910 were born in the Orange River colony and 21,116 in the Cape colony. There were, besides, 129,787 natives in the colony—67,791 males and 61,996 females—making a total population of 207,503. The capital, Bloemfontein, had 2,077 white inhabitants in 1890 and 1,302 natives, but the inhabitants are now probably at least double that number. Of the white population, 10,761 were returned in 1890 as directly engaged in agriculture, while there were 41,817 "colored servants."

## TRANSCAAL COLONY.

The occupation of this territory by the British Government and the form of government established are described under the head of Orange River colony. The area of the Transvaal colony is, according to the Statesman's Yearbook of 1901, 119,139 square miles, divided into twenty districts, and its white population, according to a very incomplete census of 1896, is 245,397, of whom 137,947 are men and 107,450 women; the native population in April, 1896, was estimated at 622,500. The State Almanack for 1898 gave the population as follows: Whites, 245,397 (137,947 males and 107,450 females); natives, 748,759 (148,155 men, 183,280 women, and 417,324 children); total population, 1,094,156. The boundaries are defined in the convention of February 27, 1884, modified by subsequent conventions relating to the district of Vrijheid, and the territory of Swaziland. The capital is Pretoria, with a white population of 10,000.

The Transvaal colony is specially favorable for agriculture as well as stock rearing, though its capacities in this respect are not yet developed. It is estimated that 50,000 acres are under cultivation. The agricultural produce, however, is not sufficient for the wants of the population. There are about 12,245 farms, of which 3,636 belong to government, 1,612 to outside owners and companies, and the rest to resident owners and companies.

Gold mining is carried on to a great extent in the various gold fields, principally Barberton and Witwatersrand.

The total value of gold production from the year 1884 has been:

YEARS.	Pounds sterling.	YEARS.	Pounds sterling.
1884.....	10,096	1893.....	5,480,496
1885.....	6,010	1894.....	7,667,152
1886.....	34,710	1895.....	8,569,555
1887.....	169,401	1896.....	8,603,821
1888.....	967,416	1897.....	11,476,260
1889.....	1,490,568	1898.....	16,044,135
1890.....	1,869,645		
1891.....	2,324,305	Total .....	69,844,643
1892.....	4,641,071		

## WEST AFRICA.

[Estimated area, 600,000 square miles; population, 33,000,000.]

The British West African colonies, lying upon the coast of Western Africa, are the Gold Coast, Sierra Leone, Gambia, and Lagos. Gambia, which was made a separate colony in 1888, has an administrative officer appointed by the Crown, assisted by an executive council and a legislative council consisting of 4 official members and 2 unofficial members nominated by the Crown.

The Gold Coast colony comprises a population estimated at 1,500,000, of whom 500 are Europeans. The natives are almost all Pagans, but the number of Mohammedans and Christians is steadily increasing. The administration consists of a governor appointed by the Crown, assisted by an executive and a legislative council. Schools have been established, the towns lighted and policed, and 688 miles of telegraph established.

Sierra Leone has an estimated area of 4,000 square miles and a population of 78,835, of whom 224 are resident Europeans. Of the remainder the majority are liberated Africans and their descendants, brought from all parts of Africa, and as a result no less than 60 different languages are spoken in Freetown and every Christian denomination represented. The administration is vested in a governor

appointed by the Crown, assisted by an executive council of 6 members and a legislative council of 5 official and 2 unofficial members. Revenues are raised from specific duties on wines, spirits, ale and porter, tobacco, gunpowder, kerosene oil, lumber, hardware, salt and sugar, and a 10 per cent ad valorem duty on other goods.

The colony of Lagos proper consists of the island of Lagos and the strip of coast land lying between Dahomey and Southern Nigeria. It contains an area of 985 square miles and about 85,607 of population. The administration of the colony is conducted by a governor, aided by an executive and a legislative council. Revenues are derived chiefly from customs and excises. The Lagos protectorate includes an area of 21,000 square miles, extending from the limits of the colony proper west and northwest to the French possessions, northeast as far as Northern Nigeria, and to the east to the limits of Southern Nigeria. Its population is about 3,000,000, mostly Pagan, but containing, approximately, 12,000 Mohammedans and 6,000 Christians.

		1899.
<b>Gambia:</b>		
Revenue .....	pounds sterling..	46,840
Expenditure .....	do....	30,405
Total imports (for consumption).....	do....	240,907
Total exports.....	do....	241,936
<b>Gold Coast colony:</b>		
Public revenue .....	do....	322,796
Public expenditure .....	do....	309,658
Total imports.....	do....	1,323,218
Total exports.....	do....	1,111,738
<b>Sierra Leone:</b>		
Public revenue .....	do....	168,381
Public expenditure .....	do....	145,088
Total imports.....	do....	689,806
Total exports.....	do....	336,011
<b>Lagos:</b>		
Revenue .....	do....	192,792
Expenditure .....	do....	223,289
Imports.....	do....	966,595
Exports.....	do....	915,934

#### NIGERIA.

The protectorate of Nigeria in Western Africa includes the vast territory formerly controlled by the Chartered Royal Niger Company which was created by Sir George Goldie in 1882, under the name of the National African Company, for the purpose of securing this territory to Great Britain. The company, after receiving its charter, which authorized it to make political treaties with the native chiefs and establish forms of government to provide for the cession of the territory to the United Kingdom in the year 1900, proceeded to make treaties with several native chiefs and tribal representatives, and gradually established a form of government and control over the vast area designated as Northern Nigeria and Southern Nigeria. The joint area which is now known under the general term of Nigeria covers, according to the Statesman's Year-Book, between 400,000 and 500,000 square miles, and its population is variously estimated at from 25,000,000 to 40,000,000; but in the absence of any census, no reliance can be placed on such estimates. It is certain, however, that a great number of towns in Nigeria contain considerable populations. Among these, Kano is said to contain about 100,000 souls (the funerals averaging 10 per diem); Bida, 90,000; Ilorin, 50,000, and Yakoba, 50,000. About nine-tenths of the area and population of Nigeria were, until January 1, 1900, contained in the territories of the Chartered Royal Niger Company. With the object of this company, already stated, in view, political treaties conferring powers of administration or sovereign rights were made with several hundred nations, states, and tribes; but legal delays postponed, until July, 1886, the issue of the charter which, after thirteen and a half years of successful government, was surrendered on January 1, 1900, the whole of Nigeria thus coming under the administration of the Crown. In 1884 and 1887 a British protectorate was declared over the whole of Nigeria. The seaboard regions between the Lagos colony and the Forcados River, and between the Brass River and Kamerun were placed under consular jurisdiction, the Royal Niger Company having no influence in these portions. These seaboard regions were then known as the Oil Rivers protectorate; but no administration was established there until 1891, when Sir Claude MacDonald was sent out as imperial commissioner and consul-general to organize a government, which proved very successful. Soon afterwards the name of Niger Coast protectorate was given to these regions, and, in 1896, Sir Ralph Moore became imperial commissioner. In February, 1897, the Benin country, formerly governed by the Kings of Benin (or Addo), was included in the Niger Coast protectorate, and a British resident placed at Benin City. Considerable extensions were also made in the regions bordering on the Cross River.

For administrative reasons, the new province of Nigeria is temporarily divided into two governments, called, respectively, Northern Nigeria and Southern Nigeria. The boundary between these starts from the Lagos boundary at Owo and running east crosses the Niger a little to the north of Idda and continues to a point near Ashaku on the Anglo-German frontier laid down in the convention of 1893. For fiscal purposes, the customs revenues of Nigeria and Lagos—that is to say, practically the entire revenue—will be collected on the seaboard by the governments of Southern Nigeria and Lagos; and the allocation of this revenue to the three governments will be made by the secretary of state for the colonies. It is difficult to estimate the amount of this revenue, as the import and export duties of the Royal Niger Company are abolished. In the year 1899–1900 the total revenue amounted to £164,108. Imports, £725,798 (£597,998 from Great Britain); exports, £888,954 (£531,038 to Great Britain); in 1898–99, 379 vessels, of 559,912 tons, entered, and 375, of 551,555 tons, cleared.

#### RHODESIA.

[Area, about 425,728 square miles; population, 1,075,000.]

Rhodesia includes all that vast area lying north and west of the South African Republic and the twenty-second degree of south latitude and south of the Kongo Free State, and extending east and west to the limits of the Portuguese and German possessions, except the



region known as British Central Africa protectorate, southwest of Lake Nyassa, already described. The Zambezi River divides Rhodesia into two sections, known, respectively, as Northern and Southern Rhodesia.

Rhodesia is administered by the British South Africa Company under a royal charter granted in 1889, which vested in the company large powers of control, the right of constructing public works, and the maintenance of order. For purposes of administration Rhodesia is divided into three sections—Southern, Northeastern, and Northwestern Rhodesia. By orders in council promulgated in 1898 the administration of Southern Rhodesia is jointly vested in the company's senior administrator and a resident commissioner appointed by the secretary of state. These officers are assisted in the conduct of the government by an executive council consisting of 7 members. There is also a legislative council consisting of the senior administrator, the administrator of Matabeleland, the resident commissioner, and 5 members named by the company and approved by the secretary of state, and 4 elected members. The area of Southern Rhodesia is 192,000 square miles, with an estimated population of 461,965, of whom about 12,000 are Europeans. There are 3,234 miles of public roads, post-routes, etc., and 54 post-offices and 71 telegraph offices.

Northwestern Rhodesia and Northeastern Rhodesia are administered by the British South Africa Company. By special arrangement Northern Rhodesia is policed by armed forces under the British Central Africa protectorate.

	1900.
Revenue .....	pounds sterling.. 310,000
Expenditure.....	do.... 700,284
Gold production .....	ounces.. 65,000
Public roads completed .....	miles.. 3,234
Telegraph lines .....	do.... 3,451
Telegraph offices.....	number.. 71
Letters, cards, and packets dispatched.....	do.... 1,072,179

### AMERICA.

#### BERMUDAS.

[Area, 20 square miles; population, 16,423.]

A colony with representative government, located in the Atlantic Ocean 580 miles east of the coast of the United States and 677 miles from New York, consisting of a group of 350 small islands, 20 of which are inhabited. The area is 20 square miles, of which 4,000 acres are under cultivation. Population in 1899, 16,423, of which 6,282 were whites. The government is administered by a governor appointed by the Crown, assisted by an executive council of 6 members, a legislative council of 9 members appointed by the Crown, and a representative house of assembly of 36 members, elected by each of the 9 parishes. The electoral qualifications are the possession of freehold property of not less than \$300 value. Revenues are produced from duties upon nearly all articles imported and from excise and local taxation.

	1899.
Revenue .....	pounds sterling.. 39,955
Expenditure.....	do.... 39,243
Public debt, March 31 .....	do.... 44,800
Imports .....	do.... 394,388
Exports .....	do.... 119,151
Imports from Great Britain.....	do.... 104,408
Exports to Great Britain .....	do.... 2,063
Total tonnage of vessels entered and cleared.....	tons.. 568,779
Total tonnage of British vessels entered and cleared .....	do.... 483,430

#### CANADA.

[Area, 3,653,946 square miles; population, 5,338,883.]

The Dominion of Canada now embraces Ontario, Quebec, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward Island, British Columbia, Manitoba, and the Northwest Territory, thus including all British North America, except Newfoundland and Labrador. The area is 3,653,946 square miles, and the population 5,338,883.

The government consists of a governor-general and privy council appointed by the Crown, the legislative power being a parliament consisting of an upper house styled the senate and a house of commons. The members of the senate are appointed by the Crown for life, on the nomination of the governor-general and his council. The members of the house of commons are elected by the people, the term of service being five years. The senate consists of 81 members, of which 24 are from the Province of Ontario, 24 from Quebec, 10 from Nova Scotia, 10 from New Brunswick, 4 from Manitoba, 4 from Prince Edward Island, 3 from British Columbia, and 2 from the Territories. The house of commons has 213 members. Each province is divided into districts for the election of members of the house. Every male subject of the full age of 21 years, the owner or occupier of real property of actual value, in cities, of \$200, and elsewhere, \$150, or having an income from earnings of investments of not less than \$300, or the son of a farmer or other owner of real property of sufficient value to qualify both father and son, or a fisherman with property valued at \$150, is a voter. The "Queen's privy council" consists of premier and president of the council, secretary of state, postmaster-general, and ministers of trade and commerce, justice, marine and fisheries, railways and canals, militia and defense, finance, agriculture, public works, interior, customs and inland revenue, and two others without portfolio. Justice is administered by a supreme court composed of a chief justice and 5 associate justices; the exchequer court of Canada, the provincial courts, which include chancery, court of queen's bench, court of error, supreme court, county courts, general sessions, and division courts. The 7 provinces forming the Dominion have each a separate parliament and administration, with a lieutenant-governor at the head of the legislative assembly. They have full power to regulate their own local affairs, and dispose

of their revenues, provided that they do not interfere with the action and policy of the central government. Revenues are collected chiefly from customs and excise, over one-half the total receipts being from customs and over one-fourth from excise.

	1900.
Ordinary public revenue.....	\$51,029,904
Ordinary public expenditure.....	42,975,279
Net public debt, July 1.....	266,274,538
Total value of imports for home consumption.....	180,804,316
Total value of exports.....	191,894,723
Imports from United Kingdom, 1899.....	37,060,000
Imports from United States.....	93,007,000
Exports to United Kingdom, 1899.....	99,092,000
	1899.
Total tonnage of vessels entered.....	tons.. 22,662,476
Total tonnage of seagoing vessels entered.....	do... 6,733,151
Total tonnage of inland lake vessels entered and cleared.....	do... 12,183,056
Total tonnage of coasting vessels entered.....	do... 15,929,325
Passengers carried on railways.....	number.. 19,133,365
Freight tonnage of railways.....	tons.. 31,211,753
Post-offices.....	number.. 9,420
Letters, cards, newspapers, etc., delivered.....	do... 291,089,000
Telegraph lines.....	miles.. 33,074
Telegraph wire.....	do... 81,266
Telegraph lines (miles of wire).....	do... 82,219
Telegraph messages sent.....	number.. 4,830,000
Telephone messages sent.....	do... 114,953,381

## FALKLAND ISLANDS.

[Area, 7,500 square miles; population, 2,000.]

A Crown colony in the south Atlantic Ocean, 300 miles east of Magellan Straits, including about 100 small islands. Total area, 7,500 square miles; population, 2,000. The government is vested in a governor, aided by an executive council of 3 members, and a legislative council of 5, the members in each case being appointed by the Crown. The revenues are from customs and rents of Crown lands.

	1899.
Revenue.....	pounds sterling.. 13,219
Expenditure.....	do... 13,314
Total imports.....	do... 73,978
Total exports.....	do... 139,203
Imports from United Kingdom.....	do... 66,733
Exports to United Kingdom.....	do... 136,345

## BRITISH GUIANA.

[Area, 120,000 square miles; population, 287,288.]

The colony of British Guiana includes the settlements of Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, on the northeast coast of South America. The government consists of a governor assisted by a court of policy of 15 members, 7 official and 8 elected by the direct vote of the people, in which the governor has two votes and a veto on any measure at any stage. The court of policy acts as a legislative council, except as to levying taxes, which belongs to a combined court composed of the court of policy and 6 financial representatives elected by the people. In addition to these there is an executive council consisting of the governor, the government secretary, the attorney-general, and 6 other members nominated by the Crown; this council exercises all the executive and administrative functions of government other than those before mentioned. Qualifications of general electors include ownership of at least 3 acres of land, or tenancy of a house of £40 rental, or an income of £100 per annum, or payment of a certain amount of taxes.

	1900.
Revenue.....	pounds sterling.. 538,838
Expenditure.....	do... 525,542
Public debt.....	do... 928,775
Total imports.....	do... 1,318,701
Total domestic exports.....	do... 1,927,960
Imports from United Kingdom.....	do... 747,189
Exports to United Kingdom.....	do... 964,390
Total tonnage of vessels entered and cleared.....	tons.. 653,475

## BRITISH HONDURAS.

[Area, 7,562 square miles; population, 35,226.]

A Crown colony in central America, south of Yucatan, and fronting on the Caribbean Sea. The government is administered by a governor, assisted by an executive council which includes the colonial secretary and treasurer, the attorney-general, and two other

members. The legislative council includes a colonial secretary, treasurer, attorney-general, and not less than 5 unofficial members appointed by the sovereign. Revenues are derived from customs, duties, excise, land tax, and the sale and letting of Crown lands.

	1899.
Revenue .....	pounds sterling.. 51,535
Expenditure .....	do.... 53,994
Public debt .....	do.... 37,736
Total value of imports .....	do.... 212,237
Total exports .....	do.... 263,090
Imports from United Kingdom .....	do.... 66,562
Exports to United Kingdom .....	do.... 177,033
Total tonnage of vessels entered and cleared .....	tons.. 382,258
Total tonnage of British vessels entered and cleared .....	do... 156,519

## NEWFOUNDLAND AND LABRADOR.

[Area, 162,200; population, 214,006.]

Newfoundland is an island, the twelfth largest in the world, located at the mouth of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Labrador, on the mainland adjacent to Newfoundland, a dependency of Newfoundland, forms the most easterly part of America. The area of Newfoundland is 42,000 square miles; its population is 210,000. The area of Labrador is 120,000 square miles, and its population (in 1891) 4,106. The government is administered by a governor, appointed by the Crown; a responsible executive council of 9 members; a legislative council of 15 members, appointed for life; and a house of assembly of 36, elected by the people every four years.

	1899.
Gross public revenue (including loans) .....	pounds sterling.. 349,867
Gross public expenditure (including loans) .....	do.... 365,657
Public debt .....	do.... 3,407,558
Total imports .....	do.... 1,283,132
Total exports .....	do.... 1,425,270
Imports from the United Kingdom .....	do.... 397,607
Exports to United Kingdom .....	do.... 296,561
Total tonnage of vessels entered and cleared .....	tons.. 1,241,490
Total tonnage of British vessels entered and cleared .....	do... 1,045,572
Total railways open .....	miles.. 688
Telegraph lines open .....	do... 1,314

## JAMAICA.

[Area, 4,424 square miles; population, 745,104.]

An island situated in the Caribbean Sea, 90 miles south of Cuba, the largest of the British West Indian islands. Its area, including Turks and Caicos islands, is 4,424 square miles; population, 745,104. The government consists of a governor appointed by the Crown, assisted by a privy council and a legislative council, consisting, in addition to the governor, of the senior military officer, the colonial secretary, the attorney-general, director of public works and collector-general, and of such other persons, not exceeding 10, as the Queen or governor provisionally may appoint, called nominated members, and 14 members elected by the people, one for each parish of the island. Laws are administered by a high court of justice, circuit court, and a resident magistrate in each parish. Revenues are raised from customs, excise, and local taxation, about one-half being from customs.

	1899.
Public revenue .....	pounds sterling.. 773,610
Expenditure .....	do.... 719,059
Public debt .....	do.... 2,149,412
Total imports (including specie) .....	do.... 1,870,040
Total exports .....	do.... 1,899,990
Railways .....	miles.. 185
Telegraph .....	do.... 698
Messages delivered, 1897 .....	96,812
Letters and post cards delivered through post-offices .....	number.. 5,073,350

## BAHAMAS.

[Area, 5,450 square miles; population, 47,565.]

A group of 20 inhabited islands and a large number of uninhabited islands and rocks off the southeast coast of Florida. Area, 5,450 square miles; population, 47,565. The government is vested in a governor, aided by an executive council of 9 members, a legislative council of 9 members, and a representative assembly of 29 members. Electors are required to have a small property qualification. Revenues are raised from customs, excise, and local taxation, about one-half being from customs.

	1899.
Public revenue .....	pounds sterling.. 83,055
Public expenditure .....	do.... 69,251
Public debt .....	do.... 112,826
Total imports (including bullion and specie) .....	do.... 329,107
Total exports (including bullion and specie) .....	do.... 169,148

## THE WINDWARD ISLANDS.

[Area, 524 square miles; population, 157,401.]

A group of islands forming the eastern barrier to the Caribbean Sea between Martinique and Trinidad. They include St. Lucia, St. Vincent, the Grenadines, and Grenada, and are under the control of a governor and commander in chief appointed by the Crown, who appoints, subject to approval by the Crown, a legislative council in each of the islands. Each town has a board for local affairs, semielective for the chief town and wholly elective for the others, and each parish a nominated board for roads and sanitation. Each island is in charge of an "administrative and colonial secretary," who cooperates with the council in the forming and administration of laws and regulations. Although all of these islands are under one governor, there is no common legislature, laws, revenue, or tariff, each island having its own legislature and laws, although a common court of appeal administers law for all of the islands. The area of Grenada is 133 square miles; its population 64,098; St. Vincent has an area of 132 square miles; population, 44,633; St. Lucia, 233 square miles; population, 48,650.

	1899.
Revenue of group.....	pounds sterling.. 172, 446
Expenditure of group.....	do.... 171, 299
Imports of group.....	do.... 613, 419
Exports of group.....	do.... 399, 822

## LEEWARD ISLANDS.

[Area, 701 square miles; population, 136,666.]

A group of islands divided into five presidencies: Antigua, St. Kitts, Dominica, Montserrat, and the Virgin Islands. They lie north of the Windward group, and southeast of Porto Rico. They are under one governor and commander in chief, with a colonial secretary. The federal executive council is nominated by the Crown, and of the federal legislative council, 8 members are nominated and 8 elected. Three of the latter are chosen by the elective members of the local legislative council of Antigua, 2 by those of Dominica, and 3 by the unofficial members of the local legislative council of St. Kitts. The federal legislative council meets annually. The area of the Leeward Islands, combined, is 701 square miles; population, 136,666.

	1899.
Public revenue.....	pounds sterling.. 121, 561
Public expenditure.....	do.... 143, 285
Public debt.....	do.... 294, 121
Imports (including specie and bullion).....	do.... 365, 367
Exports (including specie and bullion).....	do.... 373, 151

## BARBADOS.

[Area, 166 square miles; population, 192,000.]

An island of the British West Indian possessions, lying east of the Windward Islands. Area, 166 square miles; population, 192,000. The government consists of a governor, executive council, and executive committee, and a legislative council of 9 members, appointed by the Sovereign, and a house of assembly of 24 members, elected yearly.

	1899.
Revenue.....	pounds sterling.. 176, 022
Expenditure.....	do.... 207, 884
Public debt.....	do.... 414, 000
Total imports (including specie and bullion).....	do.... 998, 007
Total exports (including specie and bullion).....	do.... 845, 590
Imports from United Kingdom.....	do.... 429, 148
Exports to United Kingdom.....	do.... 50, 630

## TRINIDAD.

[Area, 1,868 square miles; population, 281,917.]

The most southerly of the West Indian Islands, lying near to the north coast of South America, being 16 miles distant from the coast of Venezuela. Area, excluding Tobago, which is a part of the colony of Trinidad, 1,764 square miles; population, 281,917. The government is administered by a governor, an executive council of 7, and a legislative council of 9 official and 11 unofficial members, all appointed by the Crown. The island of Tobago, lying adjacent, has an area of 114 square miles and a population of 21,400, and is under the control of the governor and council of Trinidad.

	1899.
Revenue.....	pounds sterling.. 651, 135
Expenditure.....	do.... 650, 760
Public debt.....	do.... 923, 413
Total imports.....	do.... 2, 535, 965
Total exports.....	do.... 2, 572, 891

## THE COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA.

[Area, 2,972,195 square miles; population, 3,756,894.]

The Commonwealth of Australia includes the five colonies into which the continent of Australia was formerly divided, viz, New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, and Western Australia; also Tasmania, an island at the southern extremity of the continent of Australia, 120 miles distant from the mainland. The union of these six colonies as the Commonwealth of Australia was authorized by an act of the British Parliament in the year 1900, and, after the acceptance of its terms, the date January 1, 1901, was fixed as that upon which the Commonwealth should be established, and the Earl of Hopetoun selected as the first governor-general of the new Commonwealth. The constitution under which this union is formed is summarized as follows by the Colonial Office List of 1901:

The constitution of the Commonwealth of Australia is contained in the act of Parliament 63 and 64 Vict., cap. 12. The opening part of the act recites that the union is to be indissoluble, and provides for the admission of other Australasian colonies and possessions of the Queen. It makes provision for the proclamation and date of establishment of the Commonwealth, declares the binding force of Commonwealth laws, and makes definitions. The federal council of Australasia act, 1885, is repealed, and the Commonwealth is declared to be a single self-governing colony for the purpose of the colonial boundaries act.

The leading features of the constitution proper are as follows:

The Parliament consists of the King, a senate, and a house of representatives. A governor-general is to be appointed to act for the King.

The senate consists of six members from each State. The number may be increased or diminished, but so that the equal representation of the original States is maintained, and no original State has less than six senators. The qualifications of the electors of the senate and of the senators are the same as in the case of the house of representatives. Senators are to be chosen for six years.

The house of representatives has twice as many members as the senate, and the number of members for each State is in proportion to the population, but not less than five for any State. The qualification of electors is the same as in the case of the more numerous house in each State. Qualifications of a member to be (a) 21 years of age; (b) to be an elector or entitled to be; (c) resident three years; (d) natural born or naturalized five years.

House may continue to exist for three years from first meeting, but may be dissolved sooner; number of members may be increased or diminished by Parliament, subject to the constitution.

The general powers of the Parliament are thirty-nine in number, the principal of which are to make laws for trade, taxation, bounties, borrowing, postal services, naval and military, statistics, currency, banking, insolvency, corporations, divorce, marriage, old-age pensions, immigration and emigration, railways, etc. Exclusive powers in regard to the seat of government, State departments transferred, and other matters declared by the constitution to be within the exclusive power of the Parliament.

Money bills not to originate in nor to be amended by the senate, which house may, however, return the bill, requesting any omission or amendment. Equal power in all other matters. Tacking bills prohibited.

Provision for deadlocks: Joint dissolution, and if again passed in lower house and rejected in Senate, a joint sitting to be held, and if passed by an absolute majority of total number of both houses, disputed bill to become law.

A bill having passed both houses the governor-general shall either assent, withhold assent, reserve the bill, or return it, and recommend amendments.

Executive power vested in King and exercisable by governor-general in council, who may appoint ministers of state.

State departments of customs and excise transferred to commonwealth on its establishment. Departments of posts, naval and military, defense, light-houses, etc., and quarantine on a date or dates to be proclaimed.

High court of Australia established; appellate and original jurisdiction.

Collection of customs to pass to commonwealth. Customs and excise duties to be uniform, and intercolonial free-trade established within two years after the establishment of the commonwealth, after which period the Federal Government shall have exclusive power to levy such duties as well as bounties in the production or export of goods. Western Australia may continue duties in force on intercolonial goods at the establishment of uniform tariff for five years, subject to reduction of one-fifth each year.

Of the net revenue from customs and excise not more than one-fourth to be applied by commonwealth toward its expenditure. This holds good for the first ten years and thereafter until the Parliament provides otherwise.

Right of States to reasonable use of river waters for conservation or irrigation reserved.

Interstate commission appointed to regulate trade and commerce and prevent discriminations being made by any State which may be deemed unreasonable or unjust to any other State.

Constitutions, powers, and laws of States protected. State debts may be taken over.

Admission of new States provided for. Commonwealth to protect States against invasion or domestic violence.

Seat of government to be in New South Wales, not less than 100 miles from Sydney, and to be within federal territory. Parliament to meet at Melbourne until it meets at the new capital.

Constitution may be altered by an absolute majority of each house; then to be submitted to electors, and if in a majority of States a majority of electors voting approve, then the change may be made. In case of a deadlock between the two houses, renewed after three months' interval, the governor-general may submit the question to the electors in each State qualified to vote for the lower house.

An alteration diminishing the proportionate representation of any State, or the minimum number of representatives of a State, or altering its limits, or in any way affecting the provisions of the constitution in relation to it, shall not become law without the approval of a majority of the electors of such State.

The financial section of the act is too intricate to be briefly summarized. (See sections 81-105 of the act.)

It will be observed from the foregoing summary that the constitution follows that of the United States rather than that of Canada, so far as the distribution of Federal and State powers is concerned. The matters belonging to the commonwealth are limited to those expressly specified, and in other respects State powers are maintained.

The governorships of the States are still filled by the Crown, and the governors correspond directly with the secretary of state. The governor-general is, however, kept informed of the correspondence passing between the governors of the different States and the colonial office.

The new commonwealth formed from these seven colonies is, according to the latest statistics, 2,972,195 square miles in extent, and has a population of 3,756,894. The table which follows shows the area, population, revenue, expenditure, debt, total imports, total exports, and other data with reference to each of these colonies in the latest attainable year, the figures of the colony of Northern Australia being, however, included with those of South Australia. It is proper to add that the figures of imports and exports include the commerce of each colony with its neighboring colonies, as well as with other parts of the world. Under the new organization, by which these seven colonies form a single commonwealth, the commerce between the colonies so included will not be further classified as "foreign commerce," and the figures of the "foreign commerce" of the Australian colonies, which was in the past materially swelled by the inclusion of the intercolonial traffic, will probably be materially reduced, since they will in the future show simply the commerce of the seven colonies with other countries of the world and not each with the other as heretofore. A table published on another page shows the proportion of commerce which is intercolonial and the proportion with other countries.

AREA, POPULATION, REVENUE, EXPENDITURE, IMPORTS, EXPORTS, TONNAGE, AND RAILWAYS OF THE VARIOUS COLONIES OF THE AUSTRALASIAN COMMONWEALTH, NORTH AUSTRALIA BEING INCLUDED WITH SOUTH AUSTRALIA FOR STATISTICAL PURPOSES.

COLONIES.	Area.	Popula- tion.	Revenue, 1899-1900.	Expendi- ture, 1899-1900.	Debt, 1900.	Total im- ports.	Total ex- ports.	Imports from United Kingdom.	Exports to United Kingdom.	Regis- tered ton- nage.	Tonnage entered and cleared.	Rail- way open.
	<i>Sq. miles.</i>		<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>		<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>£</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Miles.</i>
New South Wales.....	310,700	1,356,650	9,978,736	9,811,402	65,532,998	25,594,315	28,445,466	8,211,351	8,992,480	122,747	6,995,551	2,896
Queensland.....	668,497	512,604	4,588,207	4,540,418	35,226,664	6,764,097	11,942,858	2,905,437	4,272,952	22,795	1,464,063	2,800
South Australia.....	903,690	370,700	2,780,858	2,779,317	26,156,180	6,884,358	8,388,396	2,040,430	2,805,787	50,866	3,429,166	1,882
Tasmania.....	26,215	182,508	943,970	871,454	8,253,912	1,769,324	2,577,475	501,120	1,039,640	15,379	1,318,115	647
Victoria.....	87,884	1,163,400	7,369,251	6,956,953	48,774,885	17,952,894	18,567,780	5,990,027	5,648,150	37,837	5,341,455	3,160
Western Australia.....	975,209	171,062	2,633,081	2,396,448	11,804,178	4,478,532	6,985,642	1,550,029	3,774,247	12,085	2,638,648	1,850
Total.....	2,972,195	3,756,894	28,289,103	27,355,992	195,748,812	63,438,520	76,907,617	21,198,394	26,533,256	261,719	21,186,998	13,135

### FIJI ISLANDS.

[Area, 7,435 square miles; population, 122,673.]

A Crown colony, consisting of several small islands, 500 miles northwest of Samoa. The government is administered by a governor, appointed by the Crown, assisted by an executive council of four members. Laws are enacted by a legislative council of six official and six unofficial members, all appointed by the Crown. Native chiefs rule the native population. An elaborate description of the government and conditions will be found on another page.

Revenue .....	1899.	pounds sterling..	98,621
Expenditure .....		do.....	95,568
Tonnage entered and cleared.....		tons..	255,447
Imports.....		pounds sterling..	263,044
Exports.....		do.....	481,857
Exports of sugar .....		tons..	28,408
Exports of fruit.....		pounds sterling..	30,606
Exports of copra .....		do.....	73,421
Telephone lines .....		miles..	120

### NEW GUINEA.

[Area, 90,540 square miles; population, 350,000.]

British New Guinea is a Crown colony occupying the southeastern portion of New Guinea and several small outlying islands. The colony is administered by a lieutenant-governor, advised by an executive and legislative council.

Revenue .....	1900.	pounds sterling..	13,834
Expenditure (1899) .....		do.....	15,583
Imports .....		do.....	72,216
Exports .....		do.....	56,187
Gold export .....		ounces..	12,012

### NEW ZEALAND.

[Area, 104,471 square miles; population, 796,359.]

A colony 1,200 miles east of Australia, consisting of three large and several smaller islands. The government is administered by a governor and a general assembly consisting of two chambers, a legislative council of 45, and a house of representatives of 74 members, who are elected for three years. Women are entitled to register as electors and vote for members of the house of representatives, but are not qualified for election nor for appointment to the legislative council. Revenues are derived from customs, railways, land and income taxes, and other sources.

Revenue .....	1900.	pounds sterling..	5,099,618
Expenditure .....		do.....	4,858,511
Total imports .....	1899.	pounds sterling..	8,739,630
Total exports.....		do.....	11,038,335
Imports from United Kingdom .....		do.....	5,526,645
Exports to United Kingdom.....		do.....	9,427,515
Vessels entered .....		tons..	811,183
Vessels cleared .....		do.....	807,866
Registered tonnage .....		do.....	129,583
Railways .....		miles..	2,271
Telegraph lines .....		do.....	6,910
Letters, newspapers, etc., dispatched.....		number..	74,318,059



## FRANCE.

The colonies, protectorates, dependencies, and "spheres of influence" of France are second in number only to those of Great Britain, numbering 29, with a total area of 4,317,826 square miles and a population, according to latest estimates, of 61,870,560. The special trade of France with French colonies in 1899 amounted to 471,034,000 francs for imports and 475,411,000 francs for exports. Of the imports into the colonies 65.6 per cent was from France and of the exports from the colonies 62.6 per cent was to France.

## ASIA.

French colonies in Asia include French India and French Indo-China. Under the title "French Indo-China" are included Cochin China, Tonkin, Anam, and Cambodia, which have, to a certain extent, been incorporated. The superior council of Indo-China fixes the budget of Cochin China, and advises as to the budgets of Anam, Tonkin, and Cambodia.

## FRENCH INDIA.

[Area, 200 square miles; population, 280,000.]

The French possessions in India consist of Pondichery, Karikal, Oulgaret, Villenour, Nedoukadou, Shandernagar, Bahour, La Grande Aldée, Mahé, and Yanaon. They are divided into five dependencies, the total area being about 200 square miles and the population 280,000. The government is administered by a governor, who resides at Pondichery, and the colony is represented in the Chambers by one senator and one deputy:

Local revenue and expenditures (budget of 1900).....	rupees <sup>1</sup> ..	1, 135, 678
Expenditures of France (budget of 1901).....	frances <sup>1</sup> ..	494, 083
Debt (annuity) (budget of 1901).....	do....	101, 156
Vessels entered, 1899.....	tons..	509, 422
Letters delivered from the post-office.....	number..	672, 698

## FRENCH INDO-CHINA: ANAM.

[Area, 88,780 square miles; population, 6,000,000.]

A protectorate in the eastern part of the Indo-China peninsula, fronting upon the China Sea. Its area is 88,780 square miles and its estimated population 6,000,000. The government is administered by Prince Buu Lam, proclaimed king in 1889, under the title of Thanh Thai, but subject to the general control of the French governor-general. Three ports are open to European commerce, but the customs revenue is controlled by France. French troops occupy a part of the citadel of Hué, the capital. Anamite officers, under control of the French Government, administer all of the internal affairs.

Imports, 1899 .....	frances..	4, 173, 567
Exports, 1899.....	do....	6, 567, 491
Imports from France, 1899.....	do....	824, 458
Exports to France, 1899.....	do....	727, 401
Vessels entered .....	tons..	105, 178

## CAMBODIA.

[Area, 40,530 square miles; population, 1,500,000.]

A French protectorate in the Indo-Chinese peninsula, having an area of 40,530 square miles and a population of 1,500,000, consisting of Malays, Chinese, and Anamites, and a small European population. The government is administered by King Norodom, subject to the direction of the French governor-general.

	Mexican dollars.	
Imports, 1896.....	4, 000, 000	
Exports, 1896.....	10, 000, 000	
Budget for 1897 .....	2, 025, 000	

NOTE.—For the year 1899 the trade statistics are included in those of Cochin China.

## COCHIN CHINA.

[Area, 23,160 square miles; population, 2,323,500.]

A colony in the Indo-Chinese peninsula south of Anam, having an area of 23,160 square miles and a population of 2,323,499, consisting of Anamites, Cambodians, Chinese, Malays, and Malabarians, with a French population of 5,000. The colony is represented in the Chambers by one deputy. An army of 3,600 troops is maintained, one-third being French and the remainder Anamite soldiers. The government is directly administered by French officials.

	1899.	
Imports into Cochin China and Cambodia .....	frances..	66, 234, 008
Imports from France into Cochin China and Cambodia .....	do....	28, 939, 363
Exports from Cochin China and Cambodia .....	do....	111, 004, 950
Exports to France from Cochin China and Cambodia .....	do....	19, 101, 860
Expenditure of France (budget of 1901) .....	do....	320, 012
Local budget, 1900 .....	Mexican dollars..	4, 439, 500

<sup>1</sup> Value of rupee, 32.4 cents; franc, 19.3 cents.

## TONKIN.

[Area, 119,660 square miles; population, 12,000,000.]

A French possession adjoining Cochin China, having an area of 119,660 square miles and a population estimated at 12,000,000. The government is administered by a French residency. A large share of this territory was formerly held by Siam, but was annexed by France in 1893. A railroad 64 miles long has been constructed and is to be extended to the Chinese frontier. The transit trade to and from Yunnan amounts to about 8,200,000 francs annually. The army is composed of 18,555 officers and men, of which one-third are natives.

	1896.
Imports .....	francs.. 45,016,918
Exports .....	do.... 20,364,847
Imports from France .....	do.... 24,669,104
Exports to France .....	do.... 2,113,596
Vessels entered .....	tons.. 461,454
Expenditure of France (budget of 1901) .....	francs.. 488,000
Local budget .....	Mexican dollars.. 4,072,200
Post-offices (including Anam) .....	79

## AFRICA.

## ALGERIA.

[Area, 184,000 square miles; population, 4,394,000.]

A colony on the north coast of Africa, extending southward into the Sahara, with boundaries not clearly defined, large portions of the Sahara being claimed both by the French Government and the nomad tribes who inhabit it. The area is stated at 184,000 square miles; population, 4,394,000, of which 318,000 are French, 446,000 belonging to other foreign nations, the remainder natives. The Algerian Sahara includes about 123,500 square miles, with a population of about 50,000. Algeria is not included in the general term of the French colonies, having a government and laws distinct from the other colonial possessions, and being looked upon as a part of France, the French Chambers alone having the right to legislate for Algeria, while such matters as do not come within the legislative power are regulated by the decree of the President of the Republic. The government of Algeria is administered by a governor-general, assisted by a council, whose function is purely consultative. A superior council meets annually, composed of delegates sent by each of the departmental general councils.

Revenue budget estimate, 1900 .....	francs.. 55,918,711
Expenditures budget estimate, 1900 .....	do.... 71,053,824
Imports, 1899 .....	do.... 319,848,000
Exports, 1899 .....	do.... 346,415,000
Imports from France, 1899 .....	do.... 260,422,000
Exports to France, 1899 .....	do.... 279,675,000
Vessels entered .....	tons.. 1,604,906
Number of post-offices .....	573
Telegraph lines .....	miles.. 7,260
Length of railway lines, 1899 .....	do.... 2,190

## FRENCH KONGO AND GABUN.

[Area, 491,000 square miles; population, 15,000,000 (includes Bagirmi).]

A protectorate on the right bank of the Kongo and along the north bank of the Mobangi, having a total area of 491,000 square miles, and a population estimated at 15,000,000 natives and 300 Europeans. The territories are under a commissioner-general, who, assisted by two lieutenant-governors, has charge both of the civil and military administration. There are 56 schools, 31 post-offices, and 27 military stations.

Vessels entered in 1898 .....	tons.. 250,009
French vessels entered in 1898 .....	do.... 127,667
Local budget, 1900 .....	francs.. 3,834,060
Imports, 1900 .....	do.... 6,690,263
Exports, 1900 .....	do.... 6,625,041
Imports from France, 1900 .....	do.... 2,436,855
Exports to France, 1900 .....	do.... 1,608,173
Expenditure of France (budget of 1901) .....	do.... 2,078,000
Letters transmitted .....	346,000

## FRENCH WEST AFRICA AND THE SAHARA.

This territory includes the larger part of northwest and central Africa, adjacent to the Senegal and upper part of the Niger rivers, besides the part of the Sahara Desert south of Algeria to the Lake Chad and east to the Nile basin. After the convention with the United Kingdom of June 14, 1898, providing for the delimitation of the possessions and spheres of influences claimed by both countries the administration of the French territory was reorganized, the middle Niger region, including the greater part of the area within the bend of the river, being put under a separate military administration, while the western portion of the old Sudan province was united with Senegal, under the administration of a civil governor. French Guinea, the Ivory Coast, and Dahomey were also largely extended by the addition of Sudan territory.

## SENEGAL.

The colony of Senegal occupies the coast region between the Sahara and the river Gambia, extending about 900 miles inland to the boundary of the military territories, within the bend of the Niger. Its area is now about 200,000 square miles, with a population of about 3,200,000. The colony is administered by a civil governor and represented in the French Parliament by one deputy.

Imports of Senegal, 1899 .....	franca..	50,059,834
Exports, 1899 .....	do....	23,546,425
Imports from France, 1899 .....	do....	30,702,516
Exports to France, 1899 .....	do....	17,927,210
Local budget, 1900 .....	do....	4,454,811
Expenditure of France (1901 budget) .....	do....	1,154,960
Debts, 1899 .....	do....	4,315,613
Vessels entered .....	tons..	71,706
Railways, 1898 .....	miles..	246
Telegraph lines, 1898 .....	do....	574

## MILITARY TERRITORIES.

These territories comprise an area of about 700,000 square miles, extending east of Senegal into the Sahara as far south as the Lake Chad and east to the border of the Egyptian Sudan. The estimated population is 4,000,000. The annual expenditure of France, according to the budget estimate of 1901, was 13,650,446 francs.

## FRENCH GUINEA.

This colony lies on the coast south of Senegal and Portuguese Guinea. Its area is about 95,000 square miles, and the population is estimated at about 2,200,000. The country is administered by a governor and divided into administrative circles and one protectorate.

	Francs.	
Imports, 1900 .....	15,441,710	
Exports, 1900 .....	9,461,496	
Imports from France, 1900 .....	3,980,004	
Exports to France, 1900 .....	747,373	
Local budget, 1900 .....	2,870,000	

## IVORY COAST AND DAHOMEY.

The Ivory Coast, with an area of about 125,000 square miles and a population estimated at 2,500,000, is administered by a governor.

	Francs.	
Imports, 1899 .....	6,379,886	
Exports, 1899 .....	5,863,255	
Imports from France, 1899 .....	1,453,575	
Exports to France, 1899 .....	2,605,440	
Local budget, 1900 .....	1,403,000	

Dahomey, between the German Togo-Land and the British Niger Territories, has only about 70 miles of coast, but opens out northward into a wide hinterland. It is administered by a governor with an administrative council. Its area is about 60,000 square miles, with an estimated population of 1,000,000.

	Francs.	
Imports, 1899 .....	12,348,971	
Exports, 1899 .....	12,720,190	
Imports from France, 1899 .....	1,804,463	
Exports to France, 1899 .....	3,433,705	
Local budget, 1900 .....	2,200,000	

## MADAGASCAR.

[Area, 228,000 square miles; population, 2,500,000.]

The third largest island in the world, regarding Australia as a continent, is situated off the southeastern coast of Africa and has an area of 228,000 square miles and a population estimated at 2,500,000. The government is administered by a governor-general and an administrative council, which rule the island, the queen having been deposed in 1897 and deported to the island of Réunion, and thence to Algiers. The revenues are collected from customs, licenses, sales of land, land taxes, and a small poll tax. Christian missions have been active in the island, and about 450,000 of the natives are Protestants and 50,000 Roman Catholics. The capital, Antananarivo, has a population of 260,000. The French governor-general rules the whole island through residents and vice-residents in the villages, two of the provinces being still under martial law:

Expenditure (local budget), 1900 .....	franca..	13,772,000
French budget (Madagascar and dependencies), 1901 .....	do....	31,602,449
Imports, 1899 .....	do....	27,916,614
Exports, 1899 .....	do....	8,046,408
Imports from France, 1899 .....	do....	24,377,357
Exports to France, 1899 .....	do....	4,838,292
Colonial troops (natives and European) .....	number..	16,896

## TUNIS.

[Area, 51,000 square miles; population, 1,900,000.]

Tunis is a French protectorate on the north coast of Africa, having an area of 51,000 square miles and a population estimated at 1,900,000, of which number 26,600 are French, over one-half of these military. The government is nominally administered by Bey Sidi Ali, but under the direction of the French minister-resident, with two secretaries, who practically administer the government of the country under the direction of the French foreign office, which has a special "Bureau des Affaires Tunisiennes." French judges have superseded the consular courts, and the French administration has been confirmed by the conventions with all the European powers. The corps of occupation numbers about 10,460 men, the cost of its maintenance being borne by the French Government.

Revenue (estimates for 1901) .....	francs..	39,237,154
Expenditures (estimates for 1901) .....	do....	39,122,435
Debt, 1884 .....	pounds sterling..	5,702,000
Imports, 1899 .....	francs..	55,778,241
Exports .....	do....	49,433,460
Imports from France .....	do....	34,263,933
Exports to France .....	do....	26,714,110
Vessels entered .....	tons..	2,433,841
French vessels entered .....	do....	1,254,943
Railways in operation .....	miles..	883
Railways belonging to the state .....	do....	866
Telegraph lines in operation .....	do....	2,328
Post-offices, 1898 .....	number..	300
Letters transmitted, internal service .....	do....	5,122,296
Letters transmitted, external service .....	do....	10,292,752

## AMERICA.

The French possessions in America consist of French Guiana, Martinique, St. Pierre and Miquelon, and Guadeloupe and dependencies, their total area being but 48,000 square miles with a population of 384,000.

## FRENCH GUIANA.

[Area, 46,850 square miles; population, 22,700.]

French Guiana is a colony on the north coast of South America, containing a population of 22,700, in addition to a few mountain tribes. Population of the penitentiaries and the liberated convicts, about 7,000. The government is administered by a governor, with a privy council of 7 members, a council-general and municipal councils, and is represented in the Chambers by 1 deputy. The land is poorly cultivated and the trade insignificant.

	France.	
Local budget, 1900 .....		2,498,439
Total expenditure of France, budget of 1901 .....		6,857,057
Expenditure of France for penal establishment .....		5,585,700

## MARTINIQUE.

[Area, 381 square miles; population, 190,000.]

Martinique is an island of the West Indies, having an area of 381 square miles and an estimated population of 190,000. The government is administered by a governor and municipal councils, with elected general council chosen from the 32 communes into which the island is subdivided. The colony is represented in the Chambers by a senator and 2 deputies.

	France.	
Imports, 1896 .....		22,885,505
Exports, 1896 .....		21,431,026
Imports from France, 1896 .....		9,378,000
Exports to France, 1896 .....		19,726,000
Local budget of 1897 .....		5,369,000
Expenditures of France, 1898 .....		2,638,000
Debt (annuity) .....		95,000

## GUADELOUPE AND DEPENDENCIES.

[Area, 688 square miles; population, 167,100.]

Two islands situated in the Lesser Antilles, having a united area of 583 square miles, making, with the 5 smaller islands which are dependencies, a total area of 868 square miles; population in 1894, 167,100. The government is administered by a governor and an elected council, and is represented in the Chambers by a senator and 2 deputies.

	France.	
Imports, 1899 .....		27,004,526
Exports, 1899 .....		26,603,147
Imports from France, 1899 .....		12,693,838
Exports to France, 1899 .....		24,212,270
Revenue and expenditures balanced at (1900) .....		5,729,793
Expenditures of France (1901 budget estimate) .....		2,270,758

## ST. PIERRE AND MIQUELON.

[Area, 93 square miles; population, 6,250.]

These are the largest of 2 small groups close to the south coast of Newfoundland, having a combined area of 93 square miles and a population of 6,250. The government is administered by a governor with a council-general and municipal councils.

Imports, 1899 .....	francs..	12, 895, 329
Exports, 1899 .....	do....	15, 418, 467
Imports from France .....	do....	7, 490, 385
Exports to France .....	do....	11, 868, 590
Vessels entered, 1898 .....	tons..	48, 580
Local budget for 1900 .....	francs..	475, 708
Expenditure of France (budget of 1901) .....	do....	259, 178

## AUSTRALASIA AND OCEANIA.

The French colonies and dependencies in Australasia and Oceania include New Caledonia, which is a French penal colony, with a number of island dependencies lying adjacent, and the Society Islands and neighboring groups known as the "French Establishments in Oceania."

## NEW CALEDONIA AND DEPENDENCIES.

[Area, 7,700 square miles; population about 53,000.]

New Caledonia is a French penal colony in the South Pacific about 800 miles east of Australia, having an area of 7,700 square miles and a population of 52,756, of which about 10,000 belong to the penal class. The government is in the hands of a governor with a council-general, municipal councils, and commissions.

Imports .....	francs..	1899. 10, 958, 198
Exports .....	do....	8, 913, 197
Imports from France .....	do....	6, 275, 796
Exports to France .....	do....	3, 480, 392
Vessels entered, 1900 .....	tons..	177, 657
Local budget .....	francs..	3, 407, 876
Expenditures of France (including penal establishment), 1901 budget .....	do....	6, 341, 838
Expenditures of France for penal establishment, 1901 budget .....	do....	3, 480, 700

## SOCIETY ISLANDS.

[Area, 650 square miles; population, 12,000.]

These are a group of islands in Oceania officially known as the "French Establishments in Oceania." They consist of the Society Islands and others lying to the northwest; the Marquesas, Tuamotu, Gambier, and Tubuai groups. There is a governor for all the establishments in Oceania, with a council for consultation. There is also a general council elected by universal suffrage.

Total imports .....	francs..	1899. 2, 861, 433
Total exports .....	do....	3, 528, 433
Vessels entered .....	tons..	22, 105

## NETHERLANDS.

The colonial possessions of the Netherlands are located in the East and West Indies, and embrace a total area of 783,000 square miles and a population of about 35,000,000, or nearly seven times that of the mother country.

## ASIA.

## DUTCH EAST INDIES.

[Area, 736,400 square miles; population, 34,090,000.]

A group of islands in Oceania, including Java, most of Sumatra, the Celebes, the Molucca Archipelago, the Riau-Lingga Archipelago, and others, having an area of 736,400 square miles and a population of 34,090,000, of which number 63,000 are Europeans and persons assimilated to them. The government is represented by a governor-general, who represents not only the executive power of the government, but has the authority to pass laws and regulations for the administration of the colony, subject to regulations and control of the Netherlands Government. In this he is required to adhere to the constitutional principles on which the Dutch Indies are governed, and which are laid down in the "Regulations for the Government of Netherlands India," established in 1854. The governor is assisted by a council of five members, partly of a legislative, partly of an advisory character. The islands are divided into provinces or residences, which are governed by a resident, assisted by several assistant residents, and a number of subordinate officials called "contrôleurs," who are appointed by the government after a rigid examination. The resident and his assistants are aided in their intercourse with and control over the natives by cooperation with the native chiefs, who receive salaries or percentages on the amount of the taxes gathered from the natives.

Justice is administered under a system which places Europeans and persons assimilated with them under laws nearly similar to those of the mother country, while the natives are subject to their own customs and institutions. The administration of justice for Europeans is entrusted to European judges; that for natives is to a great extent under their own chiefs. The revenues are from customs duties, personal imposts, licenses, land taxes, taxes on houses and estates, the government monopolies on salt, opium, railways, and the sale of coffee grown under the culture system on lands owned by the government, some of which are under perpetual lease to those occupying them. The colonial army consists of 39,388 soldiers and 1,345 officers, all Europeans, about 15,000 of the common force being Europeans, the remainder natives. Nearly four-fifths of the exports of sugar, coffee, tea, indigo, cinchona, tobacco, and tin go to the Netherlands, and a large share of the imports are from the home Government.

Revenues, 1901 (estimate) .....	guilders <sup>1</sup> ..	150,653,000
Expenditures, 1901 (estimate), on private account .....	do..... <sup>2</sup>	150,226,000
Imports in 1899 .....	do....	186,792,241
Exports, 1899 .....	do....	225,978,871
Vessels entered, 1898 .....	tons..	1,660,968
Railways, 1899 .....	miles..	1,300
Post-offices, 1899 .....	number..	216
Letters carried in 1899 (internal intercourse) .....	do....	10,674,898
Samples, newspapers, printed matter, etc., carried .....	do....	7,777,888
Telegraph lines operated .....	miles..	4,310
Cable lines in operation .....	do....	1,025
Messages delivered, 1899 .....	number..	672,892
Expenditure for education of natives, 1901 (estimate) .....	guilders..	1,482,000.

## AMERICA.

## DUTCH GUIANA.

[Area, 46,060 square miles; population in 1898, 66,490.]

The Dutch West Indies (so called) include Dutch Guiana, on the north coast of South America, and the island of Curaçao, with several small adjacent islands. The area of Dutch Guiana is 46,060 square miles and the population in 1898, 66,490, exclusive of natives unenumerated. The government is administered by a governor, assisted by a council, which consists of the governor, the attorney-general, and three members, all nominated by the King. The colony is divided into districts, which send delegates to an annual assembly for legislative purposes. All religious creeds are given complete liberty of worship. Justice is administered by a court, whose president, members, and recorder are nominated by the home government, and these are assisted by three cantonal and two circuit courts.

The revenues are collected from import, export, and excise duties, taxes on houses and estates, personal imposts, and some indirect taxes.

	Guilders.	
Receipts, 1900 .....	2,296,000	
Expenditures, 1900 .....	2,424,000	
Subvention by the government .....	128,000	
Imports, 1899 .....	6,122,112	
Exports, 1899 .....	5,517,384	
Imports from Netherlands, 1899 .....	3,203,000	
Imports from United States, 1899 .....	1,330,000	
Exports to Netherlands, 1899 .....	1,771,000	
Exports to United States, 1899 .....	3,211,000	

## CURAÇAO.

[Area, 408 square miles; population, 51,524.]

A group of islands lying north of the coast of Venezuela, having a total area of 408 square miles and a population of 51,524. The government is administered by a governor appointed by the Netherlands Government, assisted by a council composed of the attorney-general and three members, also appointed by the sovereign. The colonial council consists of eight members nominated by the sovereign. The laws are administered with the cooperation of the chiefs of each of the islands of the group, who are also nominated by the sovereign. The revenues are from import and export taxes, excise duties, taxes on land, etc.

Revenues, 1901 (estimated) .....	guilders..	700,000
Imports, 1899 .....	do....	1,922,917
Exports, 1899 .....	do....	255,525
Tonnage of vessels entered in 1898 .....	tons..	507,344
Attendance at schools .....		5,460

<sup>1</sup> Value of guilder, 40.2 cents.

<sup>2</sup> Of which 30,007,000 guilders by the home Government.



## GERMANY.

Germany's foreign protectorates are "spheres of influence" rather than colonies in the ordinarily accepted sense of the term. Her extension of empire beyond the bounds of Europe began in 1884, and now includes over 1,000,000 square miles of territory, with an estimated population of 14,700,000 people, most of these being in Africa.

## AFRICA.

## TOGOLAND.

[Area 33,000 square miles; population, 2,500,000.]

Togoland is a German protectorate on the west coast of Africa between Dahomey and the Gold coast, and has an area of 33,000 square miles and a population estimated at 2,500,000. The territory was declared a German protectorate in 1884 and placed under an imperial commissioner, assisted by a secretary and inspector of customs and a local council of representatives of the merchants. Four missionary societies at work in the colony have schools largely attended by native children. Revenues are collected chiefly from customs.

Local revenue, 1899-1900 .....	marks <sup>1</sup> ..	554, 083
Budget revenue for 1900-1901 (estimated) .....	do....	1, 448, 000
Imports, 1899-1900 .....	do....	3, 279, 708
Exports .....	do....	2, 582, 701
Vessels entered .....	tons..	280, 439

## CAMEROONS.

[Area, 191,130 square miles; population, 3,500,000.]

The Cameroons region, also located in West Africa, became a German protectorate in 1884, and is placed under an imperial governor, assisted by a chancellor, two secretaries, and a local council of three representative merchants. Four missionary societies are doing work in the colony. The revenue is mainly derived from the import duties. The area is estimated at 191,130 square miles, and the population at 3,500,000. Local improvements are being encouraged, agricultural experiment stations established, and the condition of the natives improved.

Local revenue, 1899-1900 .....	marks..	1, 325, 631
Imperial subsidy, 1900-1901 (estimated) .....	do....	2, 180, 000
Vessels entered, 1899-1900 .....	tons..	76, 155
German vessels entered, 1899-1900 .....	do....	36, 793
Imports, 1899-1900 .....	marks..	12, 726, 734
Exports, 1899-1900 .....	do....	5, 156, 943

## GERMAN SOUTHWEST AFRICA.

[Area, 322,450 square miles; population, 200,000.]

A German protectorate on the west coast of Africa, immediately north of Cape Colony, extending along the coast for about 930 miles. Total area is estimated at 322,450 square miles, and the population 200,000, of which 2,600 are whites. The northern portion of the territory is controlled by an Anglo-German company under concessions obtained from the German Government. The coast lands are held by a German Colonial Company for Southwest Africa. The government is administered by an imperial commissioner, with government stations and representatives at the chief centers of population.

	Marks.	
Local revenue from customs duties, 1899 .....	883, 000	
Budget for 1901, revenue (including imperial contribution of 9,103,000 marks) and expenditure ...	10, 452, 000	
Imports, 1899 .....	8, 941, 154	
Exports, 1899 .....	1, 399, 478	
Imports from Germany, 1899 .....	7, 670, 049	
Exports to Germany, 1899 .....	241, 537	

## GERMAN EAST AFRICA.

[Area, 380,000 square miles; population, 6,105,000.]

A German sphere of influence in East Africa, with a coast line of 620 miles, an estimated area of 384,000 square miles, and an estimated population of 6,105,000, consisting chiefly of mixed tribes, with a strong Asiatic element near the coast. The European population at latest reports was 1,139. There are seven Protestant and three Catholic missionary societies at work. Commercial enterprise is being encouraged by the German Government, which grants subsidies for railways and steamers. German plantations of cocoa palms, coffee, vanilla, tobacco, and cacao have been established, and experiment stations for tropical culture and cattle raising. A railway is being extended to the interior.

	Marks.	
Budget of 1901 (including imperial contributions of 5,259,000 marks) .....	8, 491, 000	
Imports, 1899 .....	10, 823, 000	
Exports, 1899 .....	3, 937, 000	
Imports from Germany, 1899 .....	2, 019, 000	
Exports to Germany, 1899 .....	923, 000	

<sup>1</sup> Value of mark, 23.8 cents.

<sup>2</sup> Of which imperial contribution 884,000 marks.

## IN THE WESTERN PACIFIC.

[Area, 96,160 square miles; population, 427,000.]

German possessions in the western Pacific include Kaiser Wilhelm's Land, the Bismarck Archipelago, Solomon Islands, Marshall Islands, Caroline Islands, Pelew Islands, Marianne Islands, and certain of the Samoan Islands, with a total area of 96,160 square miles and a population of 427,000. Kaiser Wilhelm's Land has, with other small islands, an estimated area of 70,000 square miles and a population of about 110,000. The estimated revenue for 1901 was 810,000 marks, including the imperial contribution, 710,000 marks. The government is in the form of a protectorate, with a representative of the German Government in control in cooperation with native officials. The development of the protectorate has been intrusted to the German New Guinea Company, which has extended its operations to other German possessions in the Pacific.

	Marks.
Imports, 1899-1900.....	377,682
Exports, 1899-1900.....	212,117

## BISMARCK ARCHIPELAGO.

[Area, 20,000 square miles; population, 188,000.]

A German protectorate which extends over a group of islands in the Pacific, the aggregate area being estimated at 20,000 square miles and the population at 188,000. The commercial development is in the hands of the German New Guinea Company. The imports amounted during 1899-1900 to 1,240,925 marks; the exports to 907,282 marks.

## SOLOMON ISLANDS.

This group includes a number of small islands in the Pacific, which are under the officials of Kaiser Wilhelm's Land. They lie northwest of Australia, and their aggregate area is estimated at 4,200 square miles and the population at 45,000.

## MARSHALL ISLANDS.

The Marshall Islands consist of two chains of lagoon islands in the Pacific, midway between the Hawaiian and Philippine islands. Their aggregate area is estimated at 150 square miles and their population 15,000.

	Marks.
Imports, 1899-1900.....	454,300
Exports, 1899-1900.....	509,200

## KIAU-CHAU.

[Area, 200 square miles; population, 60,000.<sup>1</sup>]

Kiau-Chau, on the east coast of the Chinese province of Shantung, was seized by Germany in November, 1897, and transferred to that country on a ninety-nine years' lease in March, 1898. The administration of the district is intrusted to the navy department, and a naval officer, with the title of governor, is at the head of the local government. The area of the protectorate is about 200 square miles, and the population estimated about 60,000. Extensive coal fields, less than 100 miles distant, are, by agreement, to be worked with German capital. Concessions for the construction of railways, one of which is to pass through the coal fields to the boundary of the district, have been granted, and actual railway building is in progress.

	Marks.
Budget estimate, 1901 (of which Imperial contribution 10,750,000 marks).....	11,050,000
Strength of European garrison .....	2,352
Imports into Germany, 1900.....	99,000
Exports from Germany, 1900 .....	5,605,000

## CAROLINE, PELEW, AND MARIANNE (OR LADRONE) ISLANDS.

These islands were acquired by Germany from Spain by treaty of February 12, 1899, the purchase price being 16,750,000 marks, and form for the present part of the German New Guinea protectorate. They lie to the north of German New Guinea, and to the west of the German Marshall Islands. Their combined area is estimated at 810 square miles, with a population of 42,000. The Carolines consist of about 500 coral islets, with a population mainly of Malay origin, with some Chinese and Japanese and about 900 whites. The chief article of export is copra. The Pelew Islands, to the west of the Carolines, are about 26 in number, mostly coral, many of them uninhabited. Copra, tortoise shell, and mother-of-pearl are exported. The German Marianne Islands, to the north of the Pelew Islands, are small and sparsely peopled, their northern group being actively volcanic and uninhabited. The total population according to the latest official data was 1,938, mainly remnants of the indigenous population. The budget estimate for 1901 provides a revenue for all the three island groups of 312,000 marks, of which 287,000 marks are Imperial contribution.

## SAMOAN ISLANDS.

[Area, 1,000 square miles; population, 29,100.]

Two of the largest islands of this group—viz, Savaii and Upolu—were acquired by Germany by the Anglo-German agreement of November 14, 1899, accepted and ratified by the United States in January, 1900. Of the total population of 29,100 there were about 400 whites, half of whom were Germans. The revenue for 1901 is estimated at 266,000 marks, including 146,000 marks of Imperial subsidy. The imports during the year 1899 amounted to 2,141,000 marks, while the exports (chiefly copra) reached the sum of 1,505,000 marks. The number of vessels entered at the port of Apia in 1900 was 69, with a tonnage of 84,488, 36 vessels, with a tonnage of 49,029, being British and 20 vessels, with a tonnage of 30,232, being American.

<sup>1</sup>Exclusive of the bay, with an area of about 200 square miles, and the neutral zone, with an area of about 2,500 square miles and a population of 1,200,000.

## PORTUGAL.

The colonial possessions of Portugal are ten in number, and are located in Asia, Africa, and Oceania, and have a total area of 804,004 square miles and a population of 10,115,804.

## PORTUGUESE AFRICA.

[Area, 793,590 square miles; population, 8,591,424.]

The Portuguese possessions and dependencies in Africa include Azores to Madeira (governed as a province of Portugal), the Cape Verde Islands, Guinea, Prince's and St. Thomas Islands, Angola, and East Africa, with a total area of 793,590 square miles and a population of 8,591,424.

The Cape Verde Islands, fourteen in number, are located in the northwest of Africa, with an area of 1,480 square miles and a mixed population of 114,000, descended from early Portuguese settlers and negroes introduced from Guinea. The government is administered by a governor appointed by the sovereign. The estimated revenues in 1899-1900 were 364,129 milreis;<sup>1</sup> expenditures, 319,941 milreis. Imports in 1898, 1,558,047 milreis; exports, 194,608 milreis.

Portuguese Guinea is located on the north coast of Senegambia and includes the adjacent archipelago of Bijagoz. It has an area of 4,440 square miles and a population of 820,000. Its government is administered by a governor appointed by the Crown. The estimated local revenues in 1899-1900 amounted to 56,655 milreis. The estimated expenditure of the Portuguese treasury for the administration of Guinea is 216,742 milreis. The imports in 1898 were 458,566 milreis; exports, 223,136 milreis. The adjacent islands of St. Thomas and Prince's constitute a separate province under a governor.

## ANGOLA.

[Area, 484,000 square miles; population, 4,119,000.]

Angola, the Portuguese possession in southwest Africa, has a coast line of over 1,000 miles, an area of 484,000 square miles, and a population estimated at 4,119,000, of which nearly all are native tribes. Railways have been opened, ports improved, and the territory divided into five districts, the whole being under the direction of a governor appointed by the sovereign, and each district under a subordinate.

The estimated revenue in 1899-1900 was 1,673,111 milreis; expenditures, 2,013,671 milreis. Imports in 1899, 7,102,224 milreis; exports, 7,958,497 milreis. Vessels entered in 1899, 754, of 1,220,879 tons, of which 506 vessels were Portuguese.

## PORTUGUESE POSSESSIONS IN EAST AFRICA.

[Area, 301,000 square miles; population, 3,120,000.]

Portuguese possessions in east Africa are on the southeastern coast, and are divided into four districts, portions of which are administered by the Mozambique Company under a royal charter, others by the Nyassa Company, also with a royal charter. The area is 301,000 square miles, the estimated population 3,120,000. Commercial, agricultural, industrial, and mining operations are carried on by the Zambezia and Mozambique companies. The currency used is chiefly British Indian rupees. The estimated revenue for 1898 was 4,232,326 milreis; expenditures, 3,945,765 milreis. Imports at the leading ports amounted to £1,621,494; exports, £164,196.

## ITALY.

The foreign dependencies of Italy include the colony of Eritrea, on the west coast of the Red Sea, having an area of about 42,000 square miles and a population of 329,516; also a protectorate over certain eastern African territory eastward of the British Somali protectorate and north of British East Africa, with an area of about 100,000 square miles and a population of 400,000. The Italian sphere of influence over the country adjacent to Eritrea at one time included the whole of the province of Tigre, in Abyssinia, and surrounding territory as far as the town of Kasala, but after a series of defeats from the Abyssinian generals the protectorate was abandoned. The government of Eritrea is under officials appointed by the home Government.

The Italian dominion in the extreme east of Africa is known as Italian Somali Land, and has an area of 100,000 square miles and a population of 400,000. The administration of the region is under a commercial organization known as the "Società Anonima Commerciale Italiana del Benadir." The government of Italian dependencies is administered by a governor nominated by the King and under the direction of the minister of foreign affairs. The colonies are not self-sustaining, the revenue from the Red Sea colony being, in 1899-1900, 2,456,700 lire<sup>2</sup> and the contributions of Italy 8,130,800 lire, while the total expenditures of Italy on account of its Red Sea possessions between the years 1882 and 1899 were 378,325,510 lire.

## DENMARK.

The colonial possessions of Denmark include Iceland, Greenland, and the Danish West Indies, with a total area of 87,148 square miles, and a population of 127,184. The area of Iceland is 39,756 square miles and the population 70,927; that of Greenland, 46,740 square miles, population 10,516; Danish West Indies, 138 square miles, population 32,786. The imports of Iceland in 1899 were 2,403,000 kroner,<sup>3</sup> the exports 2,660,000 kroner; of Greenland, imports 631,000 kroner, exports, 325,000 kroner; of the Danish West Indies, imports, 76,000 kroner, exports 93,000 kroner.

The government of Iceland is administered by a governor under a constitution and an assembly subject to control of the Government at Copenhagen. The trade of Greenland is a Government monopoly. Its government is administered by a governor and agents who are responsible to a Government board at Copenhagen which has charge of all Greenland affairs, the General Government policy being to pay the natives small prices for their articles of export and sell them commodities at first cost, or at a small advance on Copenhagen prices. The government of the Danish West Indies is under the control of a governor-general, who resides at Christianstad, in the island of St. Croix.

<sup>1</sup> Value of milreis, \$1.08.

<sup>2</sup> Value of lira, 19.3 cents.

<sup>3</sup> Value of kroner, 26.8 cents.

## SPAIN.

The Spanish colonial possessions are at present made up of certain territories in Africa having according to the Statesmans Year-Book, 1901, an area of 246,698 square miles and a population of 475,611. The possessions occupy a portion of the northwest coast of Africa, directly opposite the Caroline Islands and north of the Senegal River. They include the Canary Islands (governed as a province of Spain), area 2,808, population 334,521; Rio de Oro and Adrar, with an area of 243,000 square miles and a population estimated at 100,000; Ifni, near Cape Nun, with an area of 27 square miles and an estimated population of 6,000; Fernando Po, Annabon, Corisco, Elobey, and San Juan, with an area of 850 square miles and a population of 30,000. The government is in the form of a protectorate under the governorship of the Canary Islands, with a subgovernor resident at Rio de Oro. A considerable area on the banks of the Campo and Muni rivers is in dispute, being claimed by both Spain and France, and has an additional area of 69,000 square miles and a population of 500,000.

## RUSSIA.

Two States, Bokhara and Khiva, in Central Asia, are under the suzerainty of Russia. The area of Bokhara is 92,000 square miles and the population 2,500,000. The chief Russian control relates to rights of trade, the government being administered by Amir Sayid Abdul Ahad, a native, but educated in Russia. Russian paper rubles form the medium of exchange. Steps have been taken to incorporate the customs administration with that of the Russian provinces. No foreigner is admitted into Bokhara without a passport, and a Russian political resident is located at the capital.

Khiva, in western Turkestan, was captured by the Russians in 1873, who abolished slavery and compelled the Khan to acknowledge himself as a vassal of the Czar. The area is 22,320 square miles, with about 800,000 inhabitants. The State has no external relations except with Russia, though the government is administered by Khan Syed Mohamed Rahim Khan. The military force is limited by treaty with Russia to 2,000 men, and the local government pays a yearly tribute to Russia of 150,000 rubles out of its annual revenue of 500,000 rubles.

The Grand-Duchy of Finland, ceded to the Emperor of Russia in 1809, retains some portions of its constitution and legislative powers, having a national parliament consisting of four estates—the nobles, clergy, burghers, and peasants—convoked by the Emperor of Russia. They discuss the laws proposed by the Emperor, who retains, however, the right of veto upon their action. The unanimous consent of all four chambers is necessary for changing the constitution or levying new taxes. Finland has its own money system and custom-houses.

## PROVINCE OF KWAN-TUNG.

Port Arthur and Ta-lien-wan on the northeastern coast of China were leased to Russia by the Chinese Government by agreement of March 27, 1898. The duration of the lease is to be twenty-five years, but may be extended by mutual agreement. An Imperial ukase of August 28, 1899, creates of this territory a province, named Kwang-Tung. Port Arthur, the capital of the new province, is reserved as a naval port exclusively for Russian and Chinese men-of-war, while part of the harbor of Ta-lien-wan is open to merchant vessels of all nationalities. At the southern extremity of the port a new town, Dalny, has been founded, which is to be the terminal point of the Manchurian branch of the Great Trans-Siberian Railway.

Manchuria is now held in military occupation by Russia pending final adjustment of the Russian claims for indemnities and compensation arising from the recent conflict with China.

## TURKEY.

The "tributary States" of Turkey are Bulgaria, Samos, and Egypt. The principality of Bulgaria is under control of Prince Ferdinand, who was elected Prince of Bulgaria by a vote of the national assembly in 1887 and confirmed by the Porte and the great powers in 1896. The legislative authority is vested in a single chamber, called the national assembly, whose members are elected by universal suffrage at the rate of one member for every 20,000 of population. Laws passed by this assembly require the assent of the Prince. The executive power is vested in a council of eight members. There is an imperial ottoman commissioner resident in Bulgaria.

	1900.
Imports .....	levs (frances) .. 46,342,100
Exports .....	do..... 53,982,629
Vessels entered .....	tons.. 2,357,527
Miles of railway .....	909
Letters and newspapers carried .....	number.. 23,743,453

Samos is an island off the coast of Asia Minor, forming a principality of the suzerainty of Turkey under the guaranty of France, Great Britain, and Russia. The area is 180 square miles; population, 54,830.

Revenue, 1900-1901 estimate .....	piasters <sup>1</sup> .. 3,538,698
Exports, 1899 .....	do..... 20,240,208
Imports, 1899 .....	do..... 18,838,627
Vessels entered, 1899 .....	354,206
Pieces of mail passing through the post-office .....	90,912

## CRETE.

In 1899 the island became an autonomous State under a high commissioner of the powers, subject to the suzerainty of the Porte. The constitution of April 28, 1899, provides for an assembly, consisting of deputies elected for a period of two years in the proportion of 1

<sup>1</sup> Value of piaster, 4.4 cents.

for every 5,000 inhabitants, and of 10 deputies nominated directly by the high commissioner, who is at the head of the executive authority, and appoints his councilors or ministers. Questions concerning the foreign relations of Crete are determined by the representatives of Great Britain, Russia, France, and Italy, at Rome.

Total area .....	square miles..	3,326
Population, including foreigners (census 1900) .....		307,369
Budget (estimate 1899-1900).....	drachmas <sup>1</sup> ..	5,274,118
Imports, 1898-99.....	do.....	12,351,105
Exports, 1898-99.....	do.....	6,600,198

#### TRIPOLI.

Tripoli, the most easterly of the States of Barbary, on the north coast of Africa, was placed in 1875, for administrative purposes, directly under Constantinople and now forms a separate and independent Mutessaralik. It has an area of 399,000 square miles and a population of 1,000,000, with imports amounting in 1899 to £384,900, and exports to £410,500.

#### EGYPT.

The administration of Egypt is carried on by native ministers, subject to the ruling of the Khedive, in conjunction with an English financial adviser, without whose concurrence no financial decision can be taken, and who has a right to a seat in the council of ministers, but is not an executive officer. Representative institutions have been promulgated by the Khedive, including a legislative assembly, a general assembly, and provincial boards. The legislative council consists of 30 members, of whom 14 are nominated by the government, and it meets once a month to examine the budget, but can not initiate legislation, and the government is not obliged to act on its advice. The general assembly consists of the members of the legislative council, and 6 ministers, and 46 members popularly elected, has no legislative functions, but no taxes can be imposed without its consent. The council of ministers, with the Khedive, is the ultimate legislative authority. The total area, including the oases in the Lybian Desert, the region between the Nile and Red Sea, and El-Arish in Syria, is about 400,000 square miles, though the cultivated and settled area covers but about 13,000 square miles. Population in 1897, 9,734,405. There are four judicial systems: The courts of religious law, concerned mainly with questions of personal status of Mohammedans; mixed courts, dealing with civil actions between persons of different nationalities; consular courts, where civil cases between foreigners of the same nationality and foreigners accused of crime are tried; the native courts, for civil actions between natives or crimes by natives. The revenues are from land tax, customs, a tax upon tobacco and salt, and from stamps, registration fees, the octrois, and certain direct taxes, and in addition to these the receipts from administration of Government railways, telegraphs, post-offices, and ports.

	1901
Total ordinary receipts (estimates) .....	Egyptian pounds*.. 10,700,000
Expenditure .....	do..... 10,636,000
Imports, 1900.....	do..... 14,112,370
Exports, 1900.....	do..... 16,766,610
Imports from Great Britain, 1900 .....	do..... 5,295,594
Exports to Great Britain, 1900.....	do..... 9,141,930
Vessels entered, 1899 .....	tons.. 2,414,674
British vessels entered .....	do..... 1,150,231
Turkish vessels entered .....	do..... 158,818

#### AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

Austria-Hungary has no colonies or protectorates in the ordinarily accepted sense of the term, though the Ottoman provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina were by the treaty of Berlin, 1878, handed over to the Austro-Hungarian Government for administration and military occupation. The administration is exercised by the Bosnian bureau, and intrusted to the imperial finance minister in Vienna in the name of the Emperor-King. The provincial government, the chief authority in the province itself, has four departments—internal affairs, justice, finance, and public works—and has an advising body composed of representatives of the people and the ecclesiastical dignitaries of Sarajevo, the seat of government. Similar councils are also provided for the district and county authorities. The area is 23,262 square miles; the population in 1895 was 1,568,092.

The trade statistics are not given separately, being included with those of Austria-Hungary. The local revenue, which in 1894 was 1,027,310, is sufficient for the cost of administration, but not for the maintenance of the army of occupation.

Number of miles of railway, 1898 .....	555
Number of miles of telegraph, 1899 .....	1,530
Number of letters, newspapers, etc., transmitted, 1899 .....	12,039,732
Number of Austro-Hungarian troops of occupation, 1900.....	20,110

#### JAPAN.

The island of Formosa, ceded to Japan by China under the treaty of 1895, has an area of 13,458 square miles, or slightly larger than the State of Maryland, and a population of 2,745,000. The Pescadores Islands, also ceded by China in 1895, have an area of 85 square miles and a population of 52,400. Government schools have been opened, and a native military service established. Formosa supplies

<sup>1</sup> Value of drachma, 19.3 cents.

\* Value of the Egyptian pound, \$4.943.

6,600,000 pounds of the 8,000,000 pounds of camphor, the world's annual camphor product. The expenditure on railways in the island last year was 2,400,000 yen, and is to be increased to 4,000,000 yen. The deposits of the Bank of Formosa are 40,000,000 yen.

Revenue .....	yen.. 14, 601, 577
Ports open to commerce .....	14
Vessels entered .....	4, 124
Tonnage of vessels entered .....	254, 000

### CHINA.

While China has no colonies in the accepted sense of the term, the area of her divisions, which are termed "dependencies," is vastly greater than that of China proper, being 2,881,560 square miles, while that of China proper is 1,353,350 square miles. The total population of the dependencies, however, is but 16,680,000, while that of China proper is 383,000,000. The dependencies, so called, are Manchuria, Mongolia, Tibet, Jungaria, and East Turkestan. In some of these dependencies the government is directly administered by Chinese officials in close conjunction with residents of the territories, especially so in Manchuria and Mongolia. In Tibet the enormous distance and difficulties of communication have made the country more or less independent of the suzerain power of China, the only visible sign of the supremacy of the central government being the presence of "ambans," or residents, with their military guard at the capital. Appointments to the first offices in the State are bestowed by the Emperor of China, and all measures of consequence are referred to the Court of Peking. The internal government is intrusted entirely to natives, the executive administration being in the hands of a regent and four ministers, who appoint the governors of provinces and designate their collectors of revenue. No separate statistics of the commerce of these provinces or dependencies are attainable.

### UNITED STATES.

The noncontiguous territorial divisions belonging to and governed by the United States are six in number, viz: Alaska, the Hawaiian Islands, the Philippine Islands, Guam and Wake Islands, and the Samoan Islands of Tuituila and Manua in the Pacific, and Porto Rico in the Atlantic. Two of these, Alaska and the Hawaiian Islands, are considered Territories of the United States and have been given by legislative enactments forms of government similar to that of the Territories of the United States. The government of Porto Rico also resembles in many particulars that of the Territories of the United States, and Porto Rico, Hawaii, and Alaska are respectively customs districts of the United States, and all customs laws of the United States apply to them. The Philippine Islands, Guam, Tuituila, and Manua are at present subject in part or wholly to military government and to special customs and other laws established for their government.

The control of noncontiguous territory by the United States Government is of such recent date and under such varying circumstances that no general system can be said to have been applied with reference to the fiscal relations of the colonies as a whole. In Porto Rico a civil government has been established by an act of April 12, 1900. In the Hawaiian Islands a form of civil government was established by the act of April 30, 1900. In the Philippine Islands a commission consisting of persons appointed by the President under authority of a special act of Congress administers civil government in those parts of the islands in which it has been practicable to transfer the government from military to civil authority. In Alaska a form of territorial government has been established by act of Congress.

Porto Rico, Hawaii, and Alaska are considered customs districts of the United States, and the customs laws of the United States apply in those islands as in the United States. The effect of this is that there is collected on articles imported into those divisions from countries other than the United States the rates of duty collected in the United States on articles coming from all foreign countries, but no duties are collected in the United States on articles coming from them, nor are any duties there collected on articles entering them from the United States. No export duties are collected on any articles exported from them. The act creating the fiscal relations between Porto Rico and the United States, while it applied to the island of Porto Rico the tariff of the United States, provided that 15 per cent of the rates named in that tariff should be temporarily collected in Porto Rico on articles from the United States, and in the United States on articles from Porto Rico; but that these should terminate within two years, and might be terminated at any time that the Porto Rican legislature should provide sufficient revenue for the conduct of the local government and request the termination of the collection of those taxes. The Porto Rican legislature, at its first session, enacted legislation for the collection of sufficient revenue to meet the current expenditures, and requested the termination of all duties, both in Porto Rico and the United States, on articles passing between the island and the United States, and this request was complied with by a proclamation issued by the President in July, 1901.

In the Philippine Islands a special tariff has been created and put into operation. Its rates apply on all articles entering the islands, whether from the United States or from other countries, no discrimination in favor of the United States being made in any particular. In the United States the existing tariff applies on articles from the Philippine Islands precisely as against those from any foreign country.

The customs collections in Porto Rico, Hawaii, and Alaska are performed by officers named by the United States Government, those divisions being considered customs districts of the United States. Those in the Philippines are by officers appointed by the Philippine Commission, which administers the civil government of the islands.

These divisions receive no subsidies or regular payments from the United States Government. The sums collected by the United States Government as duty upon articles brought in from Porto Rico subsequent to its control by the United States were, under authority of an act of Congress, transferred to the use of the government of Porto Rico and for aid and relief of the people, public education, and public works. The Hawaiian annexation act provided that the United States Government should assume the existing obligations of the Hawaiian Government not exceeding \$4,000,000. These two applications of the funds of the United States Government to Porto Rico



and the Hawaiian Islands were, however, incidental, the general plan adopted for their respective governments contemplating the collection in those islands of sufficient funds to meet their current expenses.

The taxes collected in the islands are applied to the conduct of the respective local governments and to local expenditures, and none are reserved for the Government of the United States, except that in Hawaii and Alaska, which are considered as Territories of the United States, the collections from customs and internal revenues are turned into the Treasury of the United States.

The salaries of governors, judges, and other officials in Porto Rico are paid from funds collected in that island. In Hawaii those of the governor, secretary, and other officials appointed by the President are paid by the United States. The expenses of the military located in those islands are considered a part of the general military expenditure of the home Government, and are therefore not paid from the funds collected in the islands. Representation abroad is solely through the diplomatic and consular representatives of the United States, whose expenditures are borne entirely by the United States Government. The expenses of the judiciary in Porto Rico are paid from the taxes collected in that island. In Hawaii and Alaska, which are Territories of the United States, the salaries of the justices of the supreme and circuit courts are paid by the United States.

The postal system in Porto Rico, Alaska, and the Hawaiian Islands is a part of that of the United States, the officers thereof being appointed under and controlled by the Post-Office Department of the United States, which thus becomes responsible for the postal expenditures in those islands, though the receipts from the sales of stamps in the islands cover a large share of the current expenses of the postal service. In the Philippine Islands the postal system is not at present under the control of the Post-Office Department, though the rates of postage in those islands are identical with those in the United States, and the rates from any point in either the Philippine Islands or any other island controlled by the United States are uniform either to other points in that island or to points in the United States or any other island under its control, a single (2-cent) postage stamp carrying a letter from the most distant part of the Philippine Islands to any place in Hawaii, Alaska, the United States, or Porto Rico. The United States does not make the telegraph system a part of its postal system either in its own territory or that of the colonies.

#### ALASKA.

The Territory of Alaska, at the extreme northwest of North America, was purchased from Russia by the United States in 1867 for \$7,200,000. It includes, besides the mainland, a large number of islands, most prominent among them being the Aleutian chain. The population in 1880 was 33,426, of whom 17,617 were Esquimaux, 11,478 Indians, 2,145 Aleuts, 1,756 half-breeds, and 430 whites. In 1890 the population was 30,276, of whom 4,416 were whites. During the year 1899-1900 a large influx of population from the United States and Canada occurred, owing to the gold discoveries in that section, and the census of 1900 gave a total population of 63,592, of whom 30,507 were whites, 21,709 being natives of the United States. The government had been for many years administered by a governor and other officers appointed by the President, but in 1900 a more complete form of Territorial government was established by act of Congress.

There are no statistics of the commerce between Alaska and the ports of the United States, it having been from the first considered a customs district of the United States.

Area.....	square miles..	599, 446
Population, 1900 .....		63, 441
Foreign vessels entered, year ending June 30, 1901 .....	tons..	16, 497
Foreign vessels cleared, year ending June 30, 1901 .....	do....	10, 135
Imports from foreign countries, year ending June 30, 1901.....	dollars..	557, 992
Exports to foreign countries, year ending June 30, 1901 .....	do....	2, 534, 318

#### HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

The Hawaiian Islands were annexed to the United States in 1898 in accordance with the expressed request of the people of those islands, and they were made a customs district of the United States. In 1900 an act establishing a form of government for the islands made them a Territory of the United States. The governor and other executive officers and the judges of the United States supreme and district courts in the Territory are appointed by the President. Local legislation is enacted by a legislature of which both branches are elected by the citizens of Hawaii. Hawaii is represented in Congress, as are other Territories of the United States, by a Delegate, who has a seat in the House of Representatives but not a vote. The population in 1900 was 154,001, of whom 66,890 were whites, 54,141 being native whites.

Area.....	square miles..	6, 449
Population in 1900 .....		154, 001
Imports, calendar year 1899 .....	dollars..	19, 683, 516
Imports, calendar year 1899, from United States .....	do....	15, 020, 830
Exports, calendar year 1899 .....	do....	22, 682, 742
Exports, calendar year 1899, to United States.....	do....	22, 517, 759
Merchant vessels entered, 1899 .....	tons..	786, 843
Merchant vessels entered, 1899, American .....	do....	363, 168

#### PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

The Philippine Islands were ceded by Spain to the United States in 1899 at the termination of the war between the United States and Spain on payment by the United States of \$20,000,000. Their area is estimated at 119,542 square miles, or slightly less than that of New Mexico. Population estimated at 8,000,000. Government in the islands was conducted by the military during the period of hostilities on the part of the natives following the cession by Spain, but a commission was appointed by the President, under authority of Congress, which has established a civil government in those parts of the islands, in which order and peace have been restored, and the purpose is to substitute civil for military government as rapidly as circumstances will permit. The laws are created by the Philippine

commission, which is composed in part of natives of the islands. Municipal and other local legislation is in the hands of municipal bodies, wherever practicable, and the general forms of government existing prior to American occupation are retained wherever practicable.

Area.....	square miles..	119,542
Population (estimated).....		8,000,000
Imports, calendar year 1900.....	Mexican dollars..	55,544,366
Exports, calendar year 1900.....	do.....	53,465,404
Import duties collected.....	do.....	14,605,833
Total revenue collected.....	do.....	16,453,704
Foreign vessels entered.....	tons..	856,574
Foreign vessels cleared.....	do.....	834,525
Exports from United States to Philippine Islands, year ending June 30, 1901.....	dollars..	4,014,180
Imports into United States from Philippine Islands, year ending June 30, 1901.....	do.....	4,420,289

## GUAM.

Guam is an island in the Pacific, ceded to the United States by the peace treaty with Spain in 1899. Area, 150 square miles; population estimated at 9,000, of whom about 6,500 are Aganias, 1,000 Sumai, and the remainder belonging to other native tribes. Only about 1 per cent of the land is under cultivation, but it is estimated that about one-half of the island, all of which is tropical, is susceptible of cultivation. The government is administered by a governor appointed by the President. The commerce of the island at present is of little importance, the chief value of the island being as a naval and coaling station and landing for a submarine cable.

Area.....	square miles..	150
Population (estimated).....		9,000

## TUTUILA, MANUA, ETC.

Islands in the Samoan group in the Southern Pacific Ocean, annexed by the United States in 1899 at the request of their inhabitants and under an agreement with Great Britain and Germany, with which a joint protectorate had formerly been maintained over the Samoan group. The area of Tutuila is 54 square miles and of Manua 25 square miles, and the population is estimated at 4,000 for Tutuila and 1,800 for Manua and adjoining islets. Their chief value is as a naval, coaling, and cable station, the harbor of Pago Pago being pronounced the finest in the Southern Pacific. The government is administered by a naval officer designated by the President, and the construction of coaling docks and other requisites for a coaling station is in progress.

Area.....	square miles..	79
Population.....		5,800

## WAKE ISLAND.

A small island in the Pacific between the Hawaiian and Philippine groups, of which the United States took undisputed possession in 1899. It has no population. Its chief value is as a landing place for a cable.

## PORTO RICO.

An island in the West Indies, ceded to the United States by Spain by the peace treaty of 1899. Its area is 3,600 square miles, and the population, according to the census of 1899, 953,243, an increase of 16 per cent since the census of 1887. The people are chiefly engaged in agriculture, the principal productions being sugar, tobacco, coffee, and tropical fruits. The government is administered by a governor and executive council appointed by the President, and a legislative body, of which the house of delegates is elected by the residents of the island, the other body being the executive council named by the President and consisting of governor, secretary, treasurer, auditor, commissioner of the interior, commissioner of education, and five other persons, at least five of this number being, under requirements of law, native inhabitants of Porto Rico. The island is officially represented at Washington by a Resident Commissioner elected by the voters of Porto Rico. All local legislation is enacted and laws are established by the legislative body thus created, and municipal legislation is in the hands of municipal bodies of the cities and towns. The tariff of the United States applies in Porto Rico with reference to articles imported from foreign countries, but all articles from the United States are admitted free of any duty, and all articles from Porto Rico are admitted to ports of the United States free of any duty.

Area.....	square miles..	3,600
Population, 1899.....		953,243
Imports, fiscal year 1901.....	dollars..	9,367,230
Imports from United States, fiscal year 1901.....	do.....	7,414,502
Exports, fiscal year 1901.....	do.....	8,663,816
Exports to United States, fiscal year 1901.....	do.....	5,661,137
Vessels entered.....	tons..	472,406
Vessels entered United States.....	do.....	169,551

## CUBA.

## (TEMPORARY OCCUPATION.)

Cuba is temporarily governed by the United States under the agreement of the peace treaty with Spain, but provision has been made by Congress for the establishment of an independent government by the citizens of the island by the following resolution:

In fulfillment of the declaration contained in the joint resolution approved April 20, 1898, entitled "For the recognition of the independence of the people of Cuba, demanding that the Government of Spain relinquish its authority and government in the island of Cuba, and to withdraw its land and naval forces from Cuba and Cuban waters, and directing the President of the United States to use the land and naval forces of the United States to carry these resolutions into effect," the President is hereby authorized to "leave the government and control of the island of Cuba to its people" so soon as a government shall be established in said island under a constitution which, either as a part thereof or in an ordinance appended thereto, shall define the future relations of the United States with Cuba, substantially as follows:

I. That the government of Cuba shall never enter into any treaty or other compact with any foreign power or powers which will impair or tend to impair the independence of Cuba, nor in any matter authorize or permit any foreign power or powers to obtain, by colonization or for military or naval purposes or otherwise, lodgment in or control over any portion of said island.

II. That said government shall not assume or contract any public debt, to pay the interest upon which, and to make reasonable sinking-fund provision for the ultimate discharge of which, the ordinary revenues of the island, after defraying the expenses of government shall be inadequate.

III. That the government of Cuba consents that the United States may exercise the right to intervene for the preservation of Cuban independence, the maintenance of a government adequate for the protection of life, property, and individual liberty, and for discharging the obligations with respect to Cuba imposed by the treaty of Paris on the United States, now to be assumed and undertaken by the government of Cuba.

IV. That all acts of the United States in Cuba during its military occupancy thereof are ratified and validated, and all lawful rights acquired thereunder shall be maintained and protected.

V. That the government of Cuba will execute, and as far as necessary extend, the plans already devised or other plans to be mutually agreed upon, for the sanitation of the cities of the island, to the end that a recurrence of epidemic and infectious diseases may be prevented, thereby assuring protection to the people and commerce of Cuba, as well as to the commerce of the southern ports of the United States and the people residing therein.

VI. That the Isle of Pines shall be omitted from the proposed constitutional boundaries of Cuba, the title thereto being left to future adjustment by treaty.

VII. That to enable the United States to maintain the independence of Cuba, and to protect the people thereof, as well as for its own defense, the government of Cuba will lease or sell to the United States lands necessary for coaling or naval stations at certain specified points, to be agreed upon with the President of the United States.

VIII. That by way of further assurance the government of Cuba will embody the foregoing provisions in a permanent treaty with the United States.

Preparations for the establishment of an independent government, in accordance with the terms of the above resolution, are in progress in the island. The area is 46,575 square miles; the population, by the census of 1899, 1,572,797. The total imports in the calendar year 1900 were valued at \$66,658,589, of which a total value of \$32,197,019 was imported from the United States; the total exports were valued at \$49,014,962, of which a total value of \$33,615,627 was exported to the United States.



STATISTICAL STATEMENTS  
OF THE  
WORLD'S COLONIES.

1495





# STATISTICAL STATEMENTS OF THE COLONIES OF THE WORLD.

COLONIES, PROTECTORATES, DEPENDENCIES, AND NONCONTIGUOUS TERRITORIES OF NATIONS OF THE WORLD, SHOWING AREA AND POPULATION OF THE COLONIAL POSSESSIONS, PROTECTORATES, DEPENDENCIES, AND "SPHERES OF INFLUENCE" OF EACH COUNTRY.

COUNTRIES HAVING COLONIAL OR NONCONTIGUOUS TERRITORY.	Number of colonies, etc.	AREA.		POPULATION.	
		Mother country.	Colonies, and other noncontiguous territory.	Mother country.	Colonies, and other noncontiguous territory.
		<i>Square miles.</i>	<i>Square miles.</i>		
United Kingdom .....	54	124,979	112,043,806	41,665,177	1,351,254,076
France .....	29	201,092	4,317,826	38,595,000	62,270,569
Netherlands .....	8	12,648	782,863	5,103,424	33,408,014
Belgium .....	1	11,373	900,000	6,744,322	30,000,000
Chinese Empire .....	5	1,353,250	2,881,560	383,000,000	16,630,000
Germany .....	12	208,830	1,027,370	66,345,014	14,679,100
Turkey .....	5	1,115,046	840,486	24,931,000	14,701,221
United States .....	6	3,025,600	729,272	75,693,734	9,185,636
Portugal .....	10	34,528	804,004	5,049,729	10,115,804
Japan .....	2	147,655	13,543	43,700,754	2,797,469
Russia .....	3	8,660,395	114,320	128,932,173	3,300,000
Austria-Hungary .....	1	240,952	23,262	45,310,131	1,568,022
Italy .....	2	110,646	142,030	32,449,754	729,516
Spain .....	4	197,670	246,638	18,089,600	475,611
Denmark .....	4	15,289	87,148	2,447,441	127,184
Total .....	146	15,459,053	24,954,138	908,058,863	551,292,214

<sup>1</sup> Includes feudatory States of India, whose area is 731,944 square miles; population, in 1901, 63,181,000.

COLONIES, PROTECTORATES, DEPENDENCIES, ETC., GROUPED BY GRAND DIVISIONS OF THE WORLD, SHOWING AREA, POPULATION, AND GOVERNMENT.

[Compiled from Statesman's Year-Book and Colonial Office List, 1901.]

C. C. indicates Crown colonies, in which the Crown has the entire control of legislation, the administration being carried on by public officers, under the control of the home Government.

R. I. indicates colonies possessing representative institutions, in which the Crown has no more than a veto on legislation, but the home Government retains the control of public officers.

R. G. indicates colonies possessing responsible governments, in which the Crown has only a veto on legislation, and the home Government no control over any public officer except its own representatives.

COLONIES.	Governing country and form of government.	Area.	Population.	COLONIES.	Governing country and form of government.	Area.	Population.
<b>NORTH AMERICA.</b>				<b>EUROPE.</b>			
Alaska .....	United States territory .....	<i>Sq. miles.</i> 599,146	63,592	Bosnia and Herzegovina .....	Austria-Hung., protect .....	<i>Sq. miles.</i> 23,262	1,568,092
Bahamas, W. I. ....	British R. I. ....	4,466	47,565	Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia .....	Turkish tributary .....	38,080	3,310,713
Barbados .....	do .....	166	192,030	Crete .....	Turkish suzerainty .....	3,326	391,273
Bermudas .....	do .....	19	16,423	Faroe Islands .....	Danish colony .....	514	12,955
Canada .....	British R. G. ....	3,653,946	5,338,583	Gibraltar .....	British C. C. ....	2	21,701
Cuba .....	United States, temporarily .....	46,575	1,572,797	Iceland .....	Danish province .....	39,756	70,927
Curaçao .....	Dutch possession .....	403	51,524	Malta and Gozo .....	British R. I. ....	117	181,650
Danish West Indies .....	Danish possession .....	138	32,786	Total Europe .....		105,057	5,470,311
Greenland .....	do .....	46,740	10,516	<b>ASIA.</b>			
Guadeloupe .....	French possession .....	688	167,100	Aden and Perim .....	British C. C. ....	80	41,910
Honduras, British .....	British C. C. ....	7,562	35,226	Anam .....	French protectorate .....	88,780	6,000,000
Jamaica and Turks islands, W. I. ....	do .....	4,369	749,848	Bahrain Islands .....	British protectorate .....	273	68,000
Leeward Islands .....	British R. I. ....	675	136,666	Baluchistan .....	do .....	130,000	500,000
Martinique, W. I. ....	French possession .....	381	190,000	Bokhara .....	Russian dependency .....	92,000	2,500,000
Newfoundland .....	British R. G. ....	160,209	202,040	Cambodia .....	French protectorate .....	40,530	1,530,000
Porto Rico .....	United States .....	3,606	953,213	Ceylon .....	British R. I. ....	25,365	3,477,094
St. Pierre and Miquelon .....	French possession .....	93	6,250	Cochin China .....	French possession .....	23,160	2,343,500
Trinidad .....	British C. C. ....	1,868	260,577	Cyprus .....	British administration .....	3,584	227,900
Windward Islands .....	British R. I. ....	493	136,483	East Turkestan .....	Chinese dependency .....	431,800	580,000
Total North America .....		4,531,829	10,163,519	Formosa .....	Japanese dependency .....	13,455	2,745,000
<b>SOUTH AMERICA.</b>				Goa .....	Portuguese possession .....	1,390	494,836
Falkland Islands .....	British C. C. ....	6,500	1,759	Hongkong .....	British C. C. ....	29	254,400
Guianas—British .....	British R. I. ....	109,000	287,288	India—British .....	do .....	1,800,258	294,266,000
French .....	French colony .....	46,850	22,700	French .....	French possession .....	200	280,000
Dutch .....	Dutch .....	46,000	66,490	Portuguese .....	Portuguese possession .....	1,558	572,290
Total South America .....		208,410	378,237	Jungaria .....	Chinese dependency .....	147,950	6,800,000
				Kiauchau Bay .....	German possession .....	200	60,000
				Khiva .....	Russia dependency .....	22,320	800,000
				Kwan Tung .....	Russia possession .....		

COLONIES, PROTECTORATES, DEPENDENCIES, ETC., GROUPED BY GRAND DIVISIONS OF THE WORLD, SHOWING AREA, POPULATION, AND GOVERNMENT—Continued.

COLONIES.	Governing country and form of government.	Area.	Popula- tion.	COLONIES.	Governing country and form of government.	Area.	Popula- tion.
<b>ASIA—continued.</b>				<b>AFRICA—continued.</b>			
		<i>Sq. miles.</i>				<i>Sq. miles.</i>	
Macao.....	Portuguese possession..	4	78,627	Sahara.....	French possession.....	1,684,000	2,500,000
Malay Federated States.....	British protectorate.....	27,500	512,342	St. Helena.....	British C. C.....	47	4,270
Manchuria.....	Chinese dependency <sup>1</sup> ..	362,310	7,500,000	St. Marie.....	French possession.....	64	7,670
Mongolia.....	do.....	1,288,000	2,000,000	Senegal.....	do.....	200,000	3,200,000
Pescadore Islands.....	Japanese dependency..	85	52,400	Seychelles.....	British C. C.....	79	19,638
Samos.....	Turkish tributary.....	180	54,830	Sierra Leone.....	do.....	15,000	78,835
Sikkim.....	British protectorate.....	2,818	30,458	Somali Coast—British.....	British protectorate.....	75,000	.....
Straits Settlements.....	British C. C.....	1,512	604,916	French.....	French possession.....	45,000	200,000
Tibet.....	Chinese dependency.....	651,500	6,000,000	Italian.....	Italian possession.....	100,000	400,000
Tonquin.....	French possession.....	119,660	12,000,000	Togoland.....	German protectorate.....	33,000	2,500,000
Total Asia.....		5,276,534	346,124,503	Tripoli.....	Turkish tributary.....	398,900	1,300,000
<b>AFRICA.</b>				Tristan da Cunha.....	British C. C.....	45	100
Algeria.....	French colony.....	184,000	4,394,000	Tunis.....	French protectorate.....	50,840	1,900,090
Algerian Sahara.....	French possession.....	123,500	50,000	Uganda.....	British protectorate.....	140,000	3,000,300
Angola.....	Portuguese possession..	484,800	4,119,000	Zanzibar and Pemba.....	do.....	1,020	200,000
Ascension.....	British C. C.....	34	250	Total Africa.....		10,697,444	143,188,987
Azores and Madeira Islands..	Portuguese province.....	1,510	389,634	<b>OCEANIA.</b>			
Basuto Land.....	British C. C.....	10,293	250,000	Bismarck Archipelago.....	German.....	20,000	188,000
Bechuanaland.....	British protectorate.....	386,200	100,500	Borneo—British North.....	British protectorate.....	31,106	175,000
British East Africa.....	do.....	1,000,000	2,500,000	Dutch.....	Dutch possession.....	212,737	1,180,578
British Central Africa.....	do.....	42,217	900,615	Caroline Islands and Palaoes..	German possession.....	810	42,000
British South Africa (Rhodesia).	do.....	425,728	1,075,000	Celebes Islands.....	Dutch possession.....	71,470	1,197,860
Canary Islands.....	Spanish province.....	2,808	334,521	Fiji and Rotuma islands.....	British C. C.....	7,435	122,673
Cape Colony.....	British R. G.....	277,151	2,265,500	Guam.....	United States.....	150	9,000
Cape Verde Islands.....	Portuguese province.....	1,480	114,130	Hawaii.....	United States territory..	6,449	154,001
Ceuta.....	Spanish province.....	13	5,090	Java and Madura.....	Dutch possession.....	50,554	26,125,050
Comoro Islands.....	French protectorate.....	620	50,000	Kaiser Wilhelm Land.....	German protectorate.....	70,000	110,000
Comoro Free State.....	Belgian protectorate.....	900,000	30,000,000	Mariane Islands.....	German possession.....	250	2,000
Dahomey.....	French possession.....	60,000	1,000,000	Marquesas Islands.....	French possession.....	480	4,280
Egypt.....	Turkish tributary.....	400,000	9,734,405	Marshall Islands.....	German possession.....	150	13,000
Eritrea and Italian colonies.....	Italian possession.....	42,000	329,516	New Caledonia.....	French possession.....	7,700	53,000
Fernando Po, etc.....	Spanish possession.....	850	30,000	New Guinea—British.....	British C. C.....	90,540	350,000
French Congo.....	French possession.....	491,000	15,000,000	Dutch (Includ- ing Malucca).	Dutch possession.....	195,653	599,208
Gambia.....	British C. C.....	69	15,000	New South Wales <sup>2</sup> .....	British R. G.....	310,700	1,356,650
German East Africa.....	German protectorate.....	384,180	8,000,000	New Zealand.....	do.....	104,471	796,359
German Southwest Africa.....	do.....	322,450	200,000	Philippine Islands.....	United States.....	119,542	8,000,000
Gold Coast.....	British C. C.....	40,060	1,473,382	Queensland <sup>2</sup> .....	British R. G.....	668,497	512,604
Guinea—French.....	French possession.....	95,000	2,200,000	Samoan Islands (Savali and Upolu).....	German possession.....	1,000	19,100
Portuguese.....	Portuguese possession.....	4,440	824,000	Samoan Islands (Tutulia, Ma- nua, etc.).....	United States.....	79	5,800
Ivory Coast.....	French possession.....	125,000	2,500,000	Society and other Pacific islands.....	French possession.....	1,040	24,720
Kamerun.....	German protectorate.....	191,130	3,500,000	Solomon Islands.....	German possession.....	4,200	45,000
Lagos.....	British C. C.....	1,239	85,607	South Australia <sup>2</sup> .....	British R. G.....	903,690	370,700
Madagascar.....	French possession.....	228,000	2,500,000	Sumatra.....	Dutch possession.....	161,612	3,209,037
Mauritius and dependencies..	British C. C.....	705	379,659	Tasmania <sup>2</sup> .....	British R. G.....	26,215	182,508
Mayotte.....	French possession.....	140	11,640	Timor, etc.—Dutch.....	Dutch possession.....	44,374	978,267
Military Territories.....	do.....	700,000	4,000,000	Portuguese.....	Portuguese possession.....	7,462	378,627
Portuguese East Africa.....	Portuguese possession.....	301,000	3,120,000	Victoria <sup>2</sup> .....	British R. G.....	87,884	1,163,400
Natal and Zululand.....	British R. I.....	34,019	902,365	West Australia <sup>2</sup> .....	do.....	975,209	171,032
Nigeria.....	British protectorate.....	400,000	25,000,000	Total Oceania.....		4,181,459	47,589,454
Nossi-Be.....	French possession.....	130	9,500				
Orange River Colony.....	British possession.....	48,326	207,500				
Princes and St. Thomas Islands	Portuguese possession.....	360	24,660				
Reunion.....	French possession.....	970	173,200				
Rio de Oro and Adrar.....	Spanish possession.....	243,027	106,000				

<sup>1</sup> Military occupation by Russia pending agreement.

<sup>2</sup> Part of Australian Federation.

#### RECAPITULATION.

GRAND DIVISION.	Number of colonies, dependencies, etc.	Area.	Population.
		<i>Sq. miles.</i>	
North America <sup>1</sup> .....	19	4,531,829	10,163,519
South America.....	4	208,410	378,237
Europe.....	7	105,057	5,470,311
Asia.....	30	5,276,534	346,124,503
Africa.....	57	10,697,444	143,188,987
Oceania.....	31	4,181,459	47,589,454

<sup>1</sup> Includes Cuba, temporarily governed by the United States.

## BRITISH COLONIES, PROTECTORATES, AND DEPENDENCIES.

AREA, POPULATION, REVENUE, EXPENDITURE, COMMERCE, DEBT, RAILWAYS, ETC.

[From the Colonial Office List, 1901.]

COLONIES, ETC.	Area.	Popula- tion, 1891 (census).	Esti- mated popula- tion Dec. 31, 1899.	Children on school rolls, 1899.	Public revenue, 1899.	Public expendi- ture, 1899.	Public debt Dec. 31, 1899.	IMPORTS, 1899, FROM—		EXPORTS, 1899, TO—		Rail- ways, Gov- ern- ment or not, length open Dec. 31, 1899.	Tele- graph, length open Dec. 31, 1899.	Local mili- tary forces. (1)
								United King- dom.	Total.	United King- dom.	Total.			
	Sq. miles.				£	£	£	£	£	£	£	Miles.	Miles.	No.
<b>EUROPE:</b>														
Gibraltar .....	13	19,100	19,048	2,137	59,954	59,520	15,000							
Malta .....	117	177,457	181,648	15,669	354,265	351,354	79,168	297,830	6,668,961	919,202	5,449,501	8	457	12,011
Cyprus .....	3,584	209,286	227,900	28,500	200,638	134,682		82,411	317,761	55,632	308,219		237	
<b>Total for Europe ..</b>	<b>3,714</b>	<b>405,843</b>	<b>428,596</b>	<b>46,306</b>	<b>614,867</b>	<b>545,556</b>	<b>94,168</b>	<b>380,241</b>	<b>6,986,722</b>	<b>974,834</b>	<b>5,757,730</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>694</b>	<b>12,011</b>
<b>ASIA:</b>														
Ceylon .....	25,365	3,007,789	3,477,094	193,463	1,727,543	1,663,497	3,662,719	2,103,680	7,466,157	4,071,743	6,771,794	297	2,266	1,651
Hongkong .....	29	224,441	248,710	11,177	752,113	658,915	341,800							
Straits Settlements ..	1,542	512,342	601,916	14,458	505,558	492,053		2,857,270	27,605,225	4,570,917	23,241,432		13,267	415
Malay States .....	24,909	418,527	620,000	5,721	1,470,231	999,425			3,377,480		5,486,576	225	1,115	
Labuan .....	30	5,853	5,853	12	10,891	11,265			238,788		155,611	10		8
North Borneo .....	81,106	200,000	200,000	85	53,475	55,651			265,316		247,354			
Sarawak .....	41,000	300,000	500,000	500	83,370	82,566			321,324		437,394		39	450
<b>Total for Asia .....</b>	<b>123,981</b>	<b>4,665,952</b>	<b>5,656,573</b>	<b>225,321</b>	<b>4,603,181</b>	<b>3,963,372</b>	<b>4,004,519</b>	<b>4,960,950</b>	<b>39,269,290</b>	<b>8,641,600</b>	<b>36,440,158</b>	<b>532</b>	<b>16,678</b>	<b>2,521</b>
<b>AFRICA:</b>														
Ascension .....	34													
Cape, etc. ....	277,151	1,527,224	2,265,500	143,095	6,188,882	6,868,118	31,409,755	13,147,831	19,207,549	22,721,366	23,602,538	2,394	7,360	
Basutoland .....	10,293	219,000	250,000											
Natal .....	34,019	*811,189	*902,365	23,705	2,081,349	1,914,724	9,019,143	4,619,551	6,718,463	778,676	1,185,560	591	1,337	5,000
Bechuanaland Pro- tectorate .....	386,200				47,511	88,448						586		
Mauritius, etc. ....	705		379,659	19,181	906,631	840,723	1,192,184	740,399	2,871,375	174,323	2,506,481	106	135	2,547
Seychelles .....	79		19,638	2,609	24,186	17,927	20,000	21,560	65,644	60,476	123,557			
St. Helena .....	47		4,270	793	11,593	11,422		80,232	91,699	3,849	4,592		68	49
Sierra Leone and Protectorate .....	15,000		78,835	7,789	168,381	145,088		544,587	689,806	135,635	336,011	32	32	
Gambia .....	69	14,266	15,000		46,840	30,406		115,306	240,907	26,546	241,956			100
Gold Coast Colony ..	40,060	1,473,882	1,473,882	820	322,796	309,658		976,036	1,323,218	767,575	1,111,738		750	1,749
Lagos .....	1,239	85,607	85,607	8,929	192,792	223,289		788,580	966,595	332,336	915,934			741
Southern Nigeria .....					164,108	176,140		597,998	725,798	581,088	888,954			1,059
Northern Nigeria .....	310,000													
Niger and Niger Coast Protectorate ..	500,000				169,568	146,670		4583,067	4782,640	4500,368	4774,648			
Sphere of operations of British South Africa Company and British Central Africa .....	*500,000	688,049	688,049		*24,538	*65,715			*159,435		*79,349			
Somali Protectorate, Socotra, Zanzibar, Pemba, East Africa Protectorate, and Uganda .....	*750,000							*146,143	*1,596,606	*116,964	*1,513,407			
<b>Total for Africa ...</b>	<b>3,724,896</b>	<b>4,819,217</b>	<b>5,562,805</b>	<b>201,921</b>	<b>10,349,175</b>	<b>10,838,327</b>	<b>41,641,082</b>	<b>22,391,290</b>	<b>33,989,735</b>	<b>26,149,202</b>	<b>34,044,775</b>	<b>3,708</b>	<b>9,682</b>	<b>11,245</b>
<b>AMERICA:</b>														
Bermuda .....	19	15,103	16,423	1,328	39,956	37,443	44,800	104,408	394,606	2,063	125,817		36	778
Canada .....	3,653,946	4,833,289	5,312,500	1,065,329	9,061,923	8,667,865	70,923,473	7,615,094	33,444,721	20,361,340	32,650,049	17,358	33,074	37,636
Newfoundland and Labrador .....	160,200	202,040	202,040	35,073	360,357	367,772	3,407,558	397,608	1,296,831	296,562	1,325,270		638	1,314
British Guiana .....	109,000	278,328	287,288	22,845	588,839	625,543	928,775	747,189	1,318,701	964,390	1,927,960		1,656	1,170
British Honduras .....	7,562	31,471	35,226	8,547	51,535	53,994	37,736	66,562	212,237	177,033	263,090			
Falkland Islands .....	6,500	1,790	1,759	356	18,219	13,478		66,733	73,978	136,345	189,203			96
<b>Total for America ..</b>	<b>3,937,227</b>	<b>5,361,971</b>	<b>5,855,236</b>	<b>1,148,478</b>	<b>10,670,829</b>	<b>9,666,095</b>	<b>75,312,342</b>	<b>8,997,594</b>	<b>36,741,074</b>	<b>21,937,733</b>	<b>36,531,389</b>	<b>18,090</b>	<b>36,080</b>	<b>39,680</b>
<b>WEST INDIES:</b>														
Bahamas .....	4,466	47,565	47,565		83,055	69,251	112,826	64,955	329,197	19,340	169,148		9	
Barbados .....	166	182,306	192,000	25,334	176,022	207,884	414,000	429,148	998,007	50,630	845,590		24	659
Jamaica .....	4,200	639,491	745,104	98,598	773,610	719,959	2,149,412	846,750	1,884,332	357,705	1,868,060		185	1,644
Turks Island .....	169	4,744	4,744	718	8,033	7,644		2,685	25,708		31,910			
Trinidad and Tobago	1,868	218,381	260,577	30,613	651,135	650,760	923,413	949,685	2,535,965	839,665	2,572,891	81	594	1,245
Windward Isles—														
Grenada .....	133	53,209	64,098	9,240	63,757	59,359	127,670	101,921	226,829	220,479	267,738			66
St. Lucia .....	233	42,220	48,650	5,735	71,479	63,821	187,180	149,374	282,963	20,424	170,669		120	
St. Vincent .....	132	41,054	44,633	6,026	32,210	48,119	15,710	29,241	103,627	19,383	33,575		130	
Leeward Islands—														
Antigua .....	170	36,699	38,253	5,988	42,822	51,959	137,271	49,162	115,918	10,341	128,095			95
Dominica .....	291	26,841	30,374	4,092	26,156	25,083	70,900	30,221	70,229	39,477	66,766			
Montserrat .....	32	11,762	11,762	3,565	6,790	16,608	11,500	8,885		6,785				
St. Kitts and Nevis ..	115	43,963	51,877	9,951	42,809	47,415	74,450		148,384	3,606	159,854		51	120
Virgin Islands .....	57	4,639	4,400	637	2,984	2,220			3,642		3,867			
<b>Total for West In- dies .....</b>	<b>12,032</b>	<b>1,352,874</b>	<b>1,544,037</b>	<b>200,387</b>	<b>1,985,862</b>	<b>1,970,082</b>	<b>4,224,332</b>	<b>2,662,027</b>	<b>6,684,801</b>	<b>1,637,834</b>	<b>6,316,183</b>	<b>290</b>	<b>2,246</b>	<b>3,169</b>
<b>AUSTRALASIA:</b>														
New South Wales ...	310,700	1,197,284	1,356,650	295,596	9,753,755	9,584,100	61,580,482	8,211,351	25,594,315	8,992,480	28,445,466	2,896	13,663	8,012
Victoria .....	87,884	1,140,405	1,163,400	239,732	7,369,251	6,956,953	48,354,277	5,990,027	17,952,894	5,648,150	18,567,780	3,143	7,610	6,387
Queensland .....	668,497	398,178	512,604	117,710	4,174,083	4,024,170	35,226,664	2,905,437	6,764,097	4,272,952	11,942,858	2,800	10,202	4,853
West Australia .....	975,209	49,782	171,032	2,633,080	2,396,448	8,938,363		1,550,029	4,473,532	3,774,247	6,985,642	1,850	5,941	
South Australia .....	903,690	820,723	370,700	62,816	1,724,050	2,690,901	24,672,810	2,040,430	6,884,358	2,805,787	8,888,996	1,882	6,738	1,391
Tasmania .....	26,215	146,667	182,508	23,272	943,970	871,454	8,253,912	501,120	1,769,324	1,039,640	2,577,475	549	3,170	1,854
New Zealand .....	104,471	668,651	796,359	131,815	5,699,618	5,140,127	47,874,452	5,526,645	8,739,633	9,427,615	11,938,335	2,271	26,138	7,947
Fiji .....	7,435	121,180	122,673	162	98,621	95,568	205,076		278,035	1,591	481,936		100	
New Guinea .....	90,540	350,000			11,683	15,533			52,170					
<b>Total for Austral- asia .....</b>	<b>3,174,641</b>	<b>3,978,682</b>	<b>5,025,926</b>	<b>870,103</b>	<b>33,398,112</b>	<b>31,775,304</b>	<b>235,106,036</b>	<b>26,725,089</b>	<b>72,508,358</b>	<b>35,962,362</b>	<b>89,827,888</b>	<b>15,891</b>	<b>72,562</b>	<b>80,449</b>
<b>Total for colonies ..</b>	<b>10,976,491</b>	<b>20,579,539</b>	<b>24,073,173</b>	<b>2,692,516</b>	<b>61,622,016</b>	<b>58,768,736</b>	<b>360,412,479</b>	<b>66,117,141</b>	<b>196,179,980</b>	<b>95,303,625</b>	<b>208,418,143</b>	<b>38,020</b>	<b>137,943</b>	<b>99,078</b>

1 Including all militia, volunteers, and other permanently enrolled local defensive forces.

2 Imports and exports not given in the case of Gibraltar and Hongkong, as there are no returns distinguishing the local from the entrepôt trade. The figures for Malta include the latter trade.

3 Including Zululand.

4 Niger Coast Protectorate only.

5 Estimate.

6 British Central Africa only.

7 Zanzibar only.

## FRENCH COLONIES, PROTECTORATES, AND DEPENDENCIES.

AREA, POPULATION, LOCATION, AND DATE OF ACQUISITION.

FRENCH COLONIES, ETC., IN—	Year of acquisition.	Area.	Population.	FRENCH COLONIES, ETC., IN—	Year of acquisition.	Area.	Population.
<b>ASIA:</b>		<i>Square miles.</i>		<b>AFRICA—Continued.</b>		<i>Square miles.</i>	
India.....	1679	197	279,100	Mayotte.....	1843	140	11,640
Annam.....	1884	88,780	5,000,000	Nossi Bé.....	1841	130	9,500
Cambodia.....	1862	40,530	1,500,000	Ste. Marie.....	1643	64	7,670
Cochin China.....	1861	23,160	2,400,000	Madagascar.....	1896	227,750	2,500,000
Tonkin and Laos.....	1884-93	210,370	13,500,000	<b>Total of Africa.....</b>		<b>3,947,488</b>	<b>32,635,010</b>
<b>Total of Asia.....</b>		<b>363,037</b>	<b>22,679,100</b>	<b>AMERICA:</b>			
<b>AFRICA:</b>				Guiana.....	1626	46,850	22,710
Algeria.....	1830	184,474	4,430,000	Guadeloupe and dependencies.....	1635	688	167,100
Algerian Sahara.....		123,500	50,000	Martinique.....	1635	380	187,690
Tunis.....	1881	50,840	1,500,000	St. Pierre and Miquelon.....	1635	93	6,250
Sahara Region.....		1,684,000	2,500,000	<b>Total of America.....</b>		<b>48,011</b>	<b>383,750</b>
Senegal.....	1637-1880	200,000	3,500,000	<b>OCEANIA:</b>			
Military territories.....	1893	700,000	4,000,000	New Caledonia and dependencies.....	1854-87	7,700	53,000
French Guinea.....	1843	95,000	2,200,000	Establishments in Oceania.....	1841-81	1,520	29,000
Ivory coast, etc.....	1843	125,000	2,500,000	<b>Total of Oceania.....</b>		<b>9,220</b>	<b>82,000</b>
Dahomey.....	1893	60,000	1,000,000	<b>Grand total.....</b>		<b>4,367,746</b>	<b>55,779,860</b>
Kongo.....	1884	450,000	8,000,000				
Somali coast and dependencies.....	1864	45,000	200,000				
Réunion.....	1649	970	17,200				
Comoro Isles.....	1886	620	55,000				

## NETHERLANDS COLONIES, PROTECTORATES, AND DEPENDENCIES.

SHOWING DIVISIONS, AREA, POPULATION, AND GENERAL LOCATION.

[From Statesman's Yearbook.]

DIVISION AND GENERAL LOCATION.	Area.	Population in 1897.	DIVISION AND GENERAL LOCATION	Area.	Population in 1897.
<b>DUTCH EAST INDIES.</b>	<i>Square miles.</i>		<b>DUTCH EAST INDIES—continued.</b>	<i>Square miles.</i>	
Java and Madura.....	50,554	26,125,053	Molucca Islands.....	43,804	2 399,208
Island of Sumatra:			Timor Archipelago.....	17,098	2 119,239
Sumatra, West Coast.....	31,649	1 1,353,315	Bali and Lombok.....	4,065	2 1,044,757
Sumatra, East Coast.....	35,312	2 335,432	New Guinea to 141 E. long. 4.....	161,789	2 200,000
Benkulen.....	9,399	2 158,767	<b>Total in East Indies.....</b>	<b>736,400</b>	<b>6 34,090,000</b>
Lampungs.....	11,284	1 137,501	<b>POSSESSIONS IN AMERICA.</b>		
Palembang.....	53,497	1 692,317	Dutch Guiana.....	46,060	2 66,490
Atjeh.....	20,471	2 531,705	Curaçao.....	403	6 51,524
Riau-Lingga Archipelago.....	16,301	2 107,881	<b>Total in America.....</b>	<b>46,463</b>	<b>118,014</b>
Banca.....	4,446	1 93,000	<b>Total colonial, etc., possessions.....</b>	<b>782,863</b>	<b>6 34,208,014</b>
Billiton.....	1,863	1 41,558			
Borneo, West Coast.....	55,825	2 370,775			
Borneo, South and East districts.....	156,912	2 802,803			
Island of Celebes:					
Celebes.....	49,390	2 1,448,722			
Menado.....	22,080	2 519,138			

1 Tolerably accurate.  
2 Approximately.  
3 Mere conjecture.

4 New Guinea belongs to the residency of Ternate, Molucca Islands.  
5 Approximate total. The population of several unexplored countries is not included.  
6 At the end of 1898.

## GERMAN COLONIES, PROTECTORATES, AND DEPENDENCIES.

AREA, POPULATION, LOCATION, DATE OF ACQUISITION, AND FORM OF GOVERNMENT.

[From Statesman's Yearbook.]

GERMAN COLONIES, ETC., IN—	Date of acquisition.	Method of government.	Estimated area.	Estimated population.
<b>AFRICA:</b>			<i>Square miles.</i>	
Togoland.....	1884	Imperial commissioner.....	33,000	2,500,000
Kamerun.....	1884	Imperial governor.....	191,130	3,500,000
German Southwest Africa.....	1884-90	Imperial commissioner.....	322,450	200,000
German East Africa.....	1885-90	Imperial governor.....	384,180	8,000,000
<b>Total African possessions.....</b>			<b>930,760</b>	<b>14,200,000</b>
<b>ASIA:</b>				
Kiauchau Bay.....	1897	Imperial governor.....	1 200	1 60,000
<b>THE PACIFIC:</b>				
Kaiser Wilhelm Land.....	1885-86	Imperial commissioner.....	70,000	110,000
Bismarck Archipelago.....	1885		20,000	188,000
Solomon Islands.....	1886		4,200	45,000
Marshall Islands, etc.....	1886		150	13,000
Caroline Islands.....	1899	Deputy commissioner.....	560	40,000
Palaoes (Pelen Islands).....	1899		250	2,000
Marianne Islands.....	1899		660	12,500
Samoan Islands—		Civil governor.....	340	16,600
Savali.....	1899			
Upolu.....	1899			
<b>Total Pacific possessions.....</b>	<b>1884-99</b>		<b>96,160</b>	<b>427,000</b>
<b>Total foreign dependencies.....</b>	<b>1884-99</b>		<b>1,027,120</b>	<b>14,687,000</b>

1 Exclusive of the bay with an area of about 200 square miles, and the neutral zone with an area of about 2,500 square miles and a population of 1,200,000.

## PORTUGUESE COLONIES, PROTECTORATES, AND DEPENDENCIES.

## DIVISIONS, AREA, POPULATION, AND GENERAL LOCATION.

[From Statesman's Year-Book.]

COLONIAL POSSESSIONS IN—	Area.	Population.
	<i>Square miles.</i>	
<b>AFRICA:</b>		
Cape Verde Islands (1896).....	1,480	114,130
Guinea.....	4,440	820,000
Princes and St. Thomas Islands.....	360	24,660
Angola.....	484,800	4,119,000
East Africa.....	301,000	3,120,000
Total in Africa.....	792,040	8,197,700
<b>ASIA:</b>		
In India—Goa (1887).....	1,390	494,806
Damao, Diu, etc. (1887).....	168	77,454
Indian Archipelago (Timor, etc.).....	7,458	300,000
China—Macao, etc. (1886).....	4	78,027
Total in Asia.....	9,020	940,917
Total colonies.....	801,060	9,216,707

The following table shows the colonial budgets for the year 1899–1900, and imports and exports in 1898:

COLONIES.	Revenue, 1899–1900.	Expendi- tures, 1899–1900.	Imports.	Exports.
	<i>Milreis.<sup>1</sup></i>	<i>Milreis.</i>	<i>Milreis.</i>	<i>Milreis.</i>
Angola.....	1,673,111	2,013,671	6,187,263	7,169,127
Cape Verde.....	364,129	319,941	1,558,047	194,608
Guinea.....	56,655	216,742	458,566	233,136
St. Thomas and Principe.....	404,196	322,732	1,663,914	2,526,978
East Africa.....	*4,232,326	*3,945,765	*2,613,491	*2,424,816
India—Goa.....	940,886	1,057,564	*216,521	*135,018
Macao.....	441,378	405,397	8,768,356	8,263,906
Timor.....	144,531	176,069	*318,312	*246,503
Total.....	8,257,212	8,457,881	21,784,470	21,134,092

<sup>1</sup> Value of milreis, \$1.080.

\*1898.

\*1899.

\*1897.

## COMMERCE OF PRINCIPAL BRITISH COLONIES.

WITH THE SHARE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM IN THE SAME, AT FIVE-YEAR INTERVALS, 1871–1896, AND IN 1899.

[North American colonies included are Canada and Newfoundland; South African, Cape Colony and Natal; Australasian, those of the Australian continent, Tasmania, and New Zealand.]

[From Statesman's Year-Book.]

BRITISH COLONIES IN—	Total imports.	IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.		Total exports.	EXPORTS TO THE UNITED KINGDOM.	
		Value.	Per cent of total.		Value.	Per cent of total.
<b>NORTH AMERICA:</b>						
1871.....	£ 21,745,000	£ 10,944,000	50.3	£ 17,034,000	£ 5,457,000	32.0
1876.....	20,726,000	8,999,000	43.0	18,235,000	8,958,000	49.1
1881.....	23,374,000	9,583,000	41.0	22,106,000	11,675,000	52.8
1886.....	22,711,000	8,742,000	38.4	18,530,000	8,792,000	47.4
1891.....	26,082,000	9,128,000	34.9	21,772,000	10,536,000	48.4
1896.....	25,500,000	7,183,000	28.2	26,230,000	14,058,000	53.6
1899.....	32,951,268	8,012,702	24.3	34,075,319	20,637,902	60.6
<b>SOUTH AFRICA:</b>						
1871.....	3,580,000	2,984,000	83.1	4,148,000	3,113,000	75.0
1876.....	6,852,000	5,736,000	83.7	4,294,000	3,861,000	89.9
1881.....	11,700,000	9,168,000	78.3	9,368,000	8,658,000	92.4
1886.....	5,302,000	4,317,000	81.4	8,267,000	7,492,000	90.6
1891.....	12,230,000	10,820,000	88.5	12,407,000	11,788,000	95.0
1896.....	22,321,000	15,992,000	71.6	18,349,000	17,237,000	93.9
1899.....	25,926,000	17,797,000	68.6	25,548,000	23,500,000	92.0
<b>AUSTRALASIA:</b>						
1871.....	30,075,000	12,006,000	39.9	34,581,000	18,487,000	53.4
1876.....	45,505,000	21,770,000	47.8	43,093,000	22,042,000	51.1
1881.....	52,987,000	25,662,000	48.4	48,739,000	24,342,000	49.9
1886.....	60,367,000	29,558,000	48.9	45,666,000	21,776,000	47.7
1891.....	72,086,000	30,823,000	42.7	72,719,000	32,638,000	44.9
1896.....	62,636,000	24,967,000	39.8	66,584,000	29,172,000	43.8
1899.....	72,310,000	26,758,000	37.0	89,005,000	35,992,000	40.4

## VALUE OF TOTAL IMPORTS OF THE BRITISH COLONIES, INCLUDING BULLION AND SPECIE, 1893 TO 1899.

[From British Statistical Abstract.]

POSSESSIONS.	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
India <sup>1 2 3</sup> .....	95,482,688	83,110,200	86,304,739	89,201,937	94,177,652	89,997,141	96,278,164
Straits Settlements <sup>4</sup> .....	20,241,049	21,807,732	21,060,588	21,960,173	21,641,655	23,777,261	27,605,225
Ceylon <sup>1 5</sup> .....	4,418,795	4,288,627	4,644,135	5,227,644	6,158,607	6,475,218	7,468,157
Mauritius <sup>1</sup> .....	3,397,597	3,324,349	3,095,432	3,269,405	2,750,883	2,877,577	2,871,375
Labuan <sup>1</sup> .....	108,003	177,684	142,894	147,448	184,340	193,506	233,788
Hongkong (no returns).....							
<b>Australasia:</b>							
New South Wales.....	18,107,035	15,801,941	15,992,415	20,561,510	21,744,350	24,453,560	25,594,315
Victoria.....	13,283,814	12,470,599	12,472,344	14,554,837	15,454,482	16,768,904	17,952,894
South Australia, except Northern Territory <sup>6</sup> .....	7,934,200	6,226,690	5,585,601	7,160,770	7,126,385	6,184,806	6,884,358
Northern Territory.....	116,539	98,945	95,280	102,752	150,701	113,960	131,880
Western Australia.....	1,494,438	2,114,414	3,774,951	6,580,856	6,331,266	5,241,965	4,473,532
Tasmania.....	1,057,683	979,676	1,094,457	1,192,410	1,367,608	1,650,018	1,769,324
New Zealand.....	6,911,515	6,788,020	6,400,129	7,137,320	8,055,223	8,230,600	8,739,633
Queensland.....	4,352,783	4,337,400	5,349,007	5,433,271	5,429,191	6,007,266	6,764,097
<b>Total</b> .....	<b>53,258,007</b>	<b>48,817,685</b>	<b>50,764,184</b>	<b>62,723,726</b>	<b>65,659,206</b>	<b>68,651,078</b>	<b>72,310,033</b>
<b>British New Guinea <sup>7</sup>.....</b>	<b>25,261</b>	<b>28,501</b>	<b>28,367</b>	<b>34,521</b>	<b>51,392</b>	<b>46,971</b>	<b>252,170</b>
Fiji.....	311,151	313,481	241,869	242,492	253,860	239,000	278,085
Falkland Islands.....	71,126	62,270	71,826	69,985	63,285	72,987	73,978
Natal <sup>8</sup> .....	7 2,482,228	7 2,239,165	7 2,466,415	5,667,750	6,001,969	5,369,672	6,718,463
Cape of Good Hope <sup>9</sup> .....	11,539,987	11,588,096	19,094,880	18,771,371	17,997,789	16,682,438	19,207,549
St. Helena <sup>10 11</sup> .....	39,193	30,777	33,744	29,553	33,243	45,053	64,012
Lagos.....	749,027	744,561	815,815	901,475	770,511	908,351	966,595
Gold Coast.....	718,353	12 811,634	12 924,419	12 905,135	12 907,670	12 1,095,861	12 1,323,218
Sierra Leone <sup>12</sup> .....	417,466	478,025	427,338	494,688	457,389	606,349	689,806
Gambia.....	12 166,509	12 130,349	12 97,399	12 110,324	12 176,327	12 246,092	12 240,907
<b>North America:</b>							
Dominion of Canada (years ended June 30) <sup>1</sup> .....	26,522,110	25,371,563	22,763,359	24,248,940	24,496,974	28,833,504	33,444,721
Newfoundland <sup>1 14</sup> .....	1,577,619	1,492,654	1,233,233	7 1,230,177	7 1,220,206	7 1,066,205	7 1,296,831
<b>Total</b> .....	<b>28,099,729</b>	<b>26,864,217</b>	<b>23,996,592</b>	<b>25,479,117</b>	<b>25,717,180</b>	<b>29,899,709</b>	<b>34,741,552</b>
<b>Bermuda <sup>11</sup>.....</b>	<b>327,580</b>	<b>286,047</b>	<b>305,514</b>	<b>304,970</b>	<b>323,148</b>	<b>351,473</b>	<b>394,606</b>
<b>Honduras <sup>1</sup>.....</b>	<b>169,225</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>299,103</b>	<b>300,954</b>	<b>292,613</b>	<b>256,977</b>	<b>212,237</b>
<b>West India Islands:</b>							
Bahamas.....	196,512	174,969	172,581	194,774	186,010	238,337	329,197
Turks and Caicos Islands.....	24,888	28,526	26,735	30,245	33,239	27,067	25,708
Jamaica.....	2 1,577,795	2 1,191,745	2 2,288,946	2 1,856,378	2 1,660,667	2 1,814,793	2 1,844,332
<b>Windward Islands:</b>							
St. Lucia <sup>5</sup> .....	168,978	187,542	154,945	190,534	245,253	271,995	282,963
St. Vincent <sup>15</sup> .....	93,424	91,009	64,842	12 71,490	12 70,824	12 95,551	12 103,627
Barbados.....	12 1,372,537	12 1,279,335	12 956,921	12 1,048,887	12 1,008,699	12 1,058,885	12 998,007
Grenada.....	166,679	196,998	12 175,712	12 154,405	12 164,356	12 201,583	12 226,829
Tobago.....	10 17,863	10 15,403	10 13,643	10 13,932	10 11,657	10 10,885	(17)
<b>Leeward Islands:</b>							
Virgin Islands.....	3,885	4,895	4,576	4,478	3,301	3,943	3,642
St. Christopher.....	184,192	192,701	172,281	185,214	135,921	122,968	148,384
Nevis.....	178,931	157,633	144,864	135,627	110,188	105,103	115,908
Antigua.....	29,325	32,981	24,490	26,497	22,269	19,818	27,204
Montserrat.....	64,552	62,643	69,789	64,477	54,074	60,260	70,229
Dominica.....	10 2,270,885	10 2,152,883	10 2,276,864	10 2,463,525	10 2,161,231	10 2,283,056	17 2,535,965
<b>Total</b> .....	<b>6,930,446</b>	<b>6,769,263</b>	<b>6,547,179</b>	<b>6,440,463</b>	<b>5,867,689</b>	<b>6,314,244</b>	<b>6,711,995</b>
<b>British Guiana.....</b>	<b>2 1,920,710</b>	<b>2 1,668,750</b>	<b>2 1,443,553</b>	<b>2 1,341,710</b>	<b>2 1,282,976</b>	<b>2 1,371,412</b>	<b>2 1,319,701</b>
Gibraltar (no complete returns).....							
Malta (no complete returns).....							

NOTE.—For India and Mauritius the values are given in tens of rupees. For the other possessions, when the values given in the official returns are made otherwise than in £ sterling, conversions have been made at the following rates: Hongkong and Labuan, the dollar at 4s. 2d. Canada, the dollar, in 1885, at 4s. 2d.; in 1886-99, at 4s. 1 3/4d. Newfoundland, the dollar, in 1885-94, at 4s. 2d.; and in 1895-99, at 4s. 1 3/4d. Honduras, the silver dollar, in 1885, at 3s. 2d.; in 1886-87, at 2s. 11d.; in 1888-89, at 2s. 9 1/2d.; in 1890, at 3s. 1d.; in 1891, at 2s. 11 1/2d.; in 1892, at 2s. 7 1/2d.; and in 1893, at 2s. 3 1/2d. From 1894 the accounts have been given in gold dollars—1 dollar=4s. 1 1/4d. Straits Settlements, the dollar, in 1885, at 3s. 5 1/2d.; in 1886-87, at 3s. 2 1/2d.; in 1888-89, at 3s.; in 1890, at 3s. 4d.; in 1891, at 3s. 2 1/2d.; in 1892, at 2s. 10d.; in 1893, at 2s. 6 1/2d.; in 1894, at 2s. 1d.; in 1895, at 2s. 1 1/2d.; in 1896, at 2s. 2 1/2d.; in 1897, at 1s. 11 1/2d.; in 1898, at 1s. 11d.; and in 1899, at 1s. 11 1/2d. Ceylon, the rupee, in 1885-86, at 1s. 6d.; in 1887-88, at 1s. 5d.; in 1889, at 1s. 4 1/2d.; in 1890, at 1s. 6d.; in 1891, at 1s. 5 1/2d.; in 1892, at 1s. 3 1/2d.; in 1893, at 1s. 2 1/2d.; in 1894-95, at 1s. 4 1/2d.; in 1896, at 1s. 2 1/2d.; in 1897, at 1s. 3 1/2d.; in 1898, at 1s. 3 1/2d.; and in 1899, at 1s. 4d. Gibraltar, the peseta, in 1885-88, at 9d.; in 1899-90, at 9d.; in 1891, at 8 1/2d.; in 1892-96, at 8d.; and in 1897, at 7 1/2d. In 1898 British coins were made legal tender, and the revenue, etc., was given for that year and subsequently in £ sterling.

<sup>1</sup> See note above.

<sup>2</sup> Exclusive of land frontier trade.

<sup>3</sup> For the twelve months ended March 31 of the year following that stated above.

<sup>4</sup> Exclusive of the value of the import trade between the settlements. For rates of conversion into £ sterling, see note.

<sup>5</sup> Including the value of coal for supply to steamships.

<sup>6</sup> Exclusive of overland imports of live stock, but including other border and River Murray trade, so far as reported.

<sup>7</sup> For years ended June 30.

<sup>8</sup> Goods in transit for the interior are included in the returns of imports but do not appear in those of exports. The value of gold (produce of South African States) brought into the colony for shipment at Port Natal is included in the returns of exports, though not in those of imports.

<sup>9</sup> Exclusive of gold (the produce of South African States) brought into the colony for shipment.

<sup>10</sup> Exclusive of transshipments.

<sup>11</sup> Exclusive of Government stores.

<sup>12</sup> Including an estimated amount for freight, insurance, and value of packages. In prior years the value of the goods was that at the port of shipment. In 1894 the charges were 15.2 per cent; in 1895, 14 per cent; in 1896, 14 per cent; in 1897, 13.6 per cent; in 1898, 12.4 per cent; in 1899, 14.8 per cent.

<sup>13</sup> Imports for consumption.

<sup>14</sup> Including imports into Labrador.

<sup>15</sup> The imports of bullion and specie are not specified in the returns from this colony.

<sup>16</sup> Exclusive of trade between Tobago and Trinidad.

<sup>17</sup> Tobago included in Trinidad.



## VALUE OF IMPORTS OF THE BRITISH COLONIES (INCLUDING BULLION AND SPECIE) FROM UNITED KINGDOM, 1892 to 1899.

POSSESSIONS.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
India <sup>1,2,3</sup> .....	£ 57,183,166	£ 65,810,119	£ 58,322,906	£ 56,154,581	£ 59,044,891	£ 60,667,946	£ 56,666,852	£ .....
Straits Settlements <sup>1</sup> .....	3,158,627	2,796,574	2,901,288	2,294,997	2,864,672	2,788,318	3,057,482	2,857,272
Ceylon <sup>1</sup> .....	1,156,247	1,159,350	1,058,128	1,116,101	1,274,441	1,640,358	1,737,644	2,108,680
Mauritius <sup>1</sup> .....	956,049	659,827	755,873	585,423	741,277	664,194	544,393	740,399
Labuan <sup>1</sup> .....								
Hongkong (no returns).....								
<b>Australasia:</b>								
New South Wales.....	8,883,983	7,218,124	5,983,489	6,420,107	7,190,115	7,557,069	7,744,418	8,211,351
Victoria.....	6,857,090	5,511,735	4,890,856	4,759,546	5,923,417	6,004,798	6,195,134	5,990,027
South Australia, except Northern Territory.....	2,372,185	1,925,985	1,599,682	1,857,989	2,220,611	2,037,267	1,974,818	2,040,430
Northern Territory.....	2,850	3,014	7,486	5,711	8,360	81,350	11,822	33,214
Western Australia.....	592,496	739,001	611,308	943,477	2,095,640	2,586,081	2,051,872	1,550,089
Tasmania.....	541,619	344,300	326,393	315,172	379,930	397,510	465,544	501,120
New Zealand.....	4,767,369	4,481,955	3,949,770	3,992,359	4,714,476	5,392,738	5,148,833	5,526,645
Queensland.....	2,049,359	1,559,475	2,088,983	2,308,695	2,472,493	2,501,952	2,559,244	2,905,437
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>26,066,951</b>	<b>21,777,649</b>	<b>19,698,067</b>	<b>20,603,056</b>	<b>25,005,042</b>	<b>26,528,765</b>	<b>26,151,685</b>	<b>26,758,253</b>
<b>British New Guinea:</b>								
Fiji <sup>4</sup> .....		18,479				1,184		
Falkland Islands.....	62,555	64,571	64,500	64,248	62,641	54,225	64,992	66,733
Natal.....	2,422,932	£1,833,790	£1,630,709	£1,734,258	3,845,623	4,184,467	3,752,270	4,649,551
Cape of Good Hope.....	7,695,905	9,241,468	9,098,783	10,802,676	13,537,064	12,904,946	11,503,771	13,147,831
St. Helena <sup>5</sup> .....	19,010	25,069	17,994	22,263	20,954	21,744	38,208	53,603
Lagos.....	323,565	525,287	486,896	605,464	667,801	574,938	723,650	788,580
Gold Coast.....	407,038	524,037	£581,210	£624,556	£654,822	£609,546	£819,810	£976,036
Sierra Leone.....	£332,198	£325,829	£381,248	£336,414	£403,053	£377,508	£512,099	£544,587
Gambia <sup>6</sup> .....	83,521	82,967	72,893	51,068	57,568	97,181	127,465	115,806
<b>North America:</b>								
Dominion of Canada (years ended June 30) <sup>1,9</sup> .....	8,496,254	8,866,112	7,955,603	6,396,932	6,776,659	6,043,600	6,678,271	7,615,094
Newfoundland <sup>1,10</sup> .....	11	558,511	528,946	305,120	£385,429	£402,945	£312,175	£397,608
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>8,496,254</b>	<b>9,424,623</b>	<b>8,484,549</b>	<b>6,702,052</b>	<b>7,162,088</b>	<b>6,446,545</b>	<b>6,990,446</b>	<b>8,012,702</b>
<b>Bermuda<sup>6</sup>.....</b>	<b>88,056</b>	<b>86,601</b>	<b>85,903</b>	<b>88,383</b>	<b>90,025</b>	<b>95,424</b>	<b>105,033</b>	<b>104,408</b>
<b>Honduras<sup>1</sup>.....</b>	<b>89,535</b>	<b>64,830</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>88,025</b>	<b>107,656</b>	<b>100,095</b>	<b>86,446</b>	<b>66,562</b>
<b>West India Islands:</b>								
Bahamas.....	46,709	45,758	45,040	36,128	50,224	46,229	59,010	64,955
Turks and Caicos Islands.....	4,169	4,116	3,667	3,318	3,284	3,478	3,305	2,685
Jamaica.....	£1,001,228	£1,190,563	£1,106,284	£1,106,177	£927,314	£776,889	£819,438	£846,750
<b>Windward Islands:</b>								
St. Lucia.....	103,859	86,838	93,780	74,512	101,983	119,355	140,329	149,374
St. Vincent <sup>12</sup> .....	49,313	41,387	39,193	27,687	£29,847	£28,358	£27,291	£29,241
Barbados.....	469,318	£583,087	£507,534	£391,435	£467,649	£474,622	£428,063	£429,148
Grenada.....	79,015	83,175	99,973	£78,079	£66,485	£78,893	£94,983	£101,921
Tobago.....	9,697	12,336	9,179	8,821	8,926	7,660	8,051	(13)
<b>Leeward Islands:</b>								
Virgin Islands.....	582	306	135	269	182	75	151	205
St. Christopher and Nevis.....	87,790	88,967	90,830	65,538	79,760	55,268	53,412	59,930
Antigua.....	93,346	85,667	73,243	57,532	58,315	42,613	43,829	49,162
Montserrat.....	10,228	12,125	14,918	9,975	11,925	9,635	7,765	8,885
Dominica.....	30,012	34,008	27,794	30,062	28,735	25,906	28,914	30,221
Trinidad.....	759,539	874,406	835,185	988,553	978,566	857,857	796,359	£949,685
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>2,744,805</b>	<b>3,142,739</b>	<b>2,946,755</b>	<b>2,878,086</b>	<b>2,813,194</b>	<b>2,526,838</b>	<b>2,510,900</b>	<b>2,722,162</b>
<b>British Guiana.....</b>	<b>£949,051</b>	<b>£1,046,862</b>	<b>£882,389</b>	<b>£789,817</b>	<b>£783,697</b>	<b>£740,878</b>	<b>£762,188</b>	<b>£747,189</b>
<b>Gibraltar (no complete returns).....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>
<b>Malta (no complete returns).....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>

<sup>1</sup> See note on page 1502.<sup>2</sup> For the twelve months ended March 31 of the year following that stated above.<sup>3</sup> Exclusive of Government stores and treasure.<sup>4</sup> Exclusive of bullion and specie.<sup>5</sup> For the year ended June 30.<sup>6</sup> Exclusive of Government stores.<sup>7</sup> Including an estimated amount for freight, insurance, and value of packages. In prior years the value was that of the goods at the port of shipment.<sup>8</sup> Total value of imports from the United Kingdom, exclusive of transshipments.<sup>9</sup> Imports for consumption.<sup>10</sup> Including imports into Labrador.<sup>11</sup> Figures can not be given, owing to destruction of books by fire.<sup>12</sup> The imports of bullion and specie are not specified in the returns from this colony.<sup>13</sup> Tobago included in Trinidad.

## VALUE OF TOTAL EXPORTS OF THE BRITISH COLONIES (INCLUDING BULLION AND SPECIE), 1893 TO 1899.

POSSESSIONS.	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
India <sup>1 2 3</sup> .....	110,608,562	117,189,850	118,594,549	108,921,592	104,781,428	120,211,146	117,070,032
Straits Settlements <sup>4</sup> .....	18,295,726	18,114,616	18,378,589	18,947,491	18,738,007	20,346,186	23,241,432
Ceylon <sup>5</sup> .....	4,239,081	3,976,500	4,278,401	4,669,346	4,908,570	5,647,043	6,771,794
Mauritius <sup>1</sup> .....	2,817,917	3,193,880	3,009,700	3,216,255	2,645,881	2,913,877	2,506,431
Labuan <sup>1</sup> .....	651,541	6100,588	6118,046	6123,736	6136,185	6166,170	6155,611
Hongkong (no returns) .....							
<b>Australasia:</b>							
New South Wales .....	22,921,223	20,577,673	21,934,785	23,010,349	23,751,072	27,648,117	28,445,466
Victoria .....	18,308,551	14,026,546	14,547,732	14,198,518	16,739,670	15,872,246	18,567,780
South Australia, except Northern Territory <sup>7</sup> .....	8,463,936	7,301,774	7,177,038	7,594,054	6,928,415	6,795,774	8,388,336
Northern Territory .....	172,059	227,009	175,704	149,009	142,335	182,596	158,650
Western Australia .....	918,147	1,251,406	1,332,554	1,650,226	3,940,098	4,960,006	6,985,642
Tasmania .....	1,352,184	1,489,041	1,373,063	1,496,576	1,741,461	1,803,369	2,577,475
New Zealand .....	8,985,364	9,231,047	8,550,224	8,321,105	10,016,993	10,517,955	11,938,355
Queensland .....	9,682,662	8,796,559	8,982,600	9,163,726	9,091,557	10,856,127	11,942,858
<b>Total .....</b>	<b>65,754,126</b>	<b>62,900,055</b>	<b>64,073,700</b>	<b>66,583,563</b>	<b>72,354,601</b>	<b>78,636,190</b>	<b>89,004,602</b>
British New Guinea <sup>8</sup> .....	912,916	911,046	913,650	914,666	919,327	921,247	922,311
Fiji .....	355,632	581,652	332,209	435,342	431,860	534,150	481,936
Falkland Islands .....	134,872	131,801	122,988	132,194	125,123	106,984	139,203
Natal <sup>10</sup> .....	1,337,516	1,118,895	1,140,930	1,319,179	1,579,538	1,263,354	1,885,580
Cape of Good Hope <sup>11</sup> .....	13,156,589	13,812,062	16,904,756	16,970,168	21,660,210	25,318,701	23,662,538
St. Helena .....	4,976	5,052	4,314	4,739	4,993	4,391	4,592
Lagos .....	836,295	821,682	985,595	975,263	810,975	882,329	915,934
Gold Coast .....	722,107	850,344	877,804	792,111	857,793	992,998	1,111,738
Sierra Leone .....	398,664	426,499	452,604	449,033	400,748	290,991	336,011
Gambia .....	204,721	149,143	93,537	116,981	165,894	247,832	241,936
<b>North America:</b>							
Dominion of Canada (years ended June 30) <sup>1</sup> .....	24,362,538	24,148,962	23,350,439	24,865,860	28,345,942	33,730,003	32,650,049
Newfoundland <sup>12</sup> .....	1,308,523	1,210,660	1,278,080	1,364,011	1,012,148	1,074,027	1,425,270
<b>Total .....</b>	<b>25,671,061</b>	<b>25,359,622</b>	<b>24,628,519</b>	<b>26,229,871</b>	<b>29,358,090</b>	<b>34,804,030</b>	<b>34,075,319</b>
Bermuda .....	129,069	98,377	115,913	108,613	127,703	113,903	125,817
Honduras <sup>1</sup> .....	247,318		264,197	283,663	288,969	263,908	263,090
<b>West India Islands:</b>							
Bahamas .....	131,021	131,378	124,011	138,972	149,085	174,860	169,148
Turks and Caicos Islands .....	23,366	32,774	21,688	31,498	43,304	24,811	31,910
Jamaica .....	2,075,689	1,921,422	1,873,106	1,470,241	1,441,368	1,662,543	1,668,090
<b>Windward Islands:</b>							
St. Lucia <sup>3</sup> .....	178,429	145,894	102,155	93,720	154,267	92,615	98,574
St. Vincent <sup>14</sup> .....	114,694	87,374	68,690	156,392	156,935	154,667	153,510
Barbados .....	1,243,083	984,512	587,298	758,229	736,163	769,231	845,590
Grenada .....	316,063	189,614	174,497	183,883	154,439	257,274	267,738
Tobago .....	15,675	15,872	10,617	10,765	4,968	21,443	(15)
<b>Leeward Islands:</b>							
Virgin Islands .....	4,153	4,015	3,818	3,710	4,033	3,855	3,867
St. Christopher and Nevis .....	273,799	225,524	140,542	119,361	149,204	138,222	159,854
Antigua .....	199,870	170,223	87,125	131,113	117,202	79,178	128,095
Montserrat .....	32,715	22,502	17,189	25,912	22,063	13,849	15,569
Dominica .....	53,752	42,665	39,471	51,438	47,416	63,912	65,766
Trinidad .....	162,320,824	162,000,748	162,065,104	162,165,820	161,994,926	162,310,133	172,572,891
<b>Total .....</b>	<b>6,969,133</b>	<b>5,962,517</b>	<b>5,315,211</b>	<b>5,252,053</b>	<b>5,087,373</b>	<b>5,656,593</b>	<b>6,260,592</b>
British Guiana .....	2,358,918	2,039,901	1,769,500	1,899,457	1,783,765	1,775,691	1,927,960
Gibraltar (no complete returns) .....							
Malta (no complete returns) .....							

<sup>1</sup> See note on page 1502.<sup>2</sup> Exclusive of land frontier trade.<sup>3</sup> For years ending March 31 of the year following.<sup>4</sup> Exclusive of export trade between the Settlements.<sup>5</sup> Exclusive of exports of bunker coal.<sup>6</sup> Exclusive of exports in native vessels.<sup>7</sup> Excluding overland exports of live stock, but including other border and River Murray trade, so far as reported to the customs.<sup>8</sup> Years ended June 30.<sup>9</sup> Exclusive of exports of gold.<sup>10</sup> Goods in transit for the interior do not appear in returns of exports.<sup>11</sup> Inclusive of diamonds passing through the Kimberly post-office, but exclusive of overland exports under rebate of duties, and under the South African customs union convention.<sup>12</sup> Including exports from Labrador.<sup>13</sup> Exports of domestic produce only. The estimated value of the reexports was £31,795 in 1893 and £9,879 in 1894.<sup>14</sup> Exports of bullion and specie are not specified in returns from this colony.<sup>15</sup> In 1896 and later years an addition has been made to the value of the exports to cover the cost of packing. In 1896 this amounted to a little over 9 per cent.<sup>16</sup> Exclusive of trade between Tobago and Trinidad.<sup>17</sup> Tobago included in Trinidad.

## VALUE OF TOTAL EXPORTS OF THE BRITISH COLONIES, INCLUDING BULLION AND SPECIE, TO UNITED KINGDOM.

POSSESSIONS.	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
India <sup>1, 2, 3</sup> .....	37,167,329	40,578,469	38,612,001	34,758,140	32,535,333	35,176,778	.....
Straits Settlements <sup>1</sup> .....	3,828,882	3,308,280	3,194,095	2,837,138	2,539,689	2,720,232	4,570,917
Ceylon <sup>1</sup> .....	2,963,102	2,966,852	3,173,114	3,321,558	3,240,215	3,474,648	4,071,743
Mauritius <sup>1</sup> .....	230,493	287,048	122,601	39,424	45,260	110,217	174,323
Labuan.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Hongkong (no returns).....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
<b>Australasia:</b>							
New South Wales.....	8,269,507	7,956,377	9,371,418	8,375,883	8,728,828	7,734,880	8,992,480
Victoria.....	7,490,804	8,484,840	8,068,121	6,704,104	9,559,249	6,740,420	5,619,150
South Australia, except northern territory.....	3,477,579	2,897,054	2,362,593	2,286,740	2,182,946	2,306,202	7,805,787
Northern territory.....	10,913	11,780	15,530	22,413	19,503	27,574	31,484
Western Australia.....	349,080	330,216	328,125	508,755	1,736,205	2,293,652	3,774,247
Tasmania.....	284,334	223,789	202,870	173,867	274,497	431,518	1,039,640
New Zealand.....	7,036,515	7,903,493	7,045,646	7,541,981	8,168,123	8,265,499	9,427,515
Queensland.....	3,694,534	3,039,044	3,418,516	3,559,058	3,322,706	4,352,067	4,272,952
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>30,613,266</b>	<b>30,846,593</b>	<b>30,812,519</b>	<b>29,172,801</b>	<b>33,992,054</b>	<b>32,151,812</b>	<b>35,992,255</b>
<b>British New Guinea.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>	<b>.....</b>
Fiji.....	9,741	10,809	.....	.....	.....	1,065	1,591
Falkland Islands.....	130,319	130,071	122,988	131,186	123,186	103,700	136,345
Natal.....	494,451	474,032	4673,752	758,845	1,114,708	846,191	778,676
Cape of Good Hope <sup>4</sup> .....	12,580,562	13,418,082	16,357,104	16,422,794	21,239,560	24,844,741	22,721,366
St. Helena.....	4,709	4,280	4,205	4,012	4,314	3,816	3,849
Lagos.....	327,613	302,018	430,527	497,864	400,114	403,938	332,356
Gold Coast.....	530,300	608,258	586,415	536,106	581,904	713,335	767,575
Sierra Leone.....	166,055	196,171	206,873	203,496	188,945	117,726	135,635
Gambia.....	21,427	24,630	33,999	41,022	35,235	45,501	26,546
<b>North America:</b>							
Dominion of Canada (years ended June 30) <sup>1</sup> .....	13,167,225	14,083,327	12,710,340	13,703,484	15,868,665	21,575,108	20,361,340
Newfoundland <sup>1, 6</sup> .....	272,635	280,714	359,781	435,038	427,248	428,614	429,562
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>13,439,860</b>	<b>14,364,041</b>	<b>13,070,121</b>	<b>14,058,522</b>	<b>16,145,913</b>	<b>21,853,722</b>	<b>20,657,002</b>
Bermuda.....	1,639	2,003	2,129	2,833	3,519	4,041	2,063
Honduras <sup>1</sup> .....	137,405	.....	120,749	156,486	158,409	175,550	177,033
<b>West India Islands:</b>							
Bahamas.....	13,966	16,301	14,771	13,411	13,651	29,968	19,340
Turks and Caicos Islands.....	.....	.....	25	240	830	.....	.....
Jamaica.....	255,082	2512,769	2517,504	2403,922	2317,691	2342,727	2357,705
<b>Windward Islands—</b>							
St. Lucia.....	55,217	43,062	24,269	24,144	38,042	11,154	20,424
St. Vincent <sup>7</sup> .....	41,789	34,899	25,876	21,131	20,432	14,176	19,383
Barbados.....	141,943	127,444	69,760	38,620	33,972	35,207	50,630
Grenada.....	293,080	176,241	140,736	169,499	138,656	243,574	220,479
Tobago.....	3,178	6,764	596	2,198	2,048	8,079	(*)
<b>Leeward Islands—</b>							
Virgin Islands.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	45	.....
St. Christopher.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nevis.....	20,192	12,510	9,354	5,400	8,448	4,718	3,605
Antigua.....	2,063	1,857	9,064	2,593	2,549	5,088	10,341
Montserrat.....	10,678	2,405	10,610	7,004	13,278	7,956	6,784
Dominica.....	26,428	15,907	19,680	29,706	25,307	44,756	39,477
Trinidad.....	864,302	831,700	907,493	943,888	713,540	713,211	2389,665
<b>Total.....</b>	<b>2,026,918</b>	<b>1,781,859</b>	<b>1,749,737</b>	<b>1,661,656</b>	<b>1,323,444</b>	<b>1,460,659</b>	<b>1,637,833</b>
<b>British Guiana.....</b>	<b>21,234,206</b>	<b>21,273,947</b>	<b>2968,252</b>	<b>2964,248</b>	<b>2949,015</b>	<b>2817,583</b>	<b>2164,390</b>
Gibraltar (no complete returns).....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Malta (no complete returns).....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

<sup>1</sup> See note on page 1502.<sup>2</sup> For the 12 months ended Mar. 31 of the year following that stated above.<sup>3</sup> Exclusive of Government stores and treasure.<sup>4</sup> For the year ended June 30.<sup>5</sup> Inclusive of diamonds exported through post-office.<sup>6</sup> Including exports from Labrador.<sup>7</sup> The exports of bullion and specie are not specified in the returns from this colony.<sup>8</sup> In 1896 and later years an addition has been made to the value of the exports to cover the cost of packing.<sup>9</sup> Tobago included in Trinidad.

## COMMERCE OF UNITED KINGDOM WITH BRITISH COLONIES, PROTECTORATES, ETC., 1893 to 1899.

[From British Statistical Abstract.]

COUNTRIES.	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
<b>BRITISH POSSESSIONS.</b>							
Channel Islands.....	£ 1,226,204	£ 1,212,158	£ 1,184,212	£ 1,335,763	£ 1,327,111	£ 1,553,065	£ 1,689,548
Imports.....	984,167	1,091,569	1,154,640	1,201,335	1,203,259	1,299,111	1,297,326
Exports.....	61,772	43,112	44,037	40,692	59,365	64,325	54,897
Gibraltar.....	690,031	598,111	518,888	543,618	677,781	775,967	754,789
Imports.....	76,771	81,841	90,167	68,819	74,903	92,829	66,744
Exports.....	813,258	883,857	774,521	761,131	856,694	930,464	375,036
Malta and Gozo.....	13,343,596	12,907,646	13,400,570	16,444,259	19,638,998	20,754,642	20,730,107
Imports.....	8,561,140	7,381,088	6,694,903	6,695,820	6,464,880	7,541,103	8,770,251
Exports.....	2,060	725	1,006	954	1,691	1,815	1,634
Bermudas.....	97,931	100,518	102,052	102,402	205,526	126,862	130,951
Imports.....	2,513,261	2,791,586	2,628,784	2,485,180	1,976,685	1,859,127	1,928,988
Exports.....	8,636,001	3,372,591	3,037,647	3,118,685	2,709,497	2,822,013	2,800,811
West India Islands and Guiana.....	307,858	253,007	201,553	262,845	227,808	244,953	261,252
Imports.....	76,765	85,954	90,490	100,607	92,830	90,581	70,354
Exports.....	29,874,362	31,859,210	33,382,797	29,402,549	29,862,129	28,850,284	33,327,846
Australasia.....	16,981,064	17,968,076	19,347,697	21,354,816	23,695,970	23,430,006	24,766,552
Imports.....	26,233,949	27,648,857	26,431,815	25,285,467	24,813,099	27,470,081	27,740,593
Exports.....	29,931,554	30,114,943	25,457,089	30,841,551	28,009,385	30,362,984	31,967,811
British India.....	4,518,387	4,584,783	4,645,416	4,309,847	3,643,224	3,941,909	5,867,847
Imports.....	1,848,722	2,398,922	2,032,820	2,073,001	2,538,916	2,816,580	2,659,899
Exports.....	4,252,794	4,101,275	4,124,843	4,723,547	4,088,278	4,847,721	5,077,758
Straits Settlements.....	946,672	988,875	1,017,639	1,052,898	1,070,932	1,240,463	1,464,760
Imports.....	885,634	630,818	759,441	797,158	606,314	726,637	883,126
Exports.....	1,935,419	1,980,227	2,044,616	1,959,209	2,079,951	2,347,689	2,862,345
Ceylon.....	250,497	224,350	97,795	67,502	94,548	100,863	215,149
Imports.....	340,816	299,811	261,342	327,006	303,487	261,407	372,200
Exports.....	178,921	204,419	59,204	190,294	173,319	212,355	167,625
Hongkong.....	174,870	201,208	203,398	245,154	173,357	265,888	228,027
Imports.....	148,597	235,818	227,773	164,140	183,201	156,505	134,179
Exports.....	293,932	80,427	99,309	253,681	293,647	271,718	254,341
Territories under British influence.....	750,405	688,055	716,745	793,557	756,871	1,035,547	857,285
Natal.....	1,463,403	1,526,534	1,731,581	3,369,879	3,621,373	3,282,531	3,201,249
Imports.....	4,799,748	4,301,521	4,709,259	4,460,317	4,199,965	5,170,836	5,219,446
Exports.....	7,892,388	7,511,310	9,731,994	11,515,842	10,766,168	9,865,134	9,008,031
Cape of Good Hope.....	295,669	396,345	428,963	314,216	351,617	377,545	406,696
Imports.....	624,017	629,179	564,984	607,229	608,193	746,206	714,455
Exports.....	1,235,098	952,165	1,034,650	1,256,717	1,100,943	1,129,538	1,133,646
Lagos.....	372,284	411,542	418,884	562,130	521,204	578,196	546,738
Imports.....	358,794	379,261	394,189	361,402	460,131	666,455	706,047
Exports.....	420,464	472,187	471,501	501,884	482,378	550,463	690,107
Gold Coast.....	392,686	246,364	255,702	291,590	240,721	178,752	181,557
Imports.....	420,515	415,127	306,836	381,934	387,728	413,553	468,946
Exports.....	182,391	188,850	130,759	151,214	146,853	187,238	177,415
Sierra Leone and Gambia.....	67,199	73,902	79,353	80,189	101,213	91,597	244,621
Imports.....	91,769,454	93,912,166	95,530,210	93,208,029	94,027,774	99,623,017	106,829,295
Exports.....	78,583,312	78,585,958	76,072,151	90,650,001	86,964,369	90,110,736	94,249,600
Other possessions.....	3,669,584	2,987,953	4,754,085	4,599,166	4,435,260	4,523,815	4,115,582
Total of British Possessions.....	91,769,454	93,912,166	95,530,210	93,208,029	94,027,774	99,623,017	106,829,295
Value of diamonds exported from the Cape of Good Hope to the United Kingdom <sup>1</sup> .....	3,669,584	2,987,953	4,754,085	4,599,166	4,435,260	4,523,815	4,115,582

<sup>1</sup> The value of diamonds imported from the Cape is not included in the totals in the table.

## IMPORTS INTO JAMAICA, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1894 TO 1900.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	YEARS ENDED MARCH 31—						
	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900
Apparel and slops.....	£ 61,931	£ 63,983	£ 75,777	£ 67,561	£ 46,979	£ 67,042	£ 66,969
Ale and beer.....	310,880	249,272	305,263	231,362	180,954	231,460	222,361
Gallons.....	62,145	49,842	61,053	41,929	31,619	40,505	38,913
Pounds.....	235,543	256,026	333,629	284,948	254,160	253,876	217,921
Bacon and hams.....	8,941	9,736	12,836	10,853	9,660	9,684	8,331
Boots and shoes.....	41,008	37,893	28,790	28,427	22,489	27,541	31,900
Dozen pairs.....	66,810	70,983	58,955	57,315	45,043	55,131	63,826
Bread and biscuit.....	19,276	24,659	32,835	32,694	32,663	20,571	21,843
Cwt.....	17,822	22,785	30,338	24,488	21,950	13,823	14,679
Tons.....	8,371	8,600	8,981	7,600	7,901	6,702	7,337
Butter and its compounds.....	37,021	38,144	39,953	27,039	26,365	23,076	23,481
Tons.....	44,245	58,282	52,258	41,308	56,628	55,447	64,581
Coal and coke.....	43,653	58,050	52,258	41,308	56,628	52,322	62,973
Corn:							
Indian.....	214,872	250,060	309,478	320,939	306,736	293,305	275,169
Meal, Indian.....	28,650	34,383	38,564	31,941	30,668	36,657	31,035
Cotton manufactures.....	17,639	20,755	27,865	27,885	37,091	21,779	28,296
Drugs and medicines.....	11,024	12,712	18,809	16,034	19,009	11,163	14,501
Fish:	350,006	303,247	299,604	248,159	208,384	271,417	272,700
Dried or salted, except smoked.....	24,063	24,271	22,734	22,433	25,517	18,313	20,684
Wet.....	120,372	130,400	130,467	127,135	118,613	122,281	117,295
Flour, wheat.....	135,377	135,094	131,511	121,922	116,241	119,835	114,950
Haberdashery and millinery.....	49,853	54,213	48,854	48,906	45,856	40,399	41,500
Hardware and cutlery.....	51,377	49,775	38,962	40,858	36,496	31,211	31,262
Iron and steel:	168,875	184,223	202,267	171,715	151,306	134,800	154,621
Steam engines and parts.....	151,987	149,681	182,343	158,601	165,630	148,043	162,200
Tubes and pipes.....	70,402	61,078	55,779	42,389	32,680	28,171	34,184
Linen manufactures (including osnaburghs).....	39,640	38,958	42,500	35,755	30,720	33,766	41,876
Lumber.....	23,857	36,282	22,634	24,152	16,328	12,103	19,469
Tubes and pipes.....	2,564	13,484	7,649	5,096	6,073	30,662	3,300
Linen manufactures (including osnaburghs).....	6,201	5,081	6,781	5,178	3,239	4,234	3,960
Lumber.....	11,665,995	15,564,609	15,794,143	13,214,291	9,501,666	10,680,773	8,861,402
Feet.....	61,092	68,232	71,610	55,871	37,374	42,206	34,846

## IMPORTS INTO JAMAICA, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1894 TO 1900—Continued.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	YEARS ENDED MARCH 31—						
	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900
Meats:							
Beef, wet, salted, or cured.....	9,465	9,570	9,488	9,384	7,008	6,996	7,642
.....	28,867	27,752	28,312	23,461	17,519	17,491	19,106
Pork, wet, salted.....	8,252	9,035	10,557	11,372	8,755	9,327	10,216
.....	34,246	31,623	31,164	26,440	22,762	24,251	26,563
Milk, condensed.....	25,713	25,620	29,878	29,388	28,662	22,973	24,360
Oil, petroleum.....	736,404	784,035	757,648	779,772	718,854	760,338	796,310
Railway materials.....	18,392	16,328	19,185	21,038	20,438	19,204	19,907
.....	12,990	15,275	34,532	2,444	4,838	52,076	10,418
Rice.....	7,711,529	8,147,645	12,215,989	6,691,622	8,513,314	7,531,787	7,846,839
.....	38,553	38,700	54,972	28,997	40,438	35,776	34,897
Soap.....	3,814,999	3,473,278	3,887,873	3,145,747	2,406,032	2,221,200	2,094,165
.....	31,332	31,255	31,984	24,381	19,248	17,769	16,750
Tobacco of all kinds.....	296,357	239,226	294,302	251,693	247,102	218,663	195,363
.....	22,389	17,670	17,598	15,899	13,719	12,768	12,357
Woolens.....	48,505	46,361	48,348	38,504	29,204	34,874	39,059
Bullion.....				4			
Specie:							
Gold.....	3,564	7,581	6,114	644	454	5,144	5,212
Silver.....	37,512	20,944	11,235	27,259	15,295	12,020	67,987
Total value of principal and other articles.....	2,157,795	2,191,745	2,288,946	1,856,378	1,660,667	1,814,793	1,844,332

## EXPORTS FROM JAMAICA, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1894 TO 1900.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	YEARS ENDED MARCH 31—						
	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900
Beeswax.....	1,100	1,149	1,113	1,015	1,590	1,881	1,231
.....	7,703	7,504	7,271	7,106	10,389	8,380	7,467
Coal and coke.....			1			60	
.....			1			67	
Cocoa.....	10,312	9,384	10,811	9,178	16,016	21,002	20,041
.....	27,070	20,535	17,528	15,297	37,435	53,340	60,123
Coffee.....	88,293	95,129	84,892	66,614	85,410	110,290	83,606
.....	342,136	356,734	284,622	210,946	165,494	162,219	142,130
Fruit:							
Bananas.....	473,257	428,886	316,560	302,415	445,866	468,580	603,480
Cocanuts.....	9,171,317	10,143,500	9,443,452	11,802,224	11,533,726	11,967,902	18,011,568
.....	34,393	36,770	37,774	35,407	39,648	34,109	54,034
Oranges.....	12,404,291	29,978,895	97,025,398	103,702,775	88,013,091	107,190,041	107,444,200
.....	18,606	48,716	169,794	155,554	134,673	123,715	145,019
Ginger.....	1,672,410	1,736,460	1,960,590	1,233,547	1,408,166	1,702,085	2,262,965
.....	44,796	44,574	50,328	33,041	34,884	43,374	60,615
Hides.....	298,267	278,029	353,025	324,934	253,357	367,339	230,044
.....	3,728	2,607	3,310	4,400	4,223	7,653	4,793
Pimento.....	87,756	83,955	97,347	99,551	38,828	77,939	123,972
.....	76,786	83,956	90,046	77,152	52,943	127,624	173,562
Spirits, rum.....	1,461,220	1,956,291	1,881,146	1,642,819	1,379,278	1,564,486	1,569,187
.....	146,122	187,478	164,600	123,211	92,052	104,296	130,765
Sugar, raw.....	410,537	398,683	390,918	321,468	284,375	360,748	390,214
.....	282,245	239,210	195,459	148,679	120,958	150,312	195,107
Tobacco:							
Unmanufactured and manufactured.....	2,070	3,163	3,413	24,411	43,712	27,227	89,859
.....	219	163	197	1,448	2,812	1,398	4,649
Cigars and cigarettes.....	14,763	18,814	15,605	22,823	37,696	62,112	42,744
.....	7,026	9,060	7,720	10,292	15,443	16,018	13,032
Wood and timber:							
Fustic.....	9,333	1,833	1,098	2,779	4,611	8,108	3,414
.....	32,666	5,499	3,293	8,337	11,122	21,552	8,535
Logwood.....	89,736	76,339	84,478	43,084	42,600	43,421	28,871
.....	448,679	343,526	359,030	161,565	118,215	113,980	77,990
Spars, lancewood.....	9,173	11,598	16,108	45,223	23,611	44,735	49,742
.....	2,523	3,479	4,228	13,567	6,691	11,184	12,435
Bullion and specie:							
Bullion—							
Gold dust.....		75			177		
Silver.....							
Specie—							
Gold.....	52,475	33,375	56,188	26,823	23,662	87,669	9,487
Silver.....	23,276	24,394	29,348	42,729	26,582	8,194	34,351
Total value of principal and other articles.....	2,075,689	1,921,422	1,873,106	1,470,241	1,441,368	1,662,543	1,868,080

## IMPORTS INTO TRINIDAD, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Apparel, haberdashery, and textile manufactures.....£	318,379	405,638	347,466	487,401	434,759	404,637	391,718	434,796
Balata gum.....£		Not separately shown.				Not given.	1,120,814	985,525
Bread.....£	17,919	15,582	21,667	16,614	16,865	37,011	71,284	60,772
Butter.....£	640,172	569,612	560,760	615,262	697,812	712,915	545,651	648,997
Coal.....£	28,743	24,164	23,836	22,708	26,308	23,023	20,843	25,665
Cocoa, raw.....£	13,321	9,301	8,823	8,823	10,738	9,097	11,100	13,114
Fish of all kinds.....£	14,541	10,621	8,608	8,855	10,068	7,989	11,540	10,724
Flour.....£	4,534,383	2,973,586	3,140,940	3,613,609	4,480,222	4,584,585	4,023,228	5,596,269
Grain and pulse: Corn and other kinds of grain.....£	111,320	86,406	85,249	85,319	95,532	95,635	103,155	121,450
Dholl.....£	6,481,641	7,989,002	6,930,659	6,569,850	8,463,852	8,079,729	8,253,554	7,829,817
Hardware and machinery.....£	60,288	70,102	72,000	59,950	58,425	66,818	61,813	61,813
Hides.....£	136,162	153,248	166,257	150,886	156,056	146,618	159,022	180,553
Lard.....£	140,088	126,269	135,783	130,433	130,586	132,104	159,108	149,727
Leather of all kinds (including boots and shoes).....£	26,911	28,496	23,128	23,053	21,758	23,108	19,324	29,722
Live stock: Horned cattle.....£	1,430,434	3,230,930	2,573,980	2,520,036	2,750,242	2,321,218	2,826,206	2,618,510
Meats of all kinds.....£	7,086	13,093	9,117	9,635	11,091	11,734	13,766	11,552
Lumber (pitch and white pine).....£	124,314	184,954	165,401	156,030	187,726	143,214	170,929	175,570
Malt liquor.....£	3,967	14,021	11,338	19,349	7,957	32,025	102,232	78,941
Manure.....£	1,180,104	1,403,135	1,211,757	1,181,628	1,484,930	1,031,300	1,206,000	1,337,317
Oil: Kerosene.....£	25,275	27,495	24,330	25,022	24,584	15,772	19,044	21,283
Rice.....£	54,714	54,817	46,714	66,163	87,283	40,349	38,827	55,579
Rubber, raw.....£	6,476	7,844	7,592	7,256	7,697	7,299	6,747	6,054
Soap.....£	59,181	44,935	42,483	39,680	43,100	40,816	37,340	38,162
Tobacco of all kinds.....£	8,506,595	8,322,740	10,809,520	9,807,303	9,812,901	11,684,508	10,497,000	12,622,511
Vegetables (including pulse and beans).....£	38,276	34,239	40,632	36,681	41,695	42,011	41,216	39,262
Wine.....£	35,794	38,123	43,777	39,139	38,492	38,423	42,427	48,559
Meats of all kinds.....£	25,738	21,382	22,459	25,469	25,659	22,484	26,370	30,124
Off: Kerosene.....£	5,886,089	6,181,582	6,575,336	5,285,239	6,520,199	4,972,024	6,801,653	7,020,573
Rice.....£	69,249	71,804	72,025	71,043	71,043	46,781	72,789	74,049
Rubber, raw.....£	419,201	442,668	425,430	390,223	471,418	461,619	418,463	425,738
Vegetables (including pulse and beans).....£	14,346	13,587	16,019	16,019	17,844	17,217	16,912	16,912
Wine.....£	22,351,362	24,936,995	23,702,787	23,489,135	23,196,000	20,179,343	20,406,500	19,985,680
Bullion and specie:	140,432	122,892	130,791	124,330	128,524	121,026	104,146	104,453
Bullion.....£		Not separately shown.				15,536	20,010	19,297
Gold.....£	3,380,273	2,714,446	2,746,554	2,654,526	3,302,343	3,086,267	3,056,600	3,069,245
Silver.....£	25,011	21,052	21,034	22,205	25,145	22,317	20,596	21,238
Specie.....£	894,340	948,115	947,476	701,235	820,068	892,013	1,187,378	601,318
Gold.....£	30,795	36,053	30,603	24,702	26,129	24,543	29,921	17,914
Silver.....£		Not separately shown.				86	31,922	5,417
Specie.....£	62,537	43,730	37,617	35,074	38,194	49,549	43,376	42,475
Wine.....£	305,314	302,019	311,846	245,611	273,818	270,949	226,794	212,638
Bullion and specie:	39,873	38,085	38,652	33,856	36,273	36,574	29,878	28,287
Bullion.....£		Not separately shown.						
Gold.....£	212,194	247,487	242,235	183,862	233,720	139,862	108,075	138,368
Silver.....£	9,999	100	5,581	8,695	5,686			
Specie.....£		Not separately shown.						
Gold.....£	3,102	21,180	31,727	11,274	9,639	13,891	22,277	36,634
Silver.....£	3,058	15,047	4,010	26,061	26,171	14,641	28,913	77,632
Total value of principal and other articles.....£	2,069,380	2,270,885	2,152,883	2,276,864	2,463,525	2,161,231	2,283,056	2,535,965

## EXPORTS FROM TRINIDAD, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Apparel, haberdashery, and textile manufactures.....£	89,967	126,046	102,230	110,539	131,328	128,925	114,967	129,070
Asphalt.....£	112,225	90,204	99,193	86,148	96,385	124,672	100,320	135,800
Balata gum.....£	121,631	98,572	112,401	97,325	106,920	138,801	113,941	150,926
Bitters.....£	42,557	38,849	31,018	40,129	19,259	40,720	65,368	56,288
Coal.....£	42,554	38,849	31,102	40,129	31,646	40,145	33,980	38,843
Cocoa.....£	422	3,337	1,381	740	351	40,145	33,980	38,843
Cocoanuts.....£	344	3,921	1,623	749	356			
Cocoa.....£	34,582	33,125	36,001	24,967	26,197	26,319	32,189	27,712
Hides.....£	28,921,177	21,814,044	24,529,310	32,557,585	28,056,813	27,889,347	28,244,138	33,942,048
Molasses.....£	761,164	615,470	587,564	694,612	559,588	608,827	813,963	898,384
Rubber, raw.....£	13,230	18,920	14,304	14,031	15,020	37,426	106,273	86,025
Spirits: Rum.....£	1,895,773	1,250,968	1,246,948	1,498,215	1,378,254	680,761	660,535	1,591,408
Sugar, raw.....£	57,599	38,733	42,088	42,551	36,488	16,991	16,595	33,420
Tobacco of all kinds.....£		Not separately shown.				15,656	20,010	18,139
Vegetables (including pulse and beans).....£	15,438	85,971	73,158	178,226	96,481	99,509	86,513	140,273
Wine.....£	2,162	6,542	4,289	10,466	5,933	6,089	5,300	10,452
Bullion and specie:	987,350	908,089	937,379	1,082,444	1,076,455	982,377	1,014,082	1,043,992
Bullion.....£	675,342	757,927	528,040	596,415	700,347	537,107	602,045	714,562
Gold.....£	237,003	333,386	289,005	182,660	222,945	560,789	1,156,218	217,462
Silver.....£	11,880	15,475	11,856	7,530	8,371	16,317	23,085	7,202
Specie.....£		Not separately shown.				919	27,853	5,419
Gold.....£		Not separately shown.						
Silver.....£	213,082	248,232	224,976	236,699	239,286	189,862	108,075	138,193
Specie.....£	10,000	197	3,611	8,626	5,634			
Gold.....£	28,870	125,840	45,198	26,412	19,013	30,745	10,002	3,362
Silver.....£	834	5,384		1,500	5,139	501	2,325	12,361
Total value of principal and other articles.....£	2,258,663	2,320,824	2,000,748	2,065,104	2,165,820	1,994,926	2,310,133	2,572,891



## IMPORTS INTO BRITISH GUIANA, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1893 TO 1900.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	YEARS ENDED MARCH 31—							
	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900
Beef, pickled.....	barrels 12,684	8,070	11,824	11,341	10,872	7,451	9,830	6,937
Boots and shoes.....	£ 29,256	21,013	29,029	26,391	20,666	15,406	21,896	15,600
Butter.....	£ 35,521	37,661	35,803	25,553	28,739	25,692	32,441	18,396
Coal.....	pounds 598,546	516,129	650,027	566,381	529,892	516,462	468,524	474,328
Flour.....	£ 23,920	22,205	26,036	21,475	19,950	18,178	17,482	19,100
Fish, dried.....	hogsheads 279	45	80	68	46	82	79	7
Grain: Oats.....	tons 66,697	69,852	59,228	55,797	44,175	38,703	43,622	24,009
Haberdashery.....	£ 60,575	61,266	50,664	48,402	38,257	36,722	37,366	17,883
Hardware and cutlery.....	barrels 193,178	205,405	203,365	175,466	146,183	154,480	178,360	204,378
Linens, cottons, and woollens.....	£ 167,601	155,392	147,894	129,629	104,391	139,401	139,753	138,388
Lumber.....	£ 70,082	66,039	70,201	68,852	69,992	65,734	63,597	51,910
Machinery.....	£ 59,635	62,260	63,480	53,067	54,475	46,900	49,392	44,884
Malt liquor.....	busbels 91,768	101,183	127,816	103,397	105,054	85,848	91,948	91,716
Manures.....	£ 12,833	13,894	15,885	12,538	12,044	9,231	10,071	9,210
Oil.....	£ 29,786	37,656	31,424	26,234	26,935	25,638	26,136	19,110
Pork.....	£ 56,992	42,065	36,656	26,426	30,290	28,509	32,584	35,279
Potatoes.....	£ 207,996	199,876	173,838	145,943	153,187	156,225	151,167	139,254
Rice.....	feet 9,202,027	14,051,533	11,537,182	7,612,209	7,687,609	7,606,469	6,814,926	8,731,134
Spirits: Brandy.....	£ 33,894	47,187	41,600	25,839	22,493	22,253	20,924	27,025
Whisky.....	£ 82,574	100,046	73,905	42,946	60,545	73,381	48,963	73,410
Tobacco of all kinds, including cigars and cigarettes.....	£ 22,888	32,655	28,039	23,901	22,981	17,589	18,525	14,540
Bullion and specie: Bullion—	£ 109,476	124,376	109,083	85,816	74,815	72,596	76,412	88,120
Gold.....	gallons 686,279	650,520	651,217	602,679	638,001	608,165	573,238	518,072
Silver.....	£ 29,624	29,760	30,100	25,813	29,819	25,676	27,910	21,007
Opium.....	pounds 10,009	9,593	8,370	6,997	4,785	3,713	3,962	3,467
Pork.....	£ 7,650	6,980	6,224	4,913	2,968	2,090	2,327	1,325
Potatoes.....	barrels 18,417	19,256	19,266	28,692	15,240	16,648	20,462	18,676
Rice.....	£ 49,972	64,511	55,284	69,211	26,861	32,146	40,775	35,668
Spirits: Brandy.....	£ 18,569	19,840	19,187	15,885	15,595	13,550	15,969	13,333
Whisky.....	pounds 38,504,112	40,394,200	33,862,064	49,303,208	32,511,641	20,136,854	25,066,103	25,341,210
Tobacco of all kinds, including cigars and cigarettes.....	£ 156,798	174,501	142,233	183,661	131,476	97,626	105,665	99,342
Bullion and specie: Bullion—	gallons 18,234	17,237	15,836	7,287	6,572	5,959	4,772	3,976
Gold.....	£ 12,466	11,245	8,834	3,381	3,195	2,436	2,436	1,855
Silver.....	gallons 20,498	22,239	27,680	11,916	15,623	17,503	13,571	15,121
Tobacco of all kinds, including cigars and cigarettes.....	£ 8,640	10,577	11,980	5,383	6,965	7,915	6,601	6,700
Bullion and specie: Bullion—	£ 19,897	22,377	22,128	19,448	17,075	16,804	18,909	17,800
Gold.....	ounces 411	149	1,295	626	396	1,234	889	577
Silver.....	£ 1,468	636	4,715	2,283	1,354	4,253	1,358	2,099
Specie—	ounces 236						26	3,704
Gold.....	£ 37,842	24,965	21,202	3,230	1,417	2,637	3,100	1,095
Silver.....	£ 16,242			62,551	4,094		31,839	55,968
Total value of principal and other articles...£.	1,780,319	1,920,710	1,668,750	1,443,563	1,341,710	1,282,976	1,371,412	1,318,701

## EXPORTS FROM BRITISH GUIANA, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1893 TO 1900.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	YEARS ENDED MARCH 31—							
	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900
Balata.....	pounds 457,964	206,922	293,723	188,294	366,420	492,613	471,048	240,127
Charcoal.....	£ 20,605	8,335	15,874	10,214	23,113	30,957	28,329	12,299
Coal.....	£ 9,218	9,247	8,345	7,214	7,805	8,176	6,934	6,666
Cocoa.....	hogsheads 2,319	1,870	3,040	2,902	2,514	2,354	2,034	1,761
Flour.....	£ 2,478	1,967	2,880	2,836	2,459	2,465	1,977	1,570
Molasses.....	pounds 18,718	42,774	236,145	206,137	115,524	119,977	77,316	126,809
Rice.....	£ 406	832	5,352	4,576	2,695	2,834	2,015	3,267
Spirits: Rum.....	barrels 12,127	16,837	14,447	15,791	17,134	11,981	12,813	13,726
Sugar, raw.....	£ 10,584	14,998	11,916	13,206	16,376	13,084	13,168	10,824
Wood and timber of all kinds.....	gallons 110,267	1,214,730	1,138,760	739,161	913,150	471,400	574,458	385,764
Bullion and specie: Bullion—	£ 30,855	34,099	20,674	16,014	20,926	9,821	11,968	20,092
Gold.....	pounds 2,788,288	4,242,838	3,887,842	672,252	2,616,751	4,116,112	1,589,687	615,126
Silver.....	£ 12,020	20,448	16,719	2,850	12,093	21,620	8,082	2,684
Spirits: Rum.....	proof gallons 25,829	2,792,371	2,649,553	3,166,450	3,294,830	3,105,948	2,733,987	3,334,361
Sugar, raw.....	£ 202,632	121,584	97,781	121,145	137,042	132,667	145,270	208,397
Wood and timber of all kinds.....	tons 113,409	107,958	102,742	101,160	107,074	101,451	98,330	84,782
Bullion and specie: Bullion—	£ 1,575,743	1,570,899	1,250,083	1,046,160	1,098,338	1,029,589	1,050,517	1,101,254
Gold.....	£ 25,608	19,195	20,990	16,844	37,225	22,064	19,932	(2)
Silver.....	ounces 133,594	137,788	135,028	123,501	126,702	125,080	112,815	113,367
Specie—	£ 494,551	511,363	500,446	449,836	467,876	456,436	415,746	416,630
Gold.....	£ 6,992	1,119	23,802	1,173	1,193	915	.....	86
Silver.....	£ 19,461			9,587	5,246	12,569		65,831
Total value of principal and other articles...£.	2,433,213	2,358,918	2,039,901	1,769,500	1,899,457	1,783,765	1,775,691	1,927,960

<sup>1</sup> Casks.<sup>2</sup> Puncheons.<sup>3</sup> Not stated.

## IMPORTS INTO BARBADOS, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Bread and biscuits .....	4,075,377	4,747,724	6,225,924	6,068,104	4,984,854	3,947,761	4,133,063	4,225,673
Butter and its compounds .....	18,339	28,506	34,243	30,341	24,922	19,739	26,865	27,466
Charcoal .....	839,522	824,472	892,949	793,696	942,186	770,280	835,793	898,498
Coal and coke .....	30,012	29,263	28,769	24,625	29,136	24,648	26,210	27,474
Corn and grain .....	6,292	7,826	7,572	8,110	8,269	7,839	7,799	9,455
Indian corn meal .....	23,488	22,307	17,747	12,440	16,168	19,794	15,887	13,479
Flour, wheat or rye .....	23,488	36,696	19,744	12,544	16,572	20,289	16,284	14,827
Fish, dried, salted, or smoked .....	276,239	309,636	425,708	296,991	302,000	304,873	367,103	361,829
Hardware and metals (new) .....	50,996	78,300	97,922	51,529	43,502	40,697	53,292	52,067
Leather of all kinds, including boots and shoes .....	37,861	37,278	40,937	32,271	38,278	46,688	55,601	49,637
Linens and cottons .....	28,484	37,045	28,144	22,186	20,574	24,511	30,581	26,039
Live stock—horned cattle (except calves) .....	74,271	69,660	90,986	62,986	55,510	55,089	67,691	71,955
Machinery (including sewing machines) .....	92,839	115,374	81,887	56,687	55,510	57,843	67,691	64,759
Malt liquors .....	77,113	84,427	76,373	77,930	87,656	83,453	78,912	53,005
Manures: .....	46,268	65,853	57,280	58,448	78,890	75,108	71,021	47,705
Guano .....	29,462	49,856	35,175	30,493	31,852	45,540	39,039	33,788
Sulphate of ammonia .....	19,614	25,063	21,623	16,330	24,242	22,669	20,634	18,513
Other .....	128,680	155,257	128,604	84,172	118,260	135,112	109,217	135,585
Meat, salted or pickled .....	1,960	1,833	1,830	1,268	1,340	1,146	1,270	1,251
Oil meal and oil cake .....	15,680	17,157	15,555	10,778	11,390	9,690	13,355	13,167
Oil—petroleum .....	12,280	15,782	9,780	4,674	5,166	4,601	8,850	12,640
Rice .....	10,356	11,471	13,953	9,630	8,016	9,815	9,577	11,438
Soap .....	1,737	1,599	922	1,802	30	1,146	487	361
Wood and timber: .....	19,277	16,975	10,068	19,212	337	12,611	5,357	4,002
Lumber .....	2,500	2,500	2,122	2,285	3,446	1,678	2,022	1,589
Staves and shooks .....	11,202	30,996	30,928	25,436	35,823	20,136	24,259	19,075
Woolen manufactures .....	8,085	8,085	9,529	8,175	8,632	5,902	6,339	7,236
Bullion and specie: .....	94,918	56,087	68,178	31,185	54,858	32,790	42,418	55,538
Bullion—silver .....	3,509,074	3,003,198	3,311,241	3,024,879	2,989,983	2,891,430	3,324,032	2,735,201
Specie— .....	43,863	48,802	56,036	51,033	38,742	38,034	48,632	40,059
Gold .....	5,758,485	5,566,242	7,376,386	5,379,425	5,999,500	4,582,858	5,211,299	5,314,006
Silver .....	23,994	30,730	38,419	28,018	14,999	11,457	15,634	15,942
Manjak .....	365,230	431,841	351,780	423,940	587,848	274,142	381,222	383,037
Nitrate of soda .....	11,413	17,206	8,795	10,824	12,247	5,711	7,942	7,980
Other .....	16,901,901	15,266,706	16,237,389	13,707,430	11,566,903	9,211,785	12,847,747	8,263,685
Manures: .....	70,425	87,465	89,306	75,391	63,618	50,665	70,663	45,430
Guano .....	1,591,693	1,419,169	1,665,215	1,509,699	1,720,297	2,245,025	2,162,065	2,147,597
Sulphate of ammonia .....	9,948	11,087	13,009	11,794	13,440	15,770	15,766	15,659
Meat, salted or pickled .....	8,258,432	10,082,417	9,692,427	4,554,747	7,757,460	9,516,281	10,841,241	9,097,511
Oil meal and oil cake .....	24,539	37,758	39,549	17,806	30,851	36,081	43,073	34,661
Oil—petroleum .....	2,399,641	3,457,075	2,821,170	1,838,648	2,641,830	1,649,968	2,283,590	1,524,130
Rice .....	21,697	42,781	29,387	19,153	26,477	17,187	23,787	15,876
Soap .....	12,124	15,788	22,774	32,322	44,309	24,564	22,081	17,280
Woolen manufactures .....								
Bullion and specie: .....								
Bullion—silver .....								
Specie— .....								
Gold .....	200	12,710	2,807	100	8,065	7,180	7,896	1,018
Silver .....	4,441	3,906	2,964	922	1,340	4,800		150
Total value of principal and other articles .....	1,081,572	1,372,537	1,279,335	956,921	1,048,887	1,008,699	1,058,885	998,007

## EXPORTS FROM BARBADOS, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Coal and coke .....	412	431	45	603	316	174	13	135
Corn and grain .....	412	754	68	905	474	261	19	202
Fish, dried .....	1,406,432	1,147,035	5,360,375	1,413,717	1,285,172	1,477,849	1,947,144	3,022,566
Flour, wheat or rye .....	4,991	5,352	23,460	6,688	4,518	5,304	6,094	8,600
Linens, cottons, silks, and woolens .....	37,479	43,904	33,946	41,573	47,947	45,449	48,630	30,176
Manjak .....	22,487	43,904	33,946	41,573	50,344	47,721	51,061	31,684
Nitrate of soda .....	18,151	18,572	23,212	18,050	13,777	15,486	23,223	19,504
Other .....	22,689	31,108	23,212	18,050	15,844	17,809	24,384	19,504
Manures: .....	31,545	29,842	30,321	29,512	26,352	28,018	28,891	33,509
Guano .....		Not given.			878	1,880	1,160	1,026
Sulphate of ammonia .....		10			1,756	3,760	2,320	4,617
Meat, salted or pickled .....								
Oil meal and oil cake .....								
Oil—petroleum .....								
Rice .....								
Soap .....								
Woolen manufactures .....								
Bullion and specie: .....								
Bullion—gold .....								
Specie— .....								
Gold .....								
Silver .....								
Total value of principal and other articles .....	926,572	1,243,083	984,512	587,298	758,228	736,163	769,231	845,690

## IMPORTS INTO CANADA BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1893 TO 1899.

[From British Statistical Abstract.]

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Bicycles, etc. (excluding parts).....{number..	(1)	7,775	9,809	17,518	24,558	27,308	26,744
Books.....{£.....	44,474	70,990	83,210	153,018	163,501	124,513	102,156
Boots and shoes of leather.....{£.....	183,758	169,649	151,020	154,977	162,513	206,182	223,407
Cement, Portland and Roman.....{barrels..	63,156	50,730	63,019	71,967	65,759	77,764	92,748
Coal, including coal dust.....{tons..	225,534	228,336	199,852	205,186	217,798	384,546	478,281
Coke.....{tons..	63,715	58,837	51,110	49,395	53,201	75,970	96,976
Coal, including coal dust.....{tons..	3,342,139	3,038,586	3,183,173	3,486,516	3,880,087	3,634,655	4,193,959
Coke.....{tons..	2,190,719	2,007,635	1,859,666	1,920,290	1,906,062	1,960,600	2,103,013
Coffee, green.....{pounds..	42,690	41,405	43,235	61,612	83,330	135,060	141,294
Cotton.....{£.....	32,617	36,226	30,706	41,882	64,974	71,310	74,553
Cotton:.....{pounds..	3,471,301	3,114,698	3,256,077	3,320,982	4,505,301	4,720,781	5,185,602
Raw and waste.....{£.....	129,609	122,433	122,127	132,804	139,283	97,798	101,967
Manufactures.....{£.....	41,263,333	36,169,529	56,924,286	39,426,992	42,814,138	62,700,293	56,072,931
Earthenware and chinaware.....{£.....	726,393	596,505	720,680	650,664	676,077	839,296	678,332
Fancy goods—Laces, braids, fringes, trimmings, curtains, etc.....{£.....	957,814	839,584	884,368	992,038	873,389	1,025,701	1,270,610
Flour.....{barrels..	149,790	144,873	110,019	116,793	122,943	149,477	185,640
Fruits:.....{£.....	300,867	346,082	303,260	287,946	358,489	438,762	450,768
Dried, including nuts.....{£.....	53,419	88,443	149,076	100,391	85,412	41,478	70,599
Green.....{£.....	37,431	51,726	81,413	61,705	55,755	35,007	48,737
Furs, fur skins, and manufactures of.....{£.....	187,369	186,276	183,259	194,679	168,866	260,952	250,797
Glass and glassware.....{£.....	335,954	387,925	316,314	364,536	312,305	337,775	388,810
Gloves and mitts, all kinds.....{£.....	315,009	283,673	229,639	258,072	182,819	837,775	319,554
Grain:.....{£.....	252,512	240,611	228,530	227,065	233,894	215,267	273,032
Wheat.....{bushels..	144,182	136,612	129,672	130,812	106,096	117,292	147,541
Other kinds.....{bushels..	4,150,252	4,761,724	3,848,517	4,060,429	5,845,139	4,414,307	8,111,327
Gutta percha, india rubber, and manufactures of.....{£.....	703,516	684,243	496,999	535,120	861,358	863,992	1,442,573
Hats and caps (other than fur), and bonnets.....{£.....	5,621,953	12,872,848	3,453,799	6,951,477	13,224,016	21,962,163	25,559,318
Hides, skins (other than fur), horns, and pelts.....{£.....	601,546	1,233,496	853,083	571,090	924,047	1,606,120	2,032,819
Iron and steel:.....{£.....	323,631	307,257	228,808	302,615	308,323	439,790	481,761
Hardwares and manufactures, n. e. s.....{£.....	271,210	250,049	245,691	255,577	244,471	288,498	311,262
Cutlery and tools.....{£.....	420,241	389,431	403,100	403,613	498,488	740,010	796,847
Machinery and implements, agricultural.....{£.....	509,896	657,021	543,854	674,009	558,114	1,085,295	1,089,476
Machinery, other, and engines.....{£.....	182,608	160,418	139,281	162,327	154,488	212,263	250,270
Tubing.....{£.....	51,435	50,242	61,345	96,584	121,206	219,623	352,927
Tin plates and sheets.....{£.....	473,108	396,158	890,103	412,626	448,121	711,777	873,326
Rolled and boiler plates.....{£.....	111,263	111,687	96,918	152,767	106,701	115,514	171,539
Nail and spike rods.....{£.....	183,309	198,605	140,083	189,715	188,958	226,454	190,487
Wire, galvanized or not.....{£.....	70,292	66,136	63,364	59,501	83,869	162,462	189,085
Bar, rod, hoop, and sheet.....{£.....	8,858	6,973	4,690	8,497	5,297	8,542	8,092
Pig, scrap, bars, puddled, etc.....{£.....	72,025	70,563	69,042	57,404	85,906	206,788	236,655
Railroad bars, etc.....{£.....	220,664	211,271	193,580	190,625	205,657	298,023	361,752
Steel in ingots, bars, sheets, and coils.....{£.....	303,774	207,856	138,418	147,880	104,141	211,554	176,935
Leather and manufactures of (except boots and shoes and gloves).....{£.....	476,665	414,808	190,297	237,488	313,605	390,226	370,036
Linen, hemp, and jute manufactures.....{£.....	83,903	69,346	50,161	73,722	76,957	71,867	59,410
Meats of all kinds.....{£.....	192,298	149,713	191,123	183,467	218,368	267,403	253,842
Oils.....{£.....	332,461	286,342	269,857	309,547	256,878	287,767	351,880
Paints and colors.....{£.....	157,469	180,050	141,742	144,711	122,466	287,122	301,285
Paper and manufactures of.....{£.....	317,206	284,933	284,335	333,963	311,610	301,096	333,937
Salt.....{tons..	138,683	131,014	109,132	138,997	126,463	157,803	180,714
Seeds and bulbous roots.....{£.....	245,520	209,553	201,822	205,980	206,883	234,657	258,593
Ships' materials (including machinery).....{£.....	105,869	106,215	105,091	106,335	113,878	102,367	97,408
Silk manufactures (including clothing).....{£.....	74,166	78,390	74,500	74,679	71,011	67,314	61,713
Spirits—Brandy.....{gallons..	101,070	136,490	122,679	149,355	152,082	123,510	822,977
Unmanufactured.....{£.....	26,938	17,115	18,681	17,910	22,258	49,637	42,706
Manufactured (including snuff).....{£.....	575,143	515,083	461,415	529,043	410,419	554,395	771,462
Sugar.....{cwt..	212,027	190,031	195,175	153,339	183,060	194,403	211,875
Molasses.....{gallons..	74,701	62,340	61,626	60,388	64,250	61,716	63,832
Tea.....{pounds..	2,473,918	3,071,533	3,894,496	2,722,802	2,905,393	2,617,500	2,695,992
Tobacco:.....{£.....	1,337,790	1,750,391	1,702,757	1,244,157	1,312,881	1,080,455	1,246,259
Unmanufactured.....{£.....	4,176,350	4,282,907	4,103,835	4,402,678	4,620,612	3,756,637	3,814,118
Manufactured (including snuff).....{£.....	181,846	181,477	169,517	191,625	165,477	121,319	160,116
Wine of all kinds.....{dozen..	18,049,854	20,551,739	20,595,770	22,668,171	24,344,382	20,029,464	25,102,655
Wood, and manufactures of.....{£.....	611,533	627,651	640,135	668,227	680,763	560,140	725,097
Wool.....{pounds..	14,340,741	13,782,917	12,422,326	10,638,389	15,816,279	5,928,090	12,009,852
Woolen manufactures:.....{£.....	376,771	362,897	293,122	300,888	413,036	218,759	357,790
Ready-made clothing, except knitted goods.....{£.....	211,956	213,449	177,808	175,000	194,274	195,766	271,984
Hosiery (including shirts and drawers).....{£.....	61,963	57,081	52,961	56,157	66,739	45,200	58,991
Other, except yarn.....{£.....	446,370	488,221	415,217	897,754	868,646	407,086	408,007
Bullion and specie:.....{£.....	22,029	14,967	11,969	14,827	16,049	21,990	29,791
Bullion.....{£.....	117,357	98,858	85,895	85,366	80,405	85,578	109,573
Specie.....{£.....	488,041	573,788	508,410	596,753	616,896	720,547	838,724
Total value of principal and other articles.....{£.....	10,503,645	7,166,253	7,750,050	8,992,244	5,704,194	11,785,899	9,413,739
Unmanufactured.....{£.....	339,337	222,997	232,066	249,777	180,481	387,429	274,335
Manufactured (including snuff).....{£.....	231,224	209,454	177,814	185,932	177,291	214,927	246,503
Hosiery (including shirts and drawers).....{£.....	157,233	140,221	119,861	152,743	118,415	133,501	176,490
Other, except yarn.....{£.....	2,176,217	1,794,869	1,535,051	1,677,549	1,820,041	1,690,303	1,536,585
Bullion and specie:.....{£.....	74,826	42,837	40,685	39,517	40,001	55,441	78,447
Specie.....{£.....	1,267,821	783,822	899,716	1,084,386	920,861	846,787	888,361
Total value of principal and other articles.....{£.....	26,522,110	25,371,563	22,763,359	24,248,940	24,496,974	28,833,504	33,444,721

1 Not stated.

## EXPORTS FROM CANADA, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1893 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Agricultural implements .....	96,035	95,852	136,781	122,317	156,629	296,807	383,676
Asbestos.....	5,898	6,233	8,605	9,588	10,969	18,438	14,520
Ashes, pot and pearl.....	81,517	69,870	101,368	99,181	104,983	104,940	93,118
Bacon and hams .....	2,097	1,977	2,383	2,418	2,156	1,984	1,852
Butter .....	12,690	11,901	13,614	12,577	10,500	9,410	10,878
Cheese.....	185,043	285,106	401,341	537,410	691,298	854,070	1,166,624
Coal.....	404,901	603,812	782,202	900,507	1,200,781	1,653,363	2,140,638
Coke .....	70,572	56,559	37,202	62,373	123,566	143,554	221,077
Copper and copper ore.....	267,164	229,050	145,711	229,884	463,044	518,561	827,138
Eggs.....	1,423,119	1,636,739	1,557,810	1,691,780	1,714,022	2,080,944	1,981,124
Flour.....	2,909,087	3,342,568	3,105,622	2,935,033	3,136,182	3,798,528	3,575,688
Fish.....	1,006,126	1,092,063	1,204,538	1,125,563	1,221,104	1,182,732	1,231,618
Gold-bearing quartz, dust, nuggets, etc.....	689,833	725,476	777,266	710,438	731,677	710,149	764,142
Grain:							
Barley and rye .....	2,342,824	801,739	1,771,312	890,954	2,313,251	2,068,091	1,283,103
Corn, Indian.....	240,715	77,784	154,874	69,627	192,843	211,036	154,544
Oats .....	10,382,630	1,535,356	2,499,080	7,229,897	14,332,939	16,150,779	16,150,779
Wheat .....	313,869	1,018,232	161,459	565,059	1,061,721	1,317,430	1,317,430
Hay.....	7,278,194	3,359,525	935,814	1,001,956	7,247,991	10,925,602	11,098,279
Hemlock bark, extract of .....	555,066	254,030	66,183	58,018	377,203	682,239	726,768
Hides, pelts, horns, and hoofs.....	13,008,029	14,180,252	11,945,038	13,219,302	13,141,338	23,914,628	17,468,559
Lard.....	2,086,031	1,963,724	1,545,494	1,645,471	1,903,834	4,506,802	2,855,748
Lead and lead ore .....	151,881	276,838	199,132	214,672	113,754	37,144	64,428
Leather and manufactures of (including boots and shoes).....	208,535	534,597	316,490	406,181	205,323	73,688	81,582
Live stock:							
Horned cattle.....	6,398	9,254	7,796	10,258	6,125	5,862	6,522
Horses.....	22,209	26,238	23,814	35,922	20,031	17,320	15,947
Sheep.....	96,982	66,655	201,225	239,168	322,528	230,237	262,500
Meats, canned and preserved.....	7,140	8,100	12,835	14,554	2,605	2,624	17,036
Nickel, fine .....	13,787	15,857	21,486	14,420	3,787	4,042	14,471
Pease, whole and split.....	75	1,636	9,029	10,151	15,062	21,979	17,029
Pork.....	479	13,425	68,581	83,964	107,708	207,153	184,062
Potatoes.....	207,343	362,197	282,875	414,674	320,956	335,132	348,493
Seeds—clover, grass, and flax.....	107,225	86,063	93,806	104,735	161,877	213,064	212,504
Silver ore, or silver.....	1,591,460	1,335,538	1,463,250	1,456,196	1,471,150	1,793,834	1,762,268
Timber, squared—	13,387	9,414	15,352	22,887	19,208	16,423	13,506
Elm.....	826,303	242,220	318,055	501,600	401,110	378,285	221,488
Oak.....	382,455	234,100	291,862	393,339	313,410	351,789	405,334
White pine.....	264,768	174,586	334,333	442,731	205,893	261,886	316,671
Timber, round—	212,065	161,678	80,290	180,201	137,933	115,321	30,149
Pine.....	4,462	4,206	4,021	3,498	3,764	7,480	7,214
All other.....	87,854	166,192	123,199	99,997	102,435	199,424	204,357
Deals and deal ends.....	8,414,348	8,378,746	2,259,124	1,776,713	4,121,069	3,275,265	2,920,066
Laths, palings, and pickets.....	529,857	491,408	355,615	269,427	495,396	376,794	402,903
Planks and boards.....	14,024	14,514	10,570	22,817	13,919	22,208	21,733
Staves and headings.....	25,111	17,596	13,878	10,731	16,595	16,595	15,053
Shingles.....	1,112,838	1,097,576	1,379,043	596,685	770,396	1,450,678	651,335
Wood, block, and other, for pulp.....	86,704	81,779	108,366	46,768	50,577	130,259	64,834
Wood pulp.....	48,305	122,482	186,137	96,620	110,515	108,102	323,597
Wool.....	1,418	629,655	1,116,217	2,508,233	4,097,212	6,784,035	4,417,422
Bullion and specie:							
Bullion (see also gold, etc., and silver ore or silver).....	13,440	87,063	133,919	327,832	536,953	723,244	540,469
Specie.....							
Elm.....	15,504	10,692	12,572	16,291	12,107	16,009	15,327
Oak.....	42,742	29,550	33,671	43,029	35,073	45,725	45,547
White pine.....	27,102	25,857	18,719	29,043	31,313	33,841	25,640
Pine.....	119,331	119,087	84,550	126,170	111,018	152,158	114,574
All other.....	106,789	100,517	75,532	93,990	92,503	101,633	97,693
Deals and deal ends.....	304,347	322,966	231,336	322,737	277,946	362,481	278,765
Laths, palings, and pickets.....							
Planks and boards.....							
Staves and headings.....							
Shingles.....							
Wood, block, and other, for pulp.....							
Wood pulp.....							
Wool.....							
Bullion and specie:							
Bullion (see also gold, etc., and silver ore or silver).....							
Specie.....							
Total value of principal and other articles.....	24,362,538	24,148,962	23,350,439	24,865,860	28,345,942	33,730,003	32,650,049

1 Tons.

## IMPORTS INTO NEWFOUNDLAND, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1893 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	YEAR ENDED DECEMBER 31—				YEAR ENDED JUNE 30—			
	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Butter, including olcomargarine.....	{cwt..	6,185	7,534	7,580	7,328	6,874	5,103	6,487
Coal.....	{£....	21,906	25,113	23,363	22,586	21,187	15,645	22,418
Coal.....	{tons..	89,939	94,960	76,120	88,223	80,965	94,904	99,250
Coke.....	{£....	38,163	42,887	33,697	39,074	36,473	42,284	50,109
Coke.....	{tons..	2,643	1,664	{ Can not be given. }	1,020	715	.....	.....
Fishing tackle.....	{£....	551	347	8,528	205	147	6,347	8,382
Flour.....	{barrels..	20,800	20,464	346,532	11,933	11,496	365,493	415,738
Flour.....	{£....	367,949	337,857	267,020	362,923	357,958	300,405	300,472
Hardware.....	{£....	306,624	281,548	24,667	261,006	294,212	31,492	42,578
Cottons, woollens, silks, linens, and apparel.....	{£....	53,837	50,302	145,956	30,691	33,764	150,491	179,775
Leather.....	{£....	262,218	267,451	24,463	191,253	208,684	25,112	32,135
Leather wares.....	{£....	30,153	27,345	12,353	32,403	30,148	12,741	14,729
Livestock, oxen and cows (except calves).....	{number..	21,860	22,400	Not stated.	18,097	16,011	2,174	2,112
Molasses.....	{gallons..	3,457	2,986	17,213	2,163	2,124	15,061	17,191
Molasses.....	{£....	23,365	15,674	1,164,209	15,907	11,613	768,802	1,075,301
Oil, kerosene.....	{gallons..	849,020	1,078,093	66,988	1,338,463	1,231,294	23,696	37,692
Oil, kerosene.....	{£....	55,876	67,381	Not stated.	68,757	37,951	534,442	612,083
Pork, salted.....	{barrels..	635,062	552,531	8,912	590,682	576,420	8,785	11,359
Pork, salted.....	{£....	10,584	9,208	25,893	9,710	9,475	24,632	31,383
Salt.....	{tons..	15,116	20,891	18,901	31,230	27,921	37,470	47,006
Salt.....	{£....	59,834	82,694	74,487	89,840	68,846	60,737	63,422
Sugar, raw.....	{cwt..	37,487	45,100	12,428	43,097	39,857	11,745	21,962
Sugar, raw.....	{£....	19,524	23,490	16,030	22,139	12,285	28,550	39,967
Tea.....	{pounds..	21,738	20,108	837,993	19,036	20,111	18,082	24,994
Tea.....	{£....	13,586	12,568	24,805	11,735	12,397	873,386	1,031,652
Bullion and specie:		903,950	970,850	28,134	945,005	969,565	24,953	34,626
Bullion.....		30,120	30,712	174,960	15,572	1,760	1,401	10,917
Specie.....		.....	13,818	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total value of principal and other articles .£..		1,577,619	1,492,654	1,233,233	1,230,177	1,220,206	1,066,205	1,296,831

## EXPORTS FROM NEWFOUNDLAND, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1893 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	YEAR ENDED DECEMBER 31—				YEAR ENDED JUNE 30—			
	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Coal.....	{tons..	.....	.....	.....	45	20	135	331
Coal.....	{£....	.....	.....	.....	28	16	111	129
Codfish, dry.....	{quintals..	1,160,335	1,107,696	1,026,636	1,436,083	1,135,817	1,145,540	1,226,336
Copper and copper ore.....	{£....	901,771	771,529	661,485	883,089	580,324	663,889	913,363
Herrings (pickled).....	{barrels..	85,582	49,216	72,410	99,414	84,442	82,515	60,051
Lobsters (preserved in tins).....	{£....	60,332	78,376	45,735	40,113	19,731	28,251	66,946
Lobsters (preserved in tins).....	{cases..	37,728	41,156	22,764	20,274	10,266	14,002	34,183
Oil, cod:		35,403	48,056	51,016	45,662	58,883	61,951	56,166
Oil, cod:	{£....	56,317	65,076	86,482	77,406	108,893	127,297	116,170
Unrefined.....	{tuns..	3,000	3,783	4,915	4,456	3,706	2,799	3,472
Refined.....	{gallons..	45,000	55,169	70,695	64,093	50,421	38,158	53,880
Oil, seal.....	{£....	13	320	170	33,145	87,601	31,478	16,167
Skins, seal.....	{tuns..	80	40	3,708	6,811	8,100	2,975	2,005
Skins, seal.....	{£....	2,932	4,063	4,349	3,305	3,284	2,614	3,207
Bullion and specie:		42,758	57,559	62,627	47,274	60,602	44,852	51,788
Bullion.....	{number..	175,478	284,460	803,276	297,969	195,310	109,262	276,879
Specie.....	{£....	34,730	47,410	77,896	76,533	24,083	26,679	28,061
Total value of principal and other articles .£..		833	1,367	2,931	109	1,615	473	21,089
		1,308,523	1,210,660	1,278,080	1,364,011	1,012,148	1,074,027	1,425,270

1 tons.

## IMPORTS INTO CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Agricultural implements.....£	58,721	76,943	80,815	70,161	102,058	86,592	95,801	121,471
Agricultural machinery.....£	42,920	59,922	69,649	45,725	58,836	57,406	70,637	54,725
Apparel and slops.....£	553,593	629,902	642,824	743,280	855,359	870,928	797,682	678,185
Bags of all sorts (except leather).....{number	4,301,956	5,476,613	4,419,551	6,641,722	8,321,960	8,065,546	4,100,813	8,164,584
Beer and ale, bottled and in wood.....{gallons	90,158	105,567	80,418	105,264	140,442	127,006	62,023	121,139
Bicycles and tricycles, including parts.....£	621,613	661,947	575,770	627,677	781,612	866,880	845,849	817,138
Books, printed.....£	86,814	93,978	79,077	87,961	107,551	115,527	107,252	108,553
Butter, including margarine, etc.....£	11,484	19,145	23,627	38,647	106,856	237,184	174,650	102,686
Butter, including margarine, etc.....£	77,678	86,592	95,357	103,470	125,876	140,793	155,033	143,564
Butter, including margarine, etc.....£	1,125,251	1,659,601	1,912,992	2,315,886	3,703,887	4,796,216	3,911,520	3,560,899
Butter, including margarine, etc.....£	57,258	84,892	94,215	100,363	152,840	196,759	163,771	137,236
Candles.....£	8,560,494	5,072,896	4,887,765	7,356,600	5,920,445	4,402,292	3,490,436	3,947,126
Candles.....£	68,057	92,025	83,357	121,599	90,643	69,305	45,257	56,192
Coal.....£	319,908	234,665	271,737	262,695	379,591	449,611	330,279	372,116
Coal.....£	298,229	164,268	193,873	184,038	258,485	323,177	239,174	353,066
Coke and patent fuel.....£	87,745	93,381	117,542	108,164	150,046	175,617	163,909	170,876
Coffee.....£	285,607	350,329	446,788	359,668	444,045	337,949	241,192	244,352
Confectionery, cocoa, chocolate, jams, and preserves.....£	1,786,243	2,150,688	2,346,045	3,022,261	3,818,150	4,307,191	3,925,390	3,199,730
Confectionery, cocoa, chocolate, jams, and preserves.....£	59,684	70,964	74,033	91,765	110,079	124,606	119,486	96,241
Corn, grain, and flour:								
Wheat.....£	301,773	300,553	345,841	562,318	1,556,147	1,648,204	2,079,204	1,623,033
Wheat.....£	133,082	100,115	97,932	167,210	484,707	652,656	837,285	503,911
Maize.....£	49,727	38,227	2,991	24,491	762,012	509,871	338,673	516,229
Maize.....£	13,156	11,807	1,054	5,576	148,996	97,712	61,916	92,964
Flour (wheaten).....£	20,207	41,898	31,465	19,633	124,074	129,240	148,773	147,668
Flour (wheaten).....£	14,024	22,980	12,323	8,085	50,017	67,269	73,738	64,070
Cotton manufactures.....£	684,940	861,151	833,829	1,030,848	1,211,460	1,124,742	1,134,769	975,350
Drugs and chemicals.....£	174,901	233,008	391,309	342,072	248,806	292,841	314,328	260,375
Dynamite, blasting powder, and com- pounds.....£	2,652,215	4,545,516	7,482,688	11,684,933	12,332,240	6,291,895	2,509,116	2,974,772
Dynamite, blasting powder, and com- pounds.....£	130,751	251,504	362,391	486,327	538,569	811,966	115,990	93,507
Earthenware and chinaware (except bricks and pipes).....£	58,965	66,967	62,649	77,305	95,601	93,440	91,181	81,564
Furniture and cabinet ware.....£	179,705	243,082	223,463	323,953	421,013	404,736	340,704	281,315
Glass and manufactures thereof.....£	66,510	89,516	94,831	106,893	136,677	147,303	140,737	128,892
Haberdashery and millinery.....£	962,167	1,115,663	959,300	1,106,202	1,292,003	1,274,914	1,279,020	1,162,718
Hardware, cutlery, and ironmongery.....£	648,885	786,296	712,424	854,930	4,041,084	1,114,517	1,061,971	972,833
Hats of all kinds.....£	79,028	98,587	95,574	115,156	124,923	118,988	109,095	96,772
Instruments, musical.....£	57,246	63,305	60,222	76,567	89,348	86,060	81,103	64,310
Iron:								
Bar, bolt, and rod.....£	97,466	124,272	143,777	151,960	203,140	143,644	102,430	88,789
Bar, bolt, and rod.....£	35,779	42,423	45,012	46,016	63,017	49,374	36,281	34,631
Sheet.....£	245,659	344,392	332,479	504,479	415,788	412,176	474,001	345,440
Sheet.....£	150,870	191,347	173,890	250,301	217,819	208,600	229,573	199,313
Leather and leather manufactures.....£	462,080	549,086	502,491	547,419	656,998	657,945	596,924	577,944
Linen manufactures.....£	49,908	58,300	67,281	77,419	105,667	85,900	46,584	58,706
Machinery, not agricultural.....£	267,078	674,580	728,233	1,296,565	1,659,988	1,875,957	1,053,182	1,045,946
Oil, mineral.....£	1,589,513	1,545,910	1,885,512	2,092,118	2,394,257	2,906,185	2,682,779	3,757,248
Oil, mineral.....£	44,232	39,038	48,194	59,389	72,216	76,434	64,203	111,350
Oilmen's stores.....£	202,762	351,778	333,162	421,314	495,384	580,070	591,281	579,662
Railway rails and materials.....£	563,644	488,667	318,705	200,262	1,052,307	1,135,326	919,207	439,251
Rice (excluding paddy).....£	143,307	104,266	125,260	168,309	147,110	173,457	173,457	191,617
Saddlery and harness.....£	69,287	49,696	55,073	48,292	70,537	79,603	85,290	81,085
Saddlery and harness.....£	58,496	60,011	63,194	87,866	109,792	114,141	75,678	68,225
Sheep dip.....£	35,202	28,867	50,379	39,838	60,209	57,682	43,009	32,734
Soap, all sorts.....£	8,902,105	10,895,037	11,134,459	14,104,417	13,928,765	11,963,014	13,661,767	14,504,482
Soap, all sorts.....£	75,040	94,596	95,809	123,942	109,114	95,268	106,609	111,741
Spirits:								
Brandy.....£	55,047	62,414	50,241	66,046	88,840	77,261	33,959	46,478
Brandy.....£	47,106	55,280	43,968	66,075	74,908	65,727	31,528	45,146
Whisky.....£	183,425	235,692	271,788	333,469	393,067	348,928	228,492	309,230
Whisky.....£	73,399	90,448	103,064	131,321	156,620	139,934	99,445	132,845
Stationery.....£	186,920	206,164	224,103	265,643	323,211	324,790	314,782	282,103
Sugar:								
Raw.....£	353,582	369,503	342,455	436,284	484,407	563,038	595,376	678,665
Raw.....£	299,726	324,898	254,719	299,234	332,963	365,082	386,933	492,892
Refined or candy.....£	8,909,373	6,888,771	6,039,862	7,597,649	7,389,801	9,976,645	7,496,916	5,222,848
Refined or candy.....£	31,727	59,997	45,495	47,066	49,966	58,300	45,727	34,663
Tea.....£	1,885,734	1,864,720	1,787,785	2,499,598	2,933,000	2,299,369	2,781,578	2,117,471
Tea.....£	56,598	57,126	61,654	75,831	91,974	79,051	101,169	74,418
Tobacco:								
Manufactured (except cigarettes and snuff).....£	195,641	154,821	187,190	361,513	440,780	487,903	333,864	325,781
Manufactured (except cigarettes and snuff).....£	17,157	14,824	18,930	35,435	46,686	51,009	35,035	32,642
Cigars.....£	128,870	147,658	142,747	226,724	308,281	272,693	162,922	212,756
Cigars.....£	39,406	49,537	47,316	84,745	112,208	95,903	48,439	69,666
Wine, all kinds.....£	47,776	63,509	68,702	114,039	149,469	111,407	72,497	65,517
Wine, all kinds.....£	41,178	56,329	58,358	106,713	122,274	84,657	62,123	51,599
Wood:								
Deals (pine).....£	3,155,280	3,816,061	3,529,974	3,535,012	4,967,945	4,182,154	3,691,421	3,370,567
Deals (pine).....£	153,086	178,222	162,690	148,407	215,693	205,756	186,927	152,213
Manufactured.....£	158,214	171,755	177,880	202,699	263,078	304,916	268,554	280,679
Wollen manufactures.....£	293,611	330,140	328,913	361,876	491,653	871,891	364,076	289,239
Ballion and specie:								
Bullion.....£	20	20,552	22,599	25,380	60,624	10,195	86	220
Specie:								
Gold.....£	50,510	137,005	203,310	5,442,000	746,600	812	125	3,790,273
Silver.....£	33,803	38,051	85,806	40,000	88,500	64,363	60,010	45,825
Total value of principal and other articles.....£	9,571,670	11,539,987	11,588,096	19,094,880	18,771,871	17,997,789	16,632,438	19,207,549



## EXPORTS FROM CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Coal.....	129,133	131,104	156,151	147,742	185,479	171,530	143,085	165,529
Coke, and patent fuel.....	118,987	95,604	113,434	100,831	127,570	118,566	104,441	167,248
Copper ore.....	25,459	18,496	27,077	23,545	20,843	27,329	24,808	25,693
Feathers, ostrich.....	253,681	202,316	284,800	246,597	218,422	300,772	262,830	446,985
Fish, salted or cured.....	257,102	259,933	350,404	353,651	322,453	355,196	369,778	373,182
Hair, Angora.....	517,059	461,552	477,414	527,782	519,539	605,058	748,565	842,000
Hides, ox and cow.....	2,629,321	1,354,503	960,363	1,097,408	624,245	1,209,675	803,879	944,156
Ivory.....	16,722	10,474	9,835	10,751	6,382	12,970	7,809	12,836
Precious stones, diamonds.....	10,516,837	9,457,278	10,003,173	11,090,449	10,001,028	12,583,601	10,876,014	12,777,306
Skins:	373,810	527,619	421,248	710,867	572,230	676,644	647,548	779,899
Goat.....	239,671	267,605	287,803	275,305	236,863	624,178	470,536	64,077
Sheep.....	73,973	79,283	78,264	111,990	76,808	217,754	199,513	31,012
Wine of all kinds (colonial).....	6,788	2,979	5,729	4,991	1,187	2,566	3,685	1,433
Wool, sheep's.....	2,408	829	1,914	2,022	368	992	1,092	496
Bullion and specie:	3,039,062	2,758,826	2,507,408	3,622,344	3,558,191	3,485,333	3,497,832	2,736,928
Bullion—	3,906,992	3,821,443	3,013,578	4,775,016	4,646,487	4,454,876	4,566,897	4,135,593
Gold.....	1,726,528	1,693,031	1,619,358	1,417,749	1,364,191	1,111,464	1,292,802	1,190,874
Silver.....	132,717	131,843	111,825	116,422	89,782	87,423	104,524	102,324
Kind not stated.....	3,459,415	3,695,776	3,378,589	3,511,017	3,875,320	2,854,055	3,137,050	2,543,269
Specie—	271,689	285,983	229,122	246,986	229,626	208,990	244,411	271,916
Gold.....	81,365	85,081	85,132	89,563	94,018	69,117	60,381	75,469
Silver.....	18,646	18,964	18,908	20,289	21,412	17,715	15,013	19,224
Total value of principal and other articles.....	70,335,193	66,660,246	54,540,787	65,632,613	73,442,598	60,255,417	73,732,926	69,289,606
	2,029,093	1,855,108	1,599,632	1,695,920	1,874,555	1,496,779	1,766,740	2,183,904
	1,164,988	1,490,740	2,066,141	2,319,080	2,408,717	3,139,912	4,384,809	3,849,976
	4,095,588	5,259,231	7,147,308	7,980,627	8,252,543	10,991,926	15,394,442	13,815,683
	87	54	200	910		196		
	157,216	121,830	52,994	65,525	476	2,191,903	859,543	388,730
	71,210	78,205	62,630	41,094	17,854	31,983	35,720	26,540
	12,206,498	13,156,589	13,812,062	16,904,756	16,970,168	21,660,210	25,318,701	23,662,538

## IMPORTS INTO NATAL, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	YEARS ENDED JUNE 30—				YEARS ENDED DECEMBER 31—			
	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Ale, beer, and cider, in bottles.....	116,677	71,454	80,593	100,267	170,210	219,044	182,646	140,863
Ale, beer, and cider, in wood.....	22,458	14,398	16,198	18,569	29,696	33,872	28,385	20,497
Apothecaries' wares, drugs, and chemicals.....	212,575	169,899	115,215	116,747	153,913	146,562	84,826	172,176
Apparel and slops.....	19,336	15,392	10,389	10,133	12,795	15,174	6,325	12,570
Bicycles and tricycles.....	112,785	94,261	78,465	59,116	36,630	121,607	117,521	119,456
Butter, including substitutes.....	329,888	235,000	182,112	171,240	353,514	414,269	368,072	386,587
Cabinet and upholstery ware.....	(1)	187,377	174,208	134,474	445,882	1,105,239	1,870,497	1,746,047
Coal.....	55,218	11,134	11,952	7,172	20,713	50,514	87,142	70,625
Coke and patent fuel.....		43,712	43,105	35,863	105,556	152,333	105,387	91,688
Coffee.....			2		2,352	734		14,009
Cotton manufactures.....			3		1,262	396		29,932
Cotton blankets and sheets.....			175		2,285	567		672
Flour, meal and bran, wheat.....			154		380	791		773
Haberdashery and millinery.....			15,569	16,980	21,627	29,146	30,649	27,298
Iron:			58,031	50,354	84,113	56,419	42,044	37,796
Fencing wire and material for same.....			60,498	65,448	4,928,725	2,223,474	5,193,292	4,002,964
Galvanized and corrugated.....			25,413	26,899	43,118	37,277	35,026	67,626
Piping.....			269,366	287,899	464,817	357,026	29,400	570,881
Ironmongery, hardware, and cutlery.....			81,887	178,282	485,101	367,573	540,805	53,621
Leather, manufactured (see also saddlery, etc.).....			178,282	413,716	213,581	174,329	239,244	177,662
Linen manufactures.....			189,863		413,716	480,208	492,818	421,188
Machinery and railway and tramway plant.....								
Oilmen's stores.....								
Oil, paraffin.....								
Rice.....								
Saddlery and harness.....								
Soap, common.....								
Spirits: Brandy, gin, rum, and whisky.....								
Stationery.....								
Tea.....								
Toys, turnery, and fancy ware.....								
Wine.....								
Wood and timber.....								

(1) Not stated.

## IMPORTS INTO NATAL, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899—Continued.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.		YEARS ENDED JUNE 30—				YEARS ENDED DECEMBER 31—			
		1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Woolen manufactures.....	(yards..)	429,089	341,293	246,311	221,107	165,157	120,147	188,187	131,355
	(£.....)	17,415	13,602	15,715	10,662	13,096	10,102	7,639	9,770
Woolen blankets and rugs.....	(pairs..)	216,361	182,370	176,779	206,599	262,379	275,867	280,617	251,030
	(£.....)	81,575	61,154	53,729	59,558	74,442	64,209	78,031	61,594
Bullion and specie:									
Bullion:									
Gold.....	(£.....)					2,383	6,888	3,033	8,681
Silver.....	(£.....)					201,000	228	1,225	1,320,837
Specie:						26,455	11,100	41,558	29,633
Gold.....	(£.....)	47,010	25,666	67,843	96,393				
Silver.....	(£.....)								
Total value of principal and other articles..	(£.....)	3,212,259	2,482,228	2,239,165	2,466,415	5,667,750	6,001,969	5,369,672	6,718,163

## EXPORTS FROM NATAL, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.		YEARS ENDED JUNE 30—				YEARS ENDED DECEMBER 31—			
		1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Bark.....	(cwt..)	119,009	122,976	140,485	157,666	67,560	81,972	188,553	221,400
	(£.....)	7,170	9,304	12,569	17,209	16,450	17,659	30,929	57,885
Coal.....	(tons..)	59,979	52,697	67,229	63,571	92,188	90,725	123,664	164,610
	(£.....)	59,899	52,222	67,217	62,954	89,592	90,240	124,528	155,043
Grain: Maize.....	(cwt..)	1,809	12,798	12,263	4,050	66,281	81,350	9,836	16,537
	(£.....)	588	2,016	1,805	1,070	10,139	14,404	1,957	4,319
Hair: Angora.....	(pounds..)	490,464	646,605	516,054	427,908	515,585	679,670	729,035	713,160
	(£.....)	16,142	24,772	23,804	18,127	21,925	34,892	36,545	39,964
Hardware and cutlery.....	(£.....)	414	16,715	18,019	22,318	38,780	44,948	24,985	15,823
Hides.....	(number..)	168,997	173,610	204,092	268,559	222,111	166,009	962,763	200,494
	(£.....)	34,371	31,767	31,864	32,496	33,070	44,400	160,176	39,401
Ivory.....	(pounds..)	122	37	145	2,367		(1)		
	(£.....)	122	120	168	1,035		79		
Ores and minerals: Silver.....	(£.....)	5,991	36,181	49,588	29,378	194	1,363	1,487	
Ostrich feathers.....	(pounds..)	120	59	71	52	182	175	216	220
	(£.....)	352	222	259	220	506	805	811	785
Skins, of all kinds.....	(number..)	485,199	403,006	436,391	426,682	268,019	168,192	568,124	383,691
	(£.....)	17,497	18,573	18,306	13,833	9,755	24,674	25,906	25,906
Sugar: Raw.....	(cwt..)	194,427	152,126	135,883	121,721	36,123	10,278	28,433	182,932
	(£.....)	119,461	98,616	99,093	65,562	22,696	7,444	18,153	117,472
Wool: Sheep's.....	(pounds..)	20,887,888	24,067,019	17,794,942	19,450,975	25,537,963	21,743,155	24,292,777	20,435,499
	(£.....)	563,385	582,219	444,155	408,963	590,605	474,681	565,479	608,711
Bullion and specie:									
Bullion:									
Gold (dust and bars).....	(£.....)	833,117	266,383	221,108	225,732	102,624	18,223	40,635	402,693
Silver.....	(£.....)								8
Specie:									
Gold.....	(£.....)	55,000		20,250	88,754	135,280	547,675	16,134	157,835
Silver.....	(£.....)	292	68,592			5,380	1,000	1,220	
Total value of principal and other articles..	(£.....)	1,379,227	1,337,516	1,118,895	1,140,930	1,319,179	1,579,538	1,263,354	1,885,580

<sup>1</sup> Not stated.<sup>2</sup> Packages.

NOTE.—Goods in transit for the interior are included in the returns of imports, but do not appear in those of exports. The value of gold (produce of South African States), brought into the colony for shipment at Port Natal, is included in the returns of exports, though not in those of imports.

## INTERCOLONIAL AND FOREIGN COMMERCE OF THE AUSTRALIAN COLONIES.

The following statement of the commerce of the Australian colonies shows the share of the trade of each colony with the other Australian colonies, or with other parts of the world. It will be seen from this statement that only 55.70 per cent of the total sum named as imports in 1898 was imported from abroad, the remainder being merely the importations of the Australian colonies from other colonies of that group; and that of the sum named as exports, 61.84 per cent was distributed outside of the Australian group of colonies, the remainder being the exports from the respective Australian colonies to other colonies of that group. Of the total imports into the Australian colonies, valued at \$318,797,232, \$176,204,716, or 55.70 per cent, originated in countries outside of the colonies in question; and of the total exports, valued at \$351,418,224, \$217,304,520, or 61.84 per cent, went to countries outside of the colonies named.

## IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF AUSTRALIAN COLONIES, 1898.

COLONIES.	IMPORTS—			EXPORTS—		
	From Australasia.	From other countries.	Total.	To Australasia.	To other countries.	Total.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
New South Wales.....	49,126,306	56,692,662	105,818,970	42,243,507	73,341,085	115,584,592
Victoria.....	33,504,704	41,704,533	75,209,237	24,689,517	56,774,088	81,463,605
South Australia.....	19,110,711	15,569,842	34,680,553	14,981,520	18,733,840	33,715,360
West Australia.....	16,433,017	14,378,089	30,811,106	10,298,288	8,876,200	19,174,488
Tasmania.....	4,720,982	1,934,483	6,655,465	7,153,580	1,335,840	8,489,420
New Zealand.....	7,632,502	31,568,241	39,200,743	6,936,325	41,811,372	48,747,697
Queensland.....	12,064,292	14,356,866	26,421,158	27,810,967	16,432,095	44,243,062
Total.....	142,592,516	176,204,716	318,797,232	134,113,704	217,304,520	351,418,224

IMPORTS INTO QUEENSLAND, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.  
[From the British Statistical Abstract.]

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Apparel and slops.....£	234,052	141,658	184,661	153,444	157,742	133,066	133,167	148,472
Bags and sacks (including woolpacks).....£	50,196	47,871	47,887	48,875	48,877	58,449	62,209	84,961
Beer and ale.....gallons	623,676	467,729	385,912	418,339	440,121	485,566	418,408	532,473
Boots and shoes.....£	87,488	66,486	60,881	70,223	73,624	79,022	75,429	91,463
Butter (excluding butterine).....pounds	97,880	56,045	52,167	68,280	74,335	39,550	49,355	55,025
Cement.....barrels	131,895	271,106	221,724	1,041,069	1,003,680	237,882	33,934	26,480
Coal.....tons	7,338	11,456	9,485	45,679	43,073	11,498	1,507	1,166
Coke and fuel.....tons	16,419	27,353	25,715	47,244	68,607	65,230	56,441	86,586
Cotton piece goods.....£	6,220	9,043	9,807	23,324	32,772	31,875	28,685	46,747
Cutlery and plated ware.....£	18,376	11,457	12,907	17,739	18,448	21,283	22,914	30,339
Drapery and haberdashery.....£	10,590	7,606	8,976	18,315	17,645	19,674	19,825	27,165
Drugs and druggists' wares.....£	11	73	49	4	5	80	196	196
Fancy goods.....£	165,371	166,679	268,882	335,490	316,859	295,136	361,383	402,770
Flour.....tons	19,796	17,001	20,689	25,453	32,321	29,444	33,521	42,653
Fruit:.....£	162,919	128,715	153,570	197,466	193,547	145,662	168,010	213,438
Dried: Currants and raisins.....pounds	50,643	44,153	53,938	63,065	58,180	56,843	67,689	73,024
Green and pulp.....£	24,894	18,578	25,787	32,883	34,620	33,535	35,758	47,398
Furniture.....£	36,324	34,188	34,004	32,754	32,996	31,700	32,324	33,533
Glass and glassware.....£	390,545	307,778	254,666	249,747	370,419	410,036	373,851	274,853
Gloves.....£	2,147,772	2,166,073	1,779,304	2,476,870	1,662,143	2,420,140	2,214,479	2,606,449
Government and military stores.....£	21,229	17,963	13,387	21,852	14,381	28,600	28,600	30,124
Grain: Wheat.....bushels	63,020	55,698	63,915	69,448	68,308	73,921	71,717	86,321
Hardware and ironmongery (exclusive of cutlery).....£	25,142	16,315	18,588	22,710	22,194	28,040	37,325	47,938
Hats, caps, and bonnets.....£	19,395	14,835	19,935	29,523	35,266	35,437	43,403	32,879
Hosiery.....£	20,325	13,326	19,405	17,987	22,616	17,298	19,447	23,445
Iron and steel.....£	63,530	57,052	36,253	41,329	103,596	223,937	132,413	137,883
Leather, unmanufactured (including patent leather).....£	269,488	372,559	415,734	364,548	863,469	360,419	315,289	652,042
Linen piece goods.....£	53,843	57,659	59,473	59,617	179,956	95,111	61,845	102,920
Live stock (horned cattle, horses, and sheep).....£	82,730	57,796	76,885	105,354	150,514	119,626	125,231	148,232
Machinery.....£	43,218	38,333	54,686	59,553	59,553	54,643	65,042	70,263
Malt.....bushels	38,479	25,260	44,112	42,471	46,205	44,856	43,684	67,375
Millinery.....£	218,808	149,814	204,113	293,757	319,551	317,821	352,244	532,172
Moleskin in the piece.....£	18,394	18,568	23,885	31,071	28,365	25,611	33,784	36,721
Oil: Kerosene.....gallons	23,214	19,487	27,411	25,705	28,223	26,674	33,199	36,911
Oilmen's stores.....£	188,263	139,960	95,781	119,279	129,302	178,451	159,520	187,921
Opium.....pounds	137,935	105,202	118,731	175,096	208,758	180,461	177,406	218,866
Paper.....£	116,378	121,607	127,189	153,843	147,474	156,613	129,811	127,469
Potatoes.....tons	35,748	36,073	42,420	48,837	47,676	52,232	42,983	44,148
Preserves (jams and jellies).....pounds	34,610	29,398	43,665	37,660	53,098	57,120	61,035	69,029
Provisions: Pork (salt and mess), bacon, and hams.....£	4,339	7,272	13,872	13,564	15,467	12,757	13,540	13,691
Railway rails and other materials.....£	1,175,333	1,375,896	1,311,129	1,638,975	1,271,910	1,369,178	1,928,311	1,867,755
Rice.....£	28,347	34,538	40,378	56,506	53,129	55,614	65,991	71,497
Saddlery and harness.....£	46,076	43,526	53,326	66,765	74,330	61,271	68,699	83,966
Salt, except rock.....£	885,743	759,042	686,018	817,914	1,240,537	1,398,986	1,255,692	1,360,333
Silk manufactures (including mill silk and silk mixtures).....£	18,106	15,243	14,613	18,318	26,494	28,253	24,001	25,918
Spirits:.....£	24,518	30,916	20,989	25,858	22,428	27,924	21,723	24,345
Brandy.....gallons	43,348	52,679	35,518	37,375	38,869	46,056	35,326	39,556
Gin and Geneva.....gallons	35,819	36,213	58,223	50,955	48,448	62,968	61,313	66,496
Rum.....gallons	9,697	10,843	10,513	12,454	19,271	15,756	15,233	15,128
Whisky.....gallons	26,824	41,431	38,013	33,789	82,328	61,102	70,006	68,235
Stationery:.....£	926,028	755,580	629,640	450,468	366,588	273,888	293,604	241,428
Books and newspapers.....£	16,020	13,009	12,398	8,397	7,455	5,130	5,776	4,997
Other (excluding paper and ink).....£	5,628	3,087	2,570	2,074	1,228	637	907	602
Sugar, unrefined.....£	3,567	3,212	22,061	27,936	27,646	24,390	88,104	77,072
Tea.....pounds	2,936	3,145	3,222	2,819	3,325	3,500	3,798	4,220
Tobacco:.....£	36,020	35,618	38,027	35,643	42,633	44,204	50,079	51,425
Cigars.....pounds	15,403	9,537	8,039	9,155	9,236	9,547	7,806	10,157
Manufactured (except cigars, cigarettes, and snuff).....£	8,220	10,501	13,232	15,998	8,298	13,202	15,724	19,171
Tools (other than grindery).....£	11,951	15,805	28,230	31,179	14,443	29,284	30,938	36,378
Wine.....gallons	7,850	10,266	14,055	18,860	26,467	16,444	25,928	35,244
Woolen manufactures:.....£	41,435	62,028	70,528	71,489	58,000	69,973	70,446	71,709
Piece goods (including flannel).....£	40,893	28,705	34,431	34,086	37,669	26,533	35,618	35,851
Blankets.....£	47,213	42,855	49,813	45,144	52,086	44,157	33,296	56,115
Bullion:.....£	11,756	7,892	10,055	11,505	13,952	11,484	10,438	15,388
Gold.....pounds	22,489	16,705	19,614	18,464	16,487	25,719	19,658	25,572
Silver.....pounds	4,583	3,221	4,230	4,559	4,156	4,480	3,714	4,297
Specie:.....£	197,264	161,607	202,735	197,819	193,437	205,605	235,191	294,100
Gold.....pounds	69,302	52,223	71,965	81,006	81,095	76,042	87,023	110,631
Silver.....pounds	47,550	34,509	38,306	44,413	49,730	52,550	61,388	63,802
Other (excluding paper and ink).....£	30,115	27,448	32,765	30,480	35,200	33,189	38,112	37,730
Sugar, unrefined.....£	27	22	43	53	40	35	43	18
Tea.....pounds	608	465	793	1,078	747	689	901	324
Tobacco:.....£	3,417,458	3,137,131	2,582,299	3,091,436	3,165,051	2,811,454	3,379,418	3,625,832
Cigars.....pounds	136,814	117,489	126,658	126,384	122,796	106,403	125,290	135,593
Manufactured (except cigars, cigarettes, and snuff).....£	62,380	32,171	35,689	63,166	49,799	56,044	59,118	85,669
Tools (other than grindery).....£	15,776	8,535	8,795	13,558	12,474	13,411	14,424	19,459
Wine.....gallons	753,920	492,965	768,881	777,247	578,046	635,347	628,346	912,852
Woolen manufactures:.....£	50,811	33,360	56,097	64,177	50,264	49,156	52,035	70,033
Bullion:.....£	34,305	27,376	37,184	41,510	42,511	41,725	47,463	46,717
Gold.....pounds	56,344	35,256	43,439	43,573	37,104	43,674	42,351	61,664
Silver.....pounds	30,164	16,347	21,127	27,188	24,654	23,481	24,453	33,312
Specie:.....£	94,398	77,621	143,170	155,052	153,445	160,296	171,266	173,495
Gold.....pounds	20,615	14,693	16,113	22,113	26,450	24,057	16,800	21,096
Silver.....pounds	928	487	773	1,809	6,082	5,690	6,364	9,850
Gold.....pounds	3,490	1,866	2,585	6,675	21,681	18,298	23,125	34,432
Silver.....pounds	240	50	230	161	161	358	662	278
Specie:.....£	42	9	42	42	24	53	75	35
Gold.....pounds	200,000	868,487	290,586	600,200	80,000	11,870	260,100	163,600
Silver.....pounds	4,917	2,116	591	350	2,676	22,609	10,968	30,531
Total value of principal and other articles.....	4,382,657	4,352,783	4,337,400	5,349,007	5,433,271	5,429,191	6,007,266	6,764,097

## EXPORTS FROM QUEENSLAND, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Coal .....	2,920	3,621	1,367	1,142	18,981	12,853	4,183	9,034
.....	£ 3,953	5,391	1,752	2,261	10,353	9,376	5,459	7,428
Coke and fuel .....	400	27	1	24	.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	£ 290	37	1	31	.....	.....	.....	.....
Copper, ore .....	1,064	2,091	1,260	2,017	4,124	4,752	7,381	14,500
.....	£ 894	1,284	980	2,168	4,318	3,065	5,769	10,924
Copper, smelted .....	5,010	575	2,679	6,208	7,420	3,863	151	4,820
.....	£ 11,489	1,245	5,080	12,539	14,209	6,903	396	11,627
Cotton, raw .....	38,618	88,559	1,426	3,860	.....	.....	.....	.....
.....	£ 1,061	1,921	56	105	.....	.....	.....	.....
Fish (oysters) .....	22,063	17,832	12,418	13,544	17,144	17,363	11,663	13,406
Fruit of all kinds .....	42,560	45,963	34,503	59,289	68,431	88,615	98,156	94,843
.....	£ 168,948	230,951	310,020	461,701	418,991	405,306	505,925	580,389
Hides and skins .....	13,568	24,338	12,594	25,068	20,365	19,669	12,703	18,424
.....	£ 252,330	348,219	270,207	456,506	449,265	438,211	466,265	700,303
Live stock (horned cattle, horses, and sheep) .....	621,548	724,101	404,799	339,899	859,367	828,089	808,818	927,384
Meats:								
Frozen and chilled .....	£ 276,113	377,089	498,652	583,516	501,850	662,993	676,698	851,635
Other .....	£ 120,756	171,101	301,126	445,631	397,425	365,045	482,676	427,108
Pearl shells .....	£ 106,881	142,454	95,335	71,856	94,865	126,492	109,588	137,873
Silver lead .....	1,172	2,520	993	552	171	296	.....	4
.....	£ 71,738	156,775	94,617	39,742	20,726	7,470	.....	175
Silver ore .....	382	685	134	75	179	255	204	327
.....	£ 14,812	17,309	1,875	2,012	9,270	7,016	4,874	10,936
Sugar .....	770,498	1,050,579	1,298,209	1,344,114	1,507,503	1,248,358	2,461,150	2,180,920
.....	£ 589,753	753,983	886,834	796,117	863,080	681,038	1,329,876	1,163,010
Tallow .....	245,932	323,305	422,512	605,381	371,089	331,850	382,648	470,920
.....	£ 250,308	373,548	468,320	595,992	337,967	272,528	328,531	468,829
Tin, ore .....	36,931	34,351	35,106	23,224	14,783	12,526	10,535	13,960
.....	£ 115,429	90,184	73,149	44,835	27,282	23,150	20,691	41,323
Tin, smelted .....	8,390	4,832	9,304	9,045	6,993	3,565	2,964	7,040
.....	£ 39,775	23,923	34,680	29,352	19,497	13,520	11,180	39,636
Wood .....	£ 17,975	5,187	2,720	2,670	5,427	7,791	8,254	6,848
Wool .....	105,228,383	90,459,274	83,132,962	85,438,743	88,781,557	76,360,239	86,814,139	71,138,515
.....	£ 4,262,471	3,578,864	2,923,281	2,991,413	2,984,210	2,509,842	3,018,098	3,390,779
Bullion and specie:								
Bullion—								
Gold (dust and bars) .....	£ 594,493	622,573	684,002	692,167	626,930	813,204	944,906	794,402
Silver .....	£ 2,072,870	2,167,890	2,381,916	2,272,109	2,114,257	2,568,702	2,855,781	2,613,511
Specie—								
Gold .....	£ 1,500	.....	.....	15,713	101,751	117,498	69,111	67,570
Silver .....	£ 220	.....	.....	5,268	28,896	48,315	41,951	35,441
Total value of principal and other articles .....	£ 9,170,408	9,632,662	8,795,569	8,982,600	9,163,726	9,091,557	10,856,127	11,942,858

## IMPORTS INTO NEW ZEALAND, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1893 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Ale and beer .....	231,587	198,287	212,234	178,899	201,186	161,534	191,222
.....	£ 46,317	39,393	42,676	35,123	39,614	37,844	39,166
Apparel and slops .....	346,860	301,774	316,179	370,516	362,389	355,072	393,689
.....	£ 539,678	302,960	379,082	311,601	527,446	586,267	610,584
Bags and sacks .....	155,947	90,816	99,376	87,178	129,577	137,923	164,306
Bicycles and tricycles .....	8,614	13,538	20,366	99,664	191,061	141,451	112,615
Books and stationery (including writing paper) .....	199,567	191,560	194,165	213,849	227,614	224,701	241,266
Boots and shoes .....	59,192	54,431	58,093	65,265	72,689	66,444	75,436
.....	£ 142,676	139,455	122,462	127,985	132,203	130,912	151,593
Cement and plaster of paris .....	31,940	31,244	24,447	33,602	39,696	41,981	39,377
Coal .....	117,444	112,961	108,188	101,756	110,907	115,427	99,665
.....	£ 111,956	105,191	97,621	94,138	98,139	105,223	92,815
Coke .....	265	267	304	555	930	1,210	1,218
.....	£ 706	714	733	1,302	2,318	2,960	2,885
Cottons .....	393,588	342,446	374,366	434,673	414,673	417,733	447,495
Drapery .....	337,065	294,800	288,995	336,839	344,539	343,820	395,696
Drugs, chemicals, and druggists' wares (excluding acids) .....	116,710	121,389	145,166	135,507	161,789	166,212	184,598
Fancy goods .....	85,907	71,257	71,273	89,072	100,824	103,786	110,114
Fruit, fresh and dried .....	142,757	128,799	119,243	136,560	170,449	171,806	172,037
Haberdashery .....	91,492	71,505	84,625	68,473	70,853	85,985	84,808
Iron:							
Cutlery, hardware, and ironmongery .....	£ 188,293	171,293	164,261	173,945	215,823	232,262	243,148
Galvanized, all kinds .....	£ 146,096	136,017	104,731	185,870	156,187	162,026	219,087
Tools and implements .....	£ 67,580	61,937	59,865	70,138	90,181	111,151	93,020
Wire: Fencing and barbed .....	£ 73,747	72,332	78,936	95,018	90,661	112,984	96,181
Leather (except chamols), not manufactured .....	£ 5,400	4,670	4,612	5,025	5,153	4,397	5,366
.....	£ 73,288	66,112	65,000	78,342	75,488	64,374	71,599
Machinery (including sewing machines), and parts thereof .....	212,044	177,996	154,009	283,440	401,053	469,863	453,415
Manures of all kinds .....	£ 72,225	57,843	64,381	62,442	89,230	112,846	116,395
Millinery, silks, linens, and hosiery .....	£ 223,361	184,533	194,046	238,917	247,480	248,292	284,283
Oils .....	£ 105,377	111,654	134,913	128,138	163,793	162,523	126,967
Paper: Printing, wrapping, etc. ....	£ 74,159	80,793	74,858	80,467	84,961	88,909	91,427
Railway materials .....	£ 59,941	42,797	46,998	32,654	136,571	99,997	127,364
Seeds .....	£ 93,070	70,484	63,898	51,467	68,035	78,183	66,563
Spirits:							
Brandy .....	£ 88,525	70,720	71,289	68,825	70,450	76,718	74,413
Whisky .....	£ 38,640	31,152	30,761	29,610	29,961	31,951	31,522
Other kinds (including methylated and perfumed) .....	£ 340,453	280,634	304,770	320,938	357,981	361,925	434,876
Sugar, raw and refined (excluding glucose and molasses) .....	£ 114,184	94,566	102,327	107,304	124,065	126,072	150,743
Tea .....	£ 31,801	27,842	31,078	27,829	28,689	28,672	27,388
Tobacco, cigars, cigarettes, and snuff .....	£ 426,779	684,314	647,316	690,673	627,662	748,726	612,231
Wine .....	£ 294,390	452,847	386,028	417,043	370,191	419,218	350,241
Woolens (excluding yarn) .....	£ 4,284,028	3,667,585	4,467,347	4,380,781	4,652,115	4,847,442	4,771,139
Total value of principal and other articles .....	£ 164,360	136,986	173,343	166,860	178,350	183,717	183,691
Tobacco, cigars, cigarettes, and snuff .....	£ 125,253	124,757	133,843	149,905	164,889	161,836	184,173
Wine .....	£ 51,084	40,412	41,109	40,879	50,202	48,514	51,640
Woolens (excluding yarn) .....	£ 206,960	173,462	181,253	247,357	286,993	280,957	279,452

## IMPORTS INTO NEW ZEALAND, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1893 TO 1899—Continued.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Bullion and specie:							
Bullion—Silver .....	1,631	924	1,334	916	677	611	388
{£.....	316	134	189	118	93	96	62
Specie—							
Gold .....	411,595	795,030	270,126	97,600	550	18,185	116,175
Silver .....	5,241	2,400	13,890	8,050	59,317	176	8,320
Total value of principal and other articles .....	6,911,515	6,788,020	6,400,129	7,137,320	8,065,223	8,230,600	8,739,633

## EXPORTS FROM NEW ZEALAND, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1893 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Butter.....	58,149	60,771	57,964	71,353	99,002	96,801	136,066
{£.....	254,645	251,280	227,601	281,716	402,605	403,690	571,799
Cheese.....	46,201	55,656	76,743	71,372	77,683	68,711	69,440
{£.....	99,626	115,213	150,909	130,166	150,517	135,776	141,818
Coal.....	75,126	79,943	92,744	86,280	82,396	65,189	93,843
{£.....	79,759	79,177	90,271	78,460	75,373	57,639	86,723
Coke.....	51	107	288	105	.....	9	18
{£.....	63	160	715	263	.....	14	9
Flax (phormium), excluding tow .....	12,587	4,677	1,806	2,968	2,769	4,850	10,371
{£.....	219,375	66,256	21,040	32,985	30,074	74,556	184,411
Grain:							
Barley .....	40,540	17,878	21,975	44,003	34,966	2,665	125,549
{£.....	6,922	2,840	3,129	6,109	5,353	456	17,816
Oats .....	1,945,537	1,963,288	2,003,270	2,247,053	1,600,458	516,210	3,520,734
{£.....	190,094	156,694	156,302	220,070	167,229	87,924	286,102
Wheat .....	2,619,398	228,904	14,568	453,123	72,167	10,090	2,901,676
{£.....	343,626	27,447	1,891	78,988	14,703	2,463	338,476
Hides .....	12,973	8,710	9,832	6,216	10,746	32,897	41,036
{£.....	8,390	5,226	8,067	5,280	10,021	27,232	36,095
Kauri gum .....	8,323	8,338	7,425	7,126	6,642	9,905	11,116
{£.....	510,922	404,567	418,766	431,323	398,010	586,775	607,919
Leather (not manufactured) .....	13,917	17,740	21,799	18,792	19,477	20,058	17,386
{£.....	71,139	91,662	108,927	89,490	99,116	104,857	98,503
Meat:							
Potted and preserved (not salted) .....	23,720	30,125	36,885	44,709	45,145	55,775	48,056
{£.....	46,609	57,422	66,247	75,679	78,469	97,197	90,919
Frozen and chilled .....	903,836	1,025,243	1,134,097	1,103,362	1,407,921	1,551,773	1,865,827
{£.....	1,085,167	1,194,545	1,262,711	1,251,993	1,566,286	1,698,750	2,088,856
Potatoes .....	5,804	1,901	4,028	3,688	7,692	22,507	25,396
{£.....	23,308	5,218	9,142	11,004	20,992	141,077	39,618
Skins:							
Rabbit .....	17,041,106	14,267,285	15,229,314	10,828,612	8,099,334	6,607,934	7,891,648
{£.....	138,952	87,993	85,022	65,599	47,472	51,607	81,118
Sheep (including pelts) .....	2,618,238	2,681,552	3,230,539	3,001,791	3,688,051	4,995,325	4,960,054
{£.....	172,294	162,644	180,905	164,193	188,121	244,579	268,230
Tallow .....	170,060	199,400	263,560	222,540	310,200	347,160	338,620
{£.....	183,588	204,499	260,999	208,821	259,964	302,141	311,649
Timber of all kinds (excluding woodenware) .....	106,613	122,690	147,521	136,109	155,707	165,951	197,301
{£.....	109,719,684	144,306,271	116,015,170	129,151,624	135,835,117	149,385,815	147,169,497
Wool .....	3,774,738	4,827,311	3,662,131	4,391,848	4,443,144	4,645,804	4,324,627
Bullion and specie:							
Bullion—							
Gold .....	227,502	221,614	293,493	263,699	251,674	280,175	389,566
{£.....	915,921	887,865	1,162,181	1,041,448	980,302	1,080,691	1,513,245
Silver .....	63,076	54,177	85,024	94,307	183,892	293,851	349,338
{£.....	9,743	6,697	10,679	10,589	20,872	33,107	40,838
Specie—							
Gold .....	295,319	2,269	31,405	3,422	273,242	65,185	5,349
Silver .....	9,200	7,228	700	17,776	2,529	2,932	9,564
Total value of principal and other articles .....	8,985,364	9,231,047	8,550,224	9,321,105	10,016,993	10,517,955	11,988,335

## IMPORTS INTO TASMANIA, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Bags and sacks (including woolpacks).....£..	27,202	28,618	30,108	31,377	31,083	29,596	27,531	45,600
Boots and shoes.....£..	37,268	28,048	34,131	34,892	35,086	32,777	32,908	41,181
Coal.....(tons).....£..	43,390	31,893	39,286	35,482	25,219	29,912	34,527	52,643
Coke.....(tons).....£..	45,688	24,279	11,983	11,551	8,628	9,299	10,984	18,551
Draper's goods (excluding carpets and rugs).....£..	346,764	255,101	238,394	256,315	308,079	327,896	326,144	380,175
Government stores.....£..	61,253	10,670	3,834	.....	10,431	13,372	20,212	48,555
Ironmongery, hardware, etc.....£..	119,953	64,138	58,368	65,551	85,220	99,077	103,165	106,353
Live stock (cattle and sheep).....£..	64,072	28,835	16,929	12,320	9,879	14,369	62,861	30,796
Machinery (including sewing machines).....£..	57,505	49,046	30,638	41,570	51,537	69,146	136,896	98,720
Manures.....£..	13,895	14,408	12,075	14,626	22,543	25,076	25,398	32,104
Medicines and drugs (excluding opium).....£..	19,264	15,333	15,688	14,298	16,219	17,513	19,677	22,354
Oil of all kinds.....£..	14,109	11,144	12,236	14,197	16,806	17,477	19,105	(1)
Oilmen's stores.....£..	26,778	15,274	13,786	15,127	19,578	21,164	29,428	(1)
Paper.....£..	26,176	14,437	14,358	15,054	16,462	18,416	18,877	19,247
Railway or tramway materials.....£..	5,212	11,401	5,349	11,694	29,792	17,838	47,923	43,700
Stationery and books.....£..	36,474	22,231	23,033	23,518	23,968	27,172	28,265	36,467
Sugar, raw.....(cwt).....£..	109,345	110,385	104,035	122,948	123,990	134,754	141,645	153,678
Tea.....(pounds).....£..	105,612	108,610	86,289	90,425	92,560	95,166	94,219	104,490
Tobacco, cigars, cigarettes, and snuff.....(pounds).....£..	973,852	915,712	924,888	971,265	951,168	887,634	974,363	1,071,484
Wine.....(pounds).....£..	43,303	38,128	32,457	35,017	34,043	33,971	39,358	45,933
Tobacco, cigars, cigarettes, and snuff.....(pounds).....£..	266,194	273,881	238,294	317,995	309,007	324,238	348,382	335,532
Wine.....£..	24,980	22,193	17,736	25,088	27,058	29,182	32,956	35,855
Bullion and specie:.....£..	8,287	5,158	4,950	4,759	5,728	6,187	7,509	6,324
Bullion—								
Gold.....£..			4,000	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Silver.....£..			.....	13	.....	7	1	.....
Specie—								
Gold.....£..	2,000	18,350	34,000	97,000	.....	50,000	2,009	19,200
Silver.....£..	1,850	446	1,000	3,000	2,220	620	11,715	9,605
Total value of principal and other articles.....£..	1,497,161	1,057,683	979,676	1,094,457	1,192,410	1,367,608	1,650,018	1,769,324

<sup>1</sup>Not stated.

## EXPORTS FROM TASMANIA, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Bark.....(tons).....£..	5,177	5,817	5,365	6,167	5,328	5,105	5,892	5,186
Butter and cheese.....£..	38,212	39,166	32,089	33,753	28,429	26,429	31,017	31,042
Coal.....(tons).....£..	471	5,631	10,529	12,545	5,971	109	109	1,813
Copper, blister.....(tons).....£..	35	63	385	100	374	2,235	2,564	2,657
Copper ore.....(tons).....£..	49	189	1,111	141	136	619	654	1,201
Copper, blister.....(tons).....£..	.....	Can not be given.	.....	.....	.....	4,513	5,013	8,343
Copper ore.....(tons).....£..	.....	12	.....	68	39	316,517	372,233	738,055
Fruit, preserved and green.....£..	.....	137	.....	1,309	990	52	419	(1)
Grain, oats.....(bushels).....£..	147,866	122,183	202,442	161,464	168,302	193,796	181,769	241,740
Hides and skins.....(number).....£..	247,567	181,317	121,485	341,728	305,048	137,683	314,881	910,106
Hops.....(pounds).....£..	30,074	18,514	9,589	25,757	28,317	12,874	36,623	81,669
Live stock, sheep.....(number).....£..	3,468,459	4,213,404	3,867,093	3,809,257	3,997,397	3,614,768	3,033,820	4,625,526
Oil, sperm.....(tons).....£..	44,019	61,772	40,533	46,525	43,467	42,848	63,684	91,178
Potatoes.....(tons).....£..	741,822	340,470	571,610	574,243	654,465	491,110	48,938	308,907
Timber (excluding willows).....(tons).....£..	32,069	16,948	22,215	18,210	21,665	18,372	22,012	13,505
Tin, ore and smelted.....(tons).....£..	7,680	4,633	4,280	4,113	3,746	4,678	4,246	3,926
Wool.....(pounds).....£..	41,202	39,312	27,989	15,130	27,887	24,844	19,400	27,073
Bullion and specie:.....£..	144	135	138	242	2	2	90	77
Bullion—	5,679	1,670	5,113	6,552	1,309	41	2,000	2,012
Gold.....£..	35,362	29,144	39,520	48,068	48,276	45,998	22,535	45,663
Silver.....£..	55,486	84,469	70,337	70,786	129,884	124,349	129,436	95,025
Specie—	3,013	13,052	19,703	20,252	20,817	19,516	13,940	13,404
Gold.....£..	42,053	153,281	215,394	227,916	222,948	216,893	167,618	162,418
Silver.....£..	32,736	17,054	19,507	81,872	31,664	34,013	27,162	39,417
Tin, ore and smelted.....(tons).....£..	3,203	3,266	3,053	2,740	2,703	2,429	1,979	2,296
Wool.....(pounds).....£..	290,794	266,056	202,454	167,754	159,038	150,686	141,329	281,947
Bullion and specie:.....£..	8,437,931	8,728,524	9,176,835	7,223,219	8,811,433	8,144,026	7,792,076	8,635,472
Bullion—	329,585	296,442	263,422	202,341	290,971	264,630	254,960	357,757
Gold.....£..	87,426	33,100	52,871	53,511	56,582	58,809	48,913	52,946
Silver.....£..	145,737	127,880	207,053	212,530	223,613	226,288	184,865	201,235
Specie—	.....	424	5,700	11,790	.....	2,575	65,000	46,451
Gold.....£..	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Silver.....£..	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total value of principal and other articles.....£..	1,346,965	1,352,184	1,489,041	1,373,063	1,496,576	1,744,461	1,803,369	2,577,475

<sup>1</sup>Not stated.



## IMPORTS INTO WESTERN AUSTRALIA, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Apothecaries' wares.....£.	19,802	12,975	22,654	84,750	55,557	66,158	51,992	45,469
Apparel and slops.....£.	15,442	20,083	52,482	125,445	202,806	258,125	208,912	465,470
Bacon, hams, and tongues.....pounds..	273,331	855,132	779,669	1,451,711	2,711,240	3,000,627	2,815,397	3,062,589
Beer.....gallons..	9,111	11,871	22,120	87,403	79,625	89,020	88,282	93,796
Bicycles, tricycles, and parts.....£.	55,588	56,439	66,101	508,326	827,538	1,127,955	716,381	446,235
Boots and shoes.....£.	Not separately shown.	2,257	17,490	62,800	115,943	152,393	95,199	60,638
Bran and pollard.....£.	34,719	23,315	37,851	56,148	83,973	101,040	79,764	64,608
Butter.....pounds..	14,135	11,485	10,905	26,044	51,009	46,894	36,719	43,381
Coal.....tons..	697,444	867,562	1,269,474	1,907,913	3,190,509	3,877,423	4,102,312	4,425,820
Coke and patent fuel.....£.	29,059	36,148	50,354	73,999	148,971	188,478	195,467	184,239
Corn, gram, and grain (except rice).....bushels..	25,204	18,815	25,933	38,508	60,710	137,174	132,200	127,472
Drapery and haberdashery.....£.	13,840	15,202	21,782	29,479	39,503	94,938	84,246	95,144
Eggs.....£.	182	288	16	102	497	2,166	8,868	1,968
Fish, fresh and preserved.....£.	342,079	235,677	487,515	956,521	1,205,700	1,149,368	1,071,374	855,128
Flour (excluding meal).....cwt..	49,112	30,394	48,147	136,557	160,800	168,907	146,687	86,472
Hardware and cutlery.....£.	170,638	133,015	141,562	228,148	333,081	361,157	290,955	50,682
Hay and chaff.....£.	1,874	2,122	4,996	11,920	33,389	51,429	52,667	24,838
Iron:.....£.	96,646	3,708	8,866	15,291	36,368	33,965	24,402	219,578
Wire and wire fencing.....£.	48,823	46,120	44,475	63,150	152,694	198,281	157,009	75,576
Galvanized iron.....£.	11,581	8,518	18,405	43,518	111,828	89,720	54,395	31,042
Ironmongery.....£.	3,938	515	7,929	14,573	13,512	11,918	2,582	875
Jewelry.....£.	15,763	2,060	37,745	51,819	73,245	59,020	9,650	3,115
Live stock:.....£.	21,314	12,918	15,882	13,169	16,105	20,793	25,635	23,624
Horses.....number..	55,680	32,560	50,712	43,378	83,835	31,831	147,610	68,558
Horned cattle.....number..	19	93	342	4,940	8,150	12,618	16,423	8,446
Sheep.....number..	224	1,119	3,664	44,659	121,281	82,757	174,550	82,986
Machinery:.....£.	5,415	1,192	5,491	41,828	44,585	115,420	82,746	91,262
Agricultural.....£.	4,091	1,728	4,570	26,400	28,864	104,793	63,954	92,293
Other.....£.	11,519	6,937	7,909	11,831	17,756	26,788	31,863	19,271
Meats, preserved or salted (excluding bacon and hams).....£.	27,358	46,862	82,672	187,235	510,117	292,198	306,063	390,489
Milk, preserved and compounds thereof.....£.	22,337	16,971	42,816	47,100	79,604	56,620	66,945	56,510
Oil, mineral.....gallons..	8,048	9,792	17,639	47,466	47,466	73,799	73,198	59,781
Oilmen's stores.....£.	239,836	208,555	277,968	495,024	853,649	1,058,022	1,153,374	1,892,553
Railway materials, including locomotives.....£.	11,967	10,427	9,726	16,546	31,953	32,747	33,602	50,899
Spirits:.....£.	25,148	22,974	6,654	13,115	31,038	25,662	13,054	12,223
Brandy.....gallons..	82,996	244,988	144,293	180,734	468,074	647,588	382,904	139,867
Whisky.....gallons..	34,393	22,803	24,607	34,260	56,666	53,821	39,309	31,550
Stationery, excluding ink.....£.	17,195	11,402	13,208	19,398	32,162	35,407	23,694	20,204
Sugar (including molasses and treacle).....cwt..	58,362	56,112	72,251	129,451	196,956	212,296	166,917	146,745
Tea.....pounds..	19,453	18,704	28,931	51,121	77,039	85,020	68,200	60,632
Tobacco of all kinds (including cigars, cigarettes, and snuff).....£.	7,731	7,195	12,418	23,235	40,670	45,302	33,754	23,700
Tools (including winches, etc.).....£.	45,193	52,140	69,039	75,738	131,603	147,938	164,363	172,577
Wine.....gallons..	56,491	51,940	57,117	56,564	96,027	108,462	114,985	116,485
Wood and timber.....£.	644,951	548,525	796,097	848,164	1,414,922	1,382,166	1,601,974	1,583,489
Bullion and specie:.....£.	32,247	27,426	41,912	36,440	59,967	56,174	65,417	65,237
Gold.....£.	29,325	24,078	34,317	53,546	93,809	101,626	89,471	86,270
Silver.....£.	8,143	6,072	25,550	31,726	69,180	52,183	29,327	29,762
Specie.....£.	23,626	20,354	28,344	54,363	92,619	89,591	55,897	43,788
Wine.....gallons..	14,806	12,716	19,320	36,604	71,693	54,677	30,082	21,369
Wood and timber.....£.	22,373	12,884	17,248	45,586	141,659	158,732	52,177	43,040
Bullion—Gold.....£.					450	2,200	213	687
Silver.....£.							206	1
Specie—Gold.....£.	10,000	135,000	227,900	908,000	950,370	45,000	135,000	5,000
Silver.....£.	1,300	4,300	11,700	18,400	29,419	20,600	210	
Total value of principal and other articles...£.	1,391,109	1,494,438	2,114,414	3,774,951	6,580,856	6,331,266	5,241,965	4,473,532

## EXPORTS FROM WESTERN AUSTRALIA, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Coal .....	tons..	6,243	8,191	14,857	14,435	23,382	25,827	44,570
Guano .....	tons..	2,508	4,030	2,239	1,680	1,496	3,950	2,046
Hides .....	£.	4,389	7,052	8,919	200	4,506	9,386	5,165
Live stock, camels .....	number..	240	294	103	353	458	9,965	15,681
Pearls .....	£.	40,000	30,000	25,000	20,000	20,000	20,000	20,000
Shells (mother-of-pearl, Dead and Sharks Bay) .....	£.	822	588	629	417	364	619	783
Skins .....	£.	79,259	59,254	37,805	27,298	80,213	40,253	78,784
Wood and timber: .....	£.	36,657	23,975	14,775	18,588	18,111	28,081	44,545
Sandalwood .....	tons..	5,716	3,893	2,785	3,851	6,848	5,852	4,349
Jarrah .....	loads..	42,870	32,180	23,430	30,863	65,800	49,480	81,812
Karri .....	loads..	21,653	10,260	21,274	25,106	80,912	47,866	189,741
Other .....	£.	78,419	33,888	74,804	88,146	116,420	192,451	136,371
Wool .....	pounds..	8,712,080	10,742,348	9,432,876	8,290,806	10,995,659	12,374,881	10,126,306
Bullion and specie: .....	£.	326,703	244,972	232,201	183,510	267,506	296,646	287,781
Bullion— .....								
Gold .....	ounces..	59,548	110,891	207,131	231,513	281,265	674,994	1,050,183
Silver .....	ounces..	226,284	421,885	787,099	879,748	1,068,808	2,564,977	3,990,698
Specie— .....	£.							
Gold .....	£.		20,060		4,500	92	626,080	15,000
Silver .....	£.							
Total value of principal and other articles .....	£.	882,148	918,147	1,251,406	1,332,554	1,650,226	3,940,098	4,960,006

## IMPORTS INTO SOUTH AUSTRALIA, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1893 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Apparel and slops (including moleakin clothing) .....	£.	149,286	142,667	144,603	165,434	144,506	170,493
Bags and sacks (including woolpacks) .....	number..	3,915,337	6,565,793	7,147,815	6,182,669	4,782,876	6,361,716
Beer, porter, ale, etc .....	gallons..	78,229	119,649	112,103	88,663	61,836	70,710
Bicycles, etc. (including parts) .....	£.	291,618	190,731	190,999	296,406	802,410	238,241
Books, printed .....	£.	47,270	29,429	29,504	45,778	47,084	37,611
Boots and shoes .....	£.	Shown.			48,300	87,354	41,641
Butter .....	pounds..	39,304	41,470	49,847	42,983	47,776	42,367
Coal .....	tons..	69,473	66,264	66,227	67,022	69,095	56,478
Coke .....	tons..	482,857	387,778	189,879	660,384	1,105,346	820,829
Cocoa and chocolate .....	£.	20,239	15,321	6,469	29,483	60,726	36,917
Coffee, including coffee mixtures .....	tons..	241,328	255,584	257,005	838,173	381,893	412,408
Cotton piece goods (except velvets, velveteens, and canvas) .....	£.	149,172	153,734	135,090	179,096	202,428	224,359
Cutlery, hardware, and ironmongery .....	£.	67,038	115,706	89,856	67,376	74,021	81,492
Drapery and millinery (including silk piece goods) .....	pounds..	89,358	150,305	106,875	63,120	80,524	85,741
Drugs and chemicals .....	£.	216,133	269,361	249,200	306,279	299,761	363,900
Patent medicines .....	£.	12,637	15,146	13,715	17,806	17,678	20,325
Druggists' wares .....	pounds..	308,293	291,817	306,739	224,229	272,342	242,046
Fancy goods .....	£.	15,326	13,959	15,687	11,716	13,844	10,221
Fish, preserved, dried, etc .....	£.	182,233	239,033	233,699	274,688	211,381	227,089
Fruit, dried .....	£.	32,652	32,776	31,576	39,744	38,650	38,060
Hides and skins .....	£.	207,828	223,005	215,662	250,401	214,200	219,819
Hosiery .....	£.	41,145	45,927	54,149	58,138	53,423	60,137
Gold ore (see also Bullion) .....	tons..	19,810	23,769	21,995	33,296	25,389	27,075
Iron and steel: .....	£.	4,413	5,138	8,026	4,508	4,662	3,856
Iron— .....	£.	81,478	29,624	29,599	35,515	36,760	36,216
Bar, plate, sheet, hoop, and rod .....	tons..	18,580	21,471	23,433	35,642	28,079	29,115
Galvanized, plain and corrugated .....	tons..	20,614	23,410	40,449	27,341	26,932	34,977
Wire, wire netting, and cordage .....	£.	50,624	59,110	61,589	51,773	45,800	52,627
Live stock: .....	£.	49,202	56,855	56,086	63,778	47,753	47,256
Horned cattle .....	number..	563	1,292	934	1,659	14,076	6,813
Sheep .....	£.	11,619	21,997	19,022	58,938	261,397	114,874
Machinery (not agricultural) and engines .....	£.	5,309	4,772	5,077	7,536	6,403	9,920
Machinery and implements, agricultural .....	£.	38,895	35,124	32,641	50,722	45,994	57,600
Oil, kerosene .....	£.	4,755	6,138	4,088	6,998	6,337	6,627
Paper, printing .....	£.	69,536	90,199	57,394	105,495	90,950	100,249
Silver lead, metal .....	£.	60,923	50,913	56,227	81,804	69,904	75,763
Spirits: .....							
Brandy .....	gallons..	15,945	14,446	9,809	17,584	15,215	25,458
Whisky .....	£.	109,762	73,775	51,202	89,705	90,923	111,982
Stationery (excluding ink) .....	number..	140,021	176,544	216,184	49,234	118,438	228,203
Sugar .....	£.	48,991	51,744	46,725	15,429	48,651	78,711
Tea .....	£.	56,647	41,516	44,830	81,088	67,422	70,142
Wine .....	£.	28,099	14,014	11,108	13,860	27,627	40,975
Wool .....	gallons..	1,136,729	1,238,979	1,351,134	1,595,763	1,068,649	1,424,833
Yarn .....	£.	25,002	26,174	35,055	46,434	28,383	33,696
Paper, printing .....	£.	38,635	30,963	33,307	39,085	36,618	34,714
Silver lead, metal .....	tons..	56,826	37,420	24,685	25,401	17,191	3,402
Ore .....	£.	2,011,241	1,850,086	858,661	875,929	597,962	124,337
Spirits: .....	£.	146,672	107,664	132,755	230,608	297,234	409,312
Brandy .....	gallons..	864,228	502,232	397,990	828,703	1,044,239	1,271,329
Whisky .....	£.	32,365	43,132	25,297	24,553	25,964	26,925
Stationery (excluding ink) .....	£.	16,826	25,019	14,764	17,416	17,325	14,715
Sugar .....	gallons..	120,247	120,885	98,220	128,658	112,239	132,985
Tea .....	£.	37,735	44,067	36,615	51,752	42,940	52,861
Wine .....	£.	33,694	31,744	34,184	49,846	41,683	41,224
Wool .....	cwt..	403,666	342,594	373,374	352,756	682,035	411,549
Yarn .....	£.	296,548	256,917	270,727	242,949	440,243	288,698
Total value of principal and other articles .....	pounds..	2,804,787	2,844,843	2,680,563	3,069,980	2,704,305	2,992,582
	£.	85,453	81,297	82,834	90,990	77,907	82,162

## IMPORTS INTO SOUTH AUSTRALIA, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1893 TO 1899—Continued.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Tobacco:							
Manufactured (excluding cigars and snuff).....(pounds..	339,458	324,915	289,697	376,276	320,779	312,177	290,188
£.....	25,701	26,174	22,824	30,975	26,957	28,027	26,896
Cigars.....(pounds..	50,374	35,611	55,973	70,842	66,384	51,236	67,702
£.....	13,401	10,548	15,394	22,421	19,501	16,862	20,613
Unmanufactured.....(pounds..	612,985	438,181	509,521	497,012	355,656	728,522	432,629
£.....	18,695	12,787	14,774	15,940	10,888	23,367	14,597
Tools.....(pounds..	25,124	25,694	28,772	59,538	33,698	32,445	25,911
Wine.....(gallons..	11,242	8,571	12,275	20,005	21,564	14,836	16,018
£.....	6,835	6,804	7,967	14,554	12,348	9,982	9,566
Wood, and timber of all kinds.....(pounds..	166,513	136,987	224,656	185,902	238,416	201,637	211,217
Wool.....(pounds..	18,277,046	18,602,503	12,750,629	20,721,673	12,883,900	8,609,888	13,098,714
£.....	545,207	531,280	378,170	597,778	352,572	256,479	393,443
Woolen and worsted manufacture:							
Blankets, rugs, and carpeting.....£..	19,827	22,979	24,879	33,297	30,284	27,502	26,271
Dress piece goods.....£..	63,757	76,878	71,781	76,371	64,503	68,706	68,703
Woolen and fannel piece goods.....£..	28,921	35,482	31,177	55,681	36,628	36,592	57,433
Tweeds and cloth.....£..	48,120	43,758	44,370	48,966	41,810	37,170	42,656
Bullion and specie:							
Bullion—							
Gold.....(ounces..	8,399	1	11,843	1,004	3,198	75	220
£.....	32,565	4	44,109	3,692	12,491	300	540
Silver.....(ounces..	105	523,068	464,229	25	2,923	328	251
£.....	19	61,506	58,569	4	377	37	31
Specie—							
Gold.....£..	725,063	24	92,000	350,100	2,500	800	150,100
Silver.....£..	3,500	600	600	650	300	8,400	42,112
Total value of principal and other articles.....£..	7,934,200	6,226,690	5,555,601	7,160,770	7,126,385	6,184,805	6,884,358

## EXPORTS FROM SOUTH AUSTRALIA, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Apparel and slops.....£..	59,016	49,685	42,886	49,213	65,630	53,302	48,333	44,682
Bags and sacks.....£..	49,702	20,182	15,380	16,214	34,189	27,012	13,563	20,475
Bark.....(tons..	3,039	3,152	5,132	7,157	7,331	5,704	8,208	8,953
£.....	34,244	28,718	40,632	48,781	51,682	39,665	62,132	69,985
Butter.....(cwt..	5,164	9,321	17,012	17,258	9,028	6,671	10,162	16,671
£.....	29,629	37,304	68,365	77,500	44,592	36,753	48,744	81,083
Coal.....(tons..	21,674	25,786	41,498	31,605	36,854	38,856	38,779	46,819
£.....	17,066	16,731	26,145	21,040	22,096	24,242	24,936	30,883
Coke.....(tons..	46,882	67,780	66,462	45,508	43,161	35,857	5,240	292
£.....	78,990	86,714	68,652	45,638	43,443	34,806	5,264	372
Copper:								
Metal.....(cwt..	53,752	86,658	99,429	103,491	92,292	94,180	95,626	110,162
£.....	133,503	209,536	209,555	226,747	219,464	236,567	245,414	406,850
Ore.....(tons..	10,506	1,263	309	212	348	546	537	2,892
£.....	43,485	5,840	51,017	50,465	3,150	4,640	3,992	24,682
Drapery.....£..	46,796	40,868	22,679	27,275	62,284	51,860	45,431	42,196
Eggs.....£..	27,771	26,575	53,812	57,020	40,353	50,034	55,719	62,493
Flour.....(tons..	59,705	41,399	53,812	57,020	51,210	17,512	22,766	50,084
£.....	599,022	331,698	327,979	398,239	524,594	227,099	285,952	338,964
Grain, wheat.....(quarters..	1931,558	12,773,084	13,782,430	12,116,225	1,273,630	2,183	12,134	389,351
£.....	330,824	737,254	741,920	445,462	89,639	4,325	15,911	422,411
Hay and chaff.....(tons..	6,114	5,458	14,146	37,147	33,207	5,474	8,916	10,695
£.....	23,159	12,456	35,732	102,444	124,239	27,725	24,421	25,833
Live stock (horses, cattle, sheep, and pigs).....(number..	23,106	19,720	84,751	118,517	110,587	32,677	27,629	56,638
£.....	48,947	40,813	53,402	105,109	131,073	70,547	86,518	110,107
Lead, metal.....(tons..	10,036	16,805	20,439	23,969	23,969	20,948	21,900	35,077
£.....	112,122	158,831	183,560	192,244	236,724	219,804	259,730	460,526
Machinery and agricultural implements.....£..	64,917	56,734	54,587	72,293	206,736	172,019	191,345	209,724
Salt (except rock).....(tons..	6,649	7,294	7,958	17,867	19,025	28,911	30,975	35,060
£.....	7,774	9,955	11,811	20,761	25,446	34,961	38,545	44,106
Silver lead:								
Metal.....(tons..	45,603	56,013	39,467	24,738	13,651	16,215	26,680	20,957
£.....	2,129,918	1,995,488	1,323,946	605,262	283,311	509,703	588,927	566,467
Ore.....(tons..	1,048	3,875	7,845	44,133	127,400	178,023	137,369	185,941
£.....	19,293	16,868	38,822	226,403	730,472	1,078,800	955,882	1,173,856
Skins:								
Kangaroo.....£..	52,306	17,638	7,085	15,776	10,439	5,919	2,728	2,671
Sheep.....£..	159,563	169,501	158,485	158,981	163,158	181,041	166,222	210,361
Sugar.....(cwt..	64,364	71,926	80,183	103,185	129,039	119,987	87,955	89,889
£.....	62,817	73,906	81,796	101,679	112,571	96,228	69,680	68,948
Wine.....(gallons..	335,405	267,030	262,420	353,966	402,627	525,689	523,200	507,549
£.....	72,390	51,173	53,605	64,880	81,747	90,281	84,221	83,908
Wool.....(pounds..	63,868,922	68,902,969	62,387,496	68,842,576	65,324,280	47,050,644	41,932,020	48,166,812
£.....	1,954,403	2,001,277	1,742,656	1,880,514	1,790,700	1,309,909	1,167,181	1,889,905
Bullion and specie:								
Bullion—								
Gold.....(ounces..	6,761	11,629	11,252	18,587	8,525	17,892	19,071	16,123
£.....	26,829	45,022	42,700	67,977	31,581	69,134	74,690	63,191
Silver.....(ounces..	2,905,616	6,281,896	7,048,731	7,972,764	7,828,358	7,369,495	5,403,324	4,874,157
£.....	504,597	958,145	893,225	1,025,953	1,022,351	856,384	634,101	584,765
Specie—								
Gold.....£..	101,500	318,234	55,470	47,805	134,700	246,670	466,500	164,400
Silver.....£..	500	4,600	4,500	6,000	4,225	900	2,100	3,565
Total value of principal and other articles.....£..	7,819,539	8,463,936	7,301,774	7,177,038	7,594,054	6,928,415	6,795,774	8,388,396

1 Centals.

## IMPORTS INTO VICTORIA, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1893 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Acids and alkalies.....	£ 53,171	£ 63,096	£ 61,912	£ 75,214	£ 76,744	£ 92,659	£ 94,852
Apparel and slops.....	£ 190,076	£ 158,211	£ 172,982	£ 184,060	£ 170,676	£ 176,538	£ 186,015
Bags and sacks (including wool packs).....	number 6,491,791	number 11,239,849	number 6,066,966	number 5,412,354	number 10,060,939	number 9,109,136	number 14,136,634
Beer, cider, and perry.....	£ 133,623	£ 201,601	£ 112,391	£ 97,637	£ 171,065	£ 145,295	£ 208,731
Bicycles, etc. (including parts).....	£ 497,818	£ 456,364	£ 472,200	£ 595,217	£ 556,433	£ 620,753	£ 620,726
Books, printed.....	£ 88,632	£ 70,547	£ 71,415	£ 93,859	£ 86,368	£ 103,467	£ 102,204
Boots and shoes.....	£ 13,309	£ 27,609	£ 44,005	£ 341,817	£ 319,143	£ 155,901	£ 147,489
Cement.....	£ 144,461	£ 145,298	£ 163,940	£ 151,218	£ 169,063	£ 178,502	£ 205,498
China, earthenware, brownware, and porcelain.....	£ 40,993	£ 37,185	£ 35,473	£ 39,691	£ 33,962	£ 34,422	£ 38,438
Coal (excluding ground coal).....	£ 237,843	£ 65,198	£ 329,805	£ 129,955	£ 71,074	£ 207,773	£ 141,657
Coffee (including essences).....	£ 32,073	£ 5,429	£ 26,239	£ 12,972	£ 8,000	£ 28,123	£ 19,821
Coke and charcoal (excluding ground charcoal).....	£ 44,067	£ 49,773	£ 50,477	£ 61,981	£ 73,011	£ 72,111	£ 72,455
Cotton piece goods.....	£ 602,191	£ 542,037	£ 544,629	£ 502,972	£ 527,374	£ 562,329	£ 552,676
Drugs and chemicals (except acids, alkalies, and opium).....	£ 418,484	£ 195,415	£ 201,047	£ 194,055	£ 228,647	£ 257,688	£ 275,137
Patent medicines.....	£ 885,685	£ 935,312	£ 1,029,613	£ 1,048,501	£ 1,094,621	£ 894,306	£ 1,149,840
Fish, salted and preserved.....	£ 42,215	£ 44,046	£ 48,293	£ 49,669	£ 48,351	£ 33,333	£ 41,018
Flour (excluding corn flour).....	£ 3,754	£ 1,475	£ 3,745	£ 2,212	£ 5,147	£ 1,914	£ 1,809
Fruit (fresh and dried), excluding canned and bottled.....	£ 3,686	£ 1,161	£ 4,946	£ 3,156	£ 7,541	£ 3,221	£ 3,518
Furniture and upholstery.....	£ 673,180	£ 842,940	£ 886,592	£ 929,773	£ 805,247	£ 948,203	£ 813,755
Glass and glassware (excluding bottles).....	£ 62,671	£ 79,365	£ 83,540	£ 99,018	£ 109,909	£ 136,716	£ 122,313
Grain.....	£ 43,763	£ 46,802	£ 38,902	£ 52,269	£ 51,126	£ 50,233	£ 57,134
Grain:.....	£ 3,184,311	£ 2,936,005	£ 3,023,048	£ 4,023,454	£ 4,486,947	£ 5,434,407	£ 4,772,332
Oats.....	£ 62,194	£ 48,220	£ 54,612	£ 78,653	£ 81,020	£ 101,269	£ 86,029
Rice (excluding paddy).....	£ 21,227	£ 27,700	£ 41,699	£ 41,450	£ 29,458	£ 40,976	£ 25,337
Wheat.....	£ 8,360	£ 8,398	£ 15,913	£ 20,334	£ 16,471	£ 19,957	£ 8,301
Haberdashery.....	£ 128,796	£ 103,502	£ 81,140	£ 113,820	£ 116,820	£ 111,799	£ 147,708
Hats, caps, and bonnets.....	£ 12,886	£ 8,073	£ 11,811	£ 17,614	£ 25,442	£ 25,492	£ 32,568
Hides, skins, and pelts.....	£ 36,248	£ 30,854	£ 39,914	£ 53,889	£ 56,180	£ 61,659	£ 67,024
Hosiery and gloves.....	£ 1,938	£ 4,660	£ 11,594	£ 129,022	£ 38,105	£ 2,967	£ 35,015
Iron:.....	£ 604	£ 1,042	£ 3,291	£ 38,480	£ 12,486	£ 8,007	£ 8,000
Bar and rod.....	£ 121,000	£ 137,747	£ 134,798	£ 138,549	£ 156,691	£ 178,798	£ 162,224
Pig.....	£ 56,864	£ 46,036	£ 53,018	£ 66,536	£ 81,187	£ 62,537	£ 62,537
Pipes.....	£ 148,013	£ 239,347	£ 240,062	£ 228,654	£ 565,878	£ 399,922	£ 106,952
Plate.....	£ 36,368	£ 48,384	£ 46,228	£ 78,394	£ 202,292	£ 117,572	£ 20,332
Railway rails, etc.....	£ 220,074	£ 237,034	£ 248,091	£ 265,158	£ 242,503	£ 275,030	£ 273,242
Sheet, galvanized.....	£ 68,115	£ 80,787	£ 85,744	£ 121,621	£ 151,879	£ 141,588	£ 168,746
Wire (excluding netting).....	£ 60,425	£ 59,809	£ 57,247	£ 59,796	£ 56,545	£ 54,215	£ 59,451
Leather and leather ware (exclusive of saddlery and harness).....	£ 4,481,115	£ 5,985,939	£ 3,693,860	£ 3,314,780	£ 3,067,330	£ 3,570,642	£ 3,788,054
Linen piece goods.....	£ 264,947	£ 202,816	£ 213,670	£ 259,277	£ 284,881	£ 262,638	£ 335,899
Live stock:.....	£ 173,596	£ 202,263	£ 192,869	£ 270,561	£ 228,679	£ 231,760	£ 254,722
Horses.....	£ 5,697	£ 5,808	£ 5,795	£ 8,548	£ 10,214	£ 7,623	£ 10,453
Horned cattle.....	£ 38,732	£ 40,760	£ 36,119	£ 54,518	£ 72,905	£ 56,962	£ 82,759
Sheep.....	£ 8,532	£ 4,335	£ 16,449	£ 5,868	£ 16,765	£ 8,475	£ 8,159
Machinery (including steam, portable, and traction engines, and steam boilers).....	£ 26,096	£ 11,380	£ 39,112	£ 17,025	£ 49,296	£ 27,757	£ 29,138
Musical instruments.....	£ 2,938	£ 1,933	£ 2,208	£ 3,646	£ 4,213	£ 3,396	£ 5,181
Oil of all kinds.....	£ 35,659	£ 30,869	£ 32,648	£ 55,003	£ 65,716	£ 51,116	£ 96,239
Oilmen's stores (including pickles and sauces).....	£ 1,731	£ 909	£ 970	£ 3,980	£ 5,308	£ 3,579	£ 4,568
Paper, printing (uncut).....	£ 10,642	£ 5,785	£ 5,998	£ 25,738	£ 35,790	£ 24,125	£ 40,301
Paper, writing (cut and uncut).....	£ 7,644	£ 69,059	£ 5,882	£ 9,918	£ 42,542	£ 89,911	£ 154,794
Silks, and manufactures of.....	£ 9,422	£ 7,984	£ 8,102	£ 11,441	£ 9,859	£ 10,785	£ 10,701
Spirits of all kinds.....	£ 143,482	£ 106,987	£ 107,537	£ 162,716	£ 153,505	£ 174,440	£ 191,543
Stationery (exclusive of writing paper and ink).....	£ 7,458	£ 8,541	£ 8,590	£ 10,932	£ 9,578	£ 13,169	£ 12,321
Sugar of all kinds, including glucose and molasses.....	£ 68,448	£ 67,017	£ 63,466	£ 84,359	£ 81,717	£ 110,630	£ 106,647
Tea.....	£ 106,126	£ 111,253	£ 91,250	£ 125,025	£ 106,095	£ 115,862	£ 141,568
Timber and wood.....	£ 26,614	£ 23,309	£ 22,081	£ 27,022	£ 34,396	£ 37,391	£ 33,747
Tobacco, cigars, cigarettes, and snuff.....	£ 2,030	£ 2,276	£ 2,689	£ 5,781	£ 7,254	£ 5,995	£ 8,233
Tools (except machine tools) and utensils.....	£ 101,025	£ 82,580	£ 73,669	£ 105,554	£ 141,583	£ 155,945	£ 181,919
Wine of all kinds.....	£ 43,783	£ 38,641	£ 34,925	£ 36,224	£ 36,154	£ 44,824	£ 29,082
Woolens and woolen piece goods.....	£ 160,935	£ 115,427	£ 100,582	£ 151,984	£ 145,328	£ 237,458	£ 144,238
Wool.....	£ 581,426	£ 761,965	£ 697,870	£ 603,625	£ 685,642	£ 925,344	£ 1,045,185
Yarn.....	£ 213,212	£ 232,067	£ 184,661	£ 202,021	£ 237,898	£ 332,628	£ 439,530
Machinery (including steam, portable, and traction engines, and steam boilers).....	£ 125,200	£ 94,466	£ 105,133	£ 174,533	£ 210,518	£ 200,899	£ 244,696
Musical instruments.....	£ 31,000	£ 23,256	£ 40,013	£ 50,322	£ 61,284	£ 69,600	£ 92,096
Oil of all kinds.....	£ 3,639,439	£ 4,847,409	£ 4,730,483	£ 4,291,171	£ 5,484,410	£ 6,409,653	£ 5,439,278
Oilmen's stores (including pickles and sauces).....	£ 161,644	£ 159,153	£ 155,090	£ 189,577	£ 234,504	£ 239,593	£ 245,152
Paper, printing (uncut).....	£ 33,778	£ 39,028	£ 33,683	£ 32,990	£ 42,188	£ 56,360	£ 44,921
Paper, writing (cut and uncut).....	£ 143,269	£ 138,970	£ 143,722	£ 164,098	£ 202,772	£ 181,219	£ 202,536
Plated ware.....	£ 145,627	£ 127,944	£ 124,561	£ 132,958	£ 156,068	£ 130,079	£ 137,883
Silks, and manufactures of.....	£ 38,061	£ 45,081	£ 38,602	£ 51,678	£ 56,458	£ 44,299	£ 47,781
Spirits of all kinds.....	£ 24,582	£ 20,065	£ 23,525	£ 34,200	£ 38,307	£ 39,286	£ 39,811
Stationery (exclusive of writing paper and ink).....	£ 181,142	£ 168,951	£ 214,452	£ 282,757	£ 305,363	£ 347,633	£ 331,637
Sugar of all kinds, including glucose and molasses.....	£ 448,620	£ 609,780	£ 615,965	£ 847,758	£ 786,456	£ 766,974	£ 787,046
Tea.....	£ 146,593	£ 185,286	£ 186,672	£ 269,233	£ 247,896	£ 266,606	£ 263,017
Timber and wood.....	£ 44,626	£ 43,471	£ 41,507	£ 45,296	£ 44,240	£ 40,645	£ 44,451
Tobacco, cigars, cigarettes, and snuff.....	£ 939,459	£ 1,140,012	£ 1,183,326	£ 1,295,427	£ 1,387,714	£ 1,185,781	£ 1,170,011
Tools (except machine tools) and utensils.....	£ 619,830	£ 744,246	£ 647,984	£ 787,309	£ 785,718	£ 668,693	£ 683,718
Wine of all kinds.....	£ 14,202,685	£ 13,035,379	£ 12,302,391	£ 10,967,150	£ 10,616,542	£ 11,752,446	£ 12,701,329
Wool.....	£ 412,274	£ 313,738	£ 311,312	£ 283,903	£ 273,338	£ 300,940	£ 335,912
Woolens and woolen piece goods.....	£ 154,066	£ 150,536	£ 174,146	£ 233,525	£ 252,015	£ 314,027	£ 441,298
Yarn.....	£ 2,326,091	£ 2,558,571	£ 2,888,604	£ 3,397,317	£ 2,612,070	£ 3,190,182	£ 3,302,970
Acids and alkalies.....	£ 187,141	£ 183,998	£ 195,888	£ 251,047	£ 203,080	£ 222,128	£ 226,554
Apparel and slops.....	£ 28,746	£ 31,036	£ 30,813	£ 42,748	£ 52,581	£ 51,811	£ 52,945
Bags and sacks (including wool packs).....	£ 39,470	£ 46,983	£ 45,385	£ 70,012	£ 59,260	£ 58,324	£ 65,466
Beer, cider, and perry.....	£ 30,127	£ 32,784	£ 31,669	£ 56,157	£ 44,267	£ 50,990	£ 41,871
Bicycles, etc. (including parts).....	£ 87,293,547	£ 93,435,554	£ 86,703,713	£ 82,833,716	£ 70,894,399	£ 65,626,395	£ 63,067,135
Books, printed.....	£ 2,552,933	£ 2,517,437	£ 2,368,087	£ 2,270,496	£ 1,964,731	£ 1,808,492	£ 2,351,059
Boots and shoes.....	£ 469,064	£ 486,918	£ 528,323	£ 667,695	£ 665,689	£ 660,614	£ 674,015
Cement.....	£ 233,338	£ 326,946	£ 361,725	£ 375,816	£ 531,029	£ 664,551	£ 661,756
China, earthenware, brownware, and porcelain.....	£ 893,805	£ 1,270,544	£ 1,419,063	£ 1,474,121	£ 2,081,961	£ 2,617,434	£ 2,625,525
Coal (excluding ground coal).....	£ 60	£ 550	£ 575	£ 575	£ 4,011	£ 10,029	£ 16,569
Coffee (including essences).....	£ 10	£ 79	£ 88	£ 88	£ 492	£ 1,347	£ 2,232
Coke and charcoal (excluding ground charcoal).....	£ 1,155,200	£ 17,400	£ 2,500	£ 3,230	£ 11,093	£ 7,559	£ 180,350
Cotton piece goods.....	£ 1,061	£ 5,405	£ 4,310	£ 19,634	£ 13,553	£ 68,848	£ 60,849
Drugs and chemicals (except acids, alkalies, and opium).....	£ 13,283,814	£ 12,470,599	£ 12,472,344	£ 14,551,837	£ 15,454,482	£ 16,768,904	£ 17,952,894
Patent medicines.....	£ 13,283,814	£ 12,470,599	£ 12,472,344	£ 14,551,837	£ 15,454,482	£ 16,768,904	£ 17,952,894
Fish, salted and preserved.....	£ 13,283,814	£ 12,470,599	£ 12,472,344	£ 14,551,837	£ 15,454,482	£ 16,768,904	£ 17,952,894
Flour (excluding corn flour).....	£ 13,283,814	£ 12,470,599	£ 12,472,344	£ 14,551,837	£ 15,454,482	£ 16,768,904	£ 17,952,894
Fruit (fresh and dried), excluding canned and bottled.....	£ 13,283,814	£ 12,470,599	£ 12,472,344	£ 14,551,837	£ 15,454,482	£ 16,768,904	£ 17,952,894
Furniture and upholstery.....	£ 13,283,814	£ 12,470,599	£ 12,472,344	£ 14,551,837	£ 15,454,482	£ 16,768,904	£ 17,952,894
Glass and glassware (excluding bottles).....	£ 13,283,814	£ 12,470,599	£ 12,472,344	£ 14,551,837	£ 15,454,482	£ 16,768,904	£ 17,952,894
Grain.....	£ 13,283,814	£ 12,470,599	£ 12,472,344	£ 14,551,837	£ 15,454,482	£ 16,768,904	£ 17,952,894
Grain:.....	£ 13,283,814	£ 12,470,599	£ 12,472,344	£ 14,551,837	£ 15,454,482	£ 16,768,904	£ 17,952,894
Oats.....	£ 13,283,814	£ 12,470,599	£ 12,472,344	£ 14,551,837	£ 15,454,482	£ 16,768,904	£ 17,952,894
Rice (excluding paddy).....	£ 13,283,814	£ 12,470,599	£ 12,472,344	£ 14,551,837	£ 15,454,482	£ 16,768,904	£ 17,952,894
Wheat.....	£ 13,283,814	£ 12,470,599	£ 12,472,344	£ 14,551,837	£ 15,454,482	£ 16,768,904	£ 17,952,

## EXPORTS FROM VICTORIA, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Apparel and slope .....	£ 109,733	87,335	85,622	105,592	151,127	164,285	136,776	149,800
Bark .....	(tons.. 4,027	8,288	8,161	8,808	2,359	2,952	2,620	3,097
Bicycles, etc. (including parts) .....	£ 88,888	27,627	22,241	23,069	17,046	17,698	17,478	22,722
Books, printed .....	£ 2,544	4,240	15,103	23,049	65,360	114,283	123,580	92,245
Boots and shoes .....	£ 67,971	61,745	66,604	72,790	80,385	74,950	73,905	89,023
Butter .....	(cwt.. 26,339	19,295	18,706	23,560	44,664	53,633	47,646	51,929
Coal .....	£ 355,941	573,932	898,379	978,687	874,710	886,012	736,325	1,404,830
Coke and charcoal .....	(tons.. 517	445	488	159	314	279	405	438
Drugs and chemicals (except acids and alkalies) .....	£ 517	423	311	120	354	396	355	339
Flour and biscuits .....	(tons.. 483	449	190	207	290	1,198	558	423
Fruit of all kinds (including pulp) .....	£ 1,524	1,458	297	412	610	3,138	1,407	1,662
Grain: .....	£ 28,690	20,723	26,775	29,457	29,130	34,544	46,858	59,158
Oats .....	(tons.. 44,570	38,000	41,490	26,376	3,696	1,475	14,445	32,855
Wheat .....	£ 510,198	350,496	300,314	226,190	78,401	51,518	178,474	280,527
Hay, straw, and chaff .....	£ 37,308	43,559	39,838	55,823	73,842	97,448	90,184	100,037
Hides .....	(number.. 1,670	6,002	4,095	7,296	1,439	5,044	10,789	8,312
Leather (unmanufactured) .....	£ 10,771	35,386	19,857	31,678	10,141	27,429	57,860	38,230
Live stock .....	(tons.. 99,078	124,017	149,296	92,684	10,778	24,563	48,497	243,452
Machinery .....	£ 776,278	717,087	660,718	403,780	91,605	225,957	323,987	1,252,131
Malt .....	(bushels.. 40,748	44,958	33,751	32,122	24,771	46,949	44,442	107,647
Meats, frozen: .....	£ 149,292	123,432	93,885	96,289	107,346	193,833	124,719	257,526
Beef, mutton, and pork .....	(pounds.. 30,192	19,759	23,724	30,325	20,261	48,853	49,869	16,968
Rabbits and hares .....	£ 17,260	11,518	14,596	21,225	13,613	20,414	29,176	13,135
Preserved (except salted and potted) .....	£ 257,684	215,240	219,013	280,103	313,135	355,209	299,741	314,283
Potatoes .....	(number.. 180,687	94,068	156,278	200,062	192,990	234,132	163,262	277,118
Rice .....	£ 443,534	271,421	281,481	293,638	337,180	329,584	259,950	352,137
Skins .....	£ 106,330	92,279	97,325	127,416	240,179	250,630	218,559	327,133
Soap .....	(bushels.. 137,899	118,510	67,708	130,440	81,323	73,103	64,321	17,734
Spirits of all kinds .....	£ 34,429	32,637	20,581	37,166	23,913	18,566	18,867	4,765
Sugar of all kinds, including glucose and molasses .....	(pounds.. 1,179,360	5,403,104	11,192,200	17,799,900	19,200,300	14,404,400	13,408,900	25,487,800
Tallow .....	£ 12,403	74,866	126,945	193,981	179,040	130,193	121,117	252,021
Tea .....	(pairs.. 2,081,070	842,171	2,509,985	3,145,943	5,013,689	6,014,442	3,324,016	5,060,016
Tobacco of all kinds (including snuff) .....	£ 54,211	16,129	44,886	47,737	81,473	95,015	47,412	56,202
Wine .....	(tons.. 11,246	11,681	8,416	14,631	12,582	21,621	4,921	11,066
Wool .....	£ 33,525	37,859	22,957	24,991	40,107	63,650	34,554	31,174
Woolen piece goods .....	(centals.. 14,727	11,962	17,386	13,659	18,431	19,031	25,461	24,842
Woolen waste .....	£ 11,258	8,709	11,331	8,344	10,981	11,153	17,845	14,679
Yarn .....	(number.. 9,619,473	13,523,877	13,059,921	12,332,586	10,468,202	12,472,817	11,339,948	15,131,987
Butter .....	£ 289,792	380,255	253,129	284,712	294,961	332,813	343,878	492,032
Coal .....	(pounds.. 769,422	648,228	565,394	544,101	730,501	665,628	967,791	633,709
Coke and charcoal .....	£ 14,226	14,727	13,735	14,119	16,705	15,162	16,566	14,548
Drugs and chemicals (except acids and alkalies) .....	(gallons.. 218,931	216,300	201,899	210,423	191,173	226,523	202,040	186,286
Flour and biscuits .....	£ 85,581	83,200	75,839	77,890	75,283	84,274	81,167	76,948
Fruit of all kinds (including pulp) .....	(cwt.. 129,783	119,075	149,922	88,894	141,108	167,986	184,359	167,628
Grain: .....	£ 121,335	110,971	138,070	82,455	134,000	159,366	149,147	153,722
Hay, straw, and chaff .....	(tons.. 8,183	11,009	13,712	12,528	10,127	9,086	4,926	7,362
Hides .....	£ 163,685	228,092	281,979	240,904	180,855	162,585	94,508	141,334
Leather (unmanufactured) .....	(pounds.. 7,627,289	6,026,341	6,825,739	5,570,604	4,359,227	4,162,096	3,994,425	4,067,923
Live stock .....	£ 364,774	265,107	271,346	228,676	179,712	155,896	160,873	160,929
Machinery .....	£ 105,592	72,234	75,768	73,521	103,093	84,692	86,723	84,649
Malt .....	(gallons.. 273,253	359,879	270,004	363,171	388,909	349,738	238,931	362,906
Meats, frozen: .....	£ 63,235	70,680	57,446	72,928	75,129	64,543	45,569	57,492
Beef, mutton, and pork .....	(pounds.. 165,591,377	150,892,425	154,286,170	163,779,290	146,516,567	123,572,693	131,850,560	121,877,604
Rabbits and hares .....	£ 6,619,141	5,103,907	4,742,522	5,151,153	4,959,404	3,999,813	4,036,968	5,701,410
Preserved (except salted and potted) .....	£ 38,928	29,683	26,925	45,540	39,303	47,349	35,312	49,627
Potatoes .....	(founces.. 1,200	22,074	8,813	30,753	15,546	48,767	67,801	47,873
Rice .....	£ 4,560	96,992	35,798	122,501	64,605	193,811	271,048	197,642
Skins .....	(founces.. 25,232	39,667	10,515	37,684	2,102	957	296	1,924
Soap .....	£ 4,330	5,933	1,311	4,853	342	118	41	270
Spirits of all kinds .....	£ 1,844,388	2,755,187	3,682,877	3,628,236	3,234,307	6,278,507	5,650,727	4,164,222
Sugar of all kinds, including glucose and molasses .....	£ 11,242	11,381	15,218	8,372	10,637	2,321	24,460	28,900
Tallow .....	£ 14,214,546	18,308,551	14,026,546	14,547,732	14,198,518	16,739,670	15,872,246	18,567,780
Tea .....	£ 105,592	72,234	75,768	73,521	103,093	84,692	86,723	84,649
Tobacco of all kinds (including snuff) .....	(gallons.. 273,253	359,879	270,004	363,171	388,909	349,738	238,931	362,906
Wine .....	£ 63,235	70,680	57,446	72,928	75,129	64,543	45,569	57,492
Wool .....	(pounds.. 165,591,377	150,892,425	154,286,170	163,779,290	146,516,567	123,572,693	131,850,560	121,877,604
Woolen piece goods .....	£ 6,619,141	5,103,907	4,742,522	5,151,153	4,959,404	3,999,813	4,036,968	5,701,410
Woolen waste .....	£ 38,928	29,683	26,925	45,540	39,303	47,349	35,312	49,627
Yarn .....	(number.. 9,619,473	13,523,877	13,059,921	12,332,586	10,468,202	12,472,817	11,339,948	15,131,987
Total value of principal and other articles .....	£ 14,214,546	18,308,551	14,026,546	14,547,732	14,198,518	16,739,670	15,872,246	18,567,780

## IMPORTS INTO NEW SOUTH WALES, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Agricultural implements.....£	66,740	75,162	40,098	35,124	70,975	96,574	124,863	94,928
Apparel and slaps (including hats and caps).....£	1,330,371	893,354	905,789	1,001,099	1,071,242	1,135,774	1,077,198	1,186,398
Bags and sacks (including woolpacks).....£	139,911	148,515	186,496	148,913	174,560	178,451	221,463	272,777
Beer and ale.....gallons.	2,254,815	2,010,445	1,781,866	1,767,205	1,781,836	1,965,417	1,687,901	1,706,771
Bicycles and tricycles (including parts).....£	318,636	283,730	260,126	234,120	260,664	291,042	249,876	272,535
Blankets.....£	11,737	13,724	17,169	35,022	205,499	236,003	126,138	98,123
Books and periodicals.....£	63,888	42,780	31,458	41,092	47,223	55,465	49,564	56,816
Boots and shoes.....£	165,534	125,560	129,750	123,321	138,904	145,878	151,323	129,264
Candles.....pounds.	455,767	356,280	284,984	297,763	381,233	393,579	316,650	348,295
Carpets and druggeting.....£	3,692,294	2,124,912	2,220,013	2,390,319	3,331,172	2,949,116	3,102,228	3,498,401
Cement.....barrels.	74,366	41,719	44,075	43,419	50,810	51,112	53,837	67,469
Coal.....tons.	51,281	33,192	25,620	38,611	38,957	40,458	39,489	37,948
Coke.....£	292,132	127,691	145,662	162,621	126,242	184,831	183,651	247,393
Copper ore.....£	113,474	66,055	72,223	66,152	47,865	80,642	83,716	124,449
Copper, ingots.....£	711	458	371	373	795	1,727	656	2,415
Copper, ingots.....£	515	373	245	374	974	1,213	597	1,304
Coke.....£	61,832	61,874	47,586	42,526	43,134	32,451	4,000	426
Copper ore.....£	171,401	64,595	36,684	26,832	133,107	102,396	12,347	604
Copper, ingots.....£	101,971	18,064	6,507	4,124	2,595	18,488	8,049	69,300
Copper, ingots.....£	10	91	248	213	5	6	3	43
Copper, ingots.....£	372	3,214	10,096	217	317	200	2	2,312
Drapery and millinery (including furs).....£	2,036,111	1,655,437	1,569,166	1,880,283	2,009,289	1,655,644	1,796,861	1,884,176
Drugs and apothecaries' ware.....£	171,273	123,658	128,051	138,572	166,696	200,336	176,250	184,768
Earthenware and china.....£	99,357	77,385	69,892	57,499	68,294	111,140	98,678	95,662
Fish, dried and preserved.....£	3,711,687	3,198,414	2,614,130	3,005,312	4,757,989	6,134,420	6,660,143	8,843,994
Flour.....£	82,528	72,725	58,303	68,128	98,621	126,407	132,458	167,412
Flour.....£	48,807	26,814	33,133	19,278	56,292	55,994	45,926	35,515
Fruit, dried and green (including dates).....£	509,785	223,883	214,253	144,666	536,460	624,208	214,464	335,515
Furniture.....£	321,110	227,793	213,773	230,683	343,315	359,191	299,493	361,101
Gloves.....£	101,806	49,041	30,245	34,603	61,208	72,119	82,436	101,452
Grain.....£	102,413	64,137	71,393	81,062	90,592	80,638	81,654	80,855
Oats.....bushels.	1,369,779	1,322,254	714,856	816,045	988,880	829,303	915,456	1,003,822
Rice.....£	148,566	158,900	71,012	73,987	105,956	83,740	101,800	167,162
Wheat.....£	6,486	6,148	6,203	6,090	6,526	7,341	7,328	8,279
Wheat.....bushels.	80,051	72,751	67,745	64,254	67,972	73,846	94,467	94,427
Hardware, hollow ware, and ironmongery.....£	931,402	471,788	256,550	359,152	2,502,478	900,935	523,762	1,109,475
Hay and chaff.....£	189,513	75,323	28,351	58,357	559,205	190,483	87,556	151,268
Hides and skins.....£	634,689	349,746	178,407	201,494	261,190	302,495	282,560	349,535
Iron and steel, galvanized and other (excluding railway plant).....£	67,336	47,761	37,976	57,773	52,523	46,160	61,956	133,581
Live stock.....£	246,605	168,408	108,999	186,546	238,819	213,666	205,794	383,669
Cattle.....£	185,178	179,588	167,302	280,517	325,199	321,719	337,803	673,207
Horses.....£	1,078,822	597,201	575,458	576,478	779,441	879,197	835,180	1,136,576
Sheep.....£	146,368	209,248	148,974	91,296	268,428	155,111	196,101	172,016
Machinery (including parts).....£	531,126	538,117	329,696	278,436	564,588	454,671	637,605	586,183
Malt.....£	7,195	5,603	5,171	4,222	6,918	7,885	5,138	5,052
Milk, condensed.....£	163,695	114,077	90,437	83,937	82,990	114,264	103,509	102,049
Musical instruments (including parts).....£	520,660	1,017,253	530,664	420,374	1,010,176	1,171,794	700,718	438,111
Oil, kerosene.....gallons.	232,224	307,159	206,077	156,609	317,909	327,390	227,329	236,231
Paper, printing, brown, wrapping, and writing.....£	308,911	222,841	190,905	227,354	477,154	517,948	598,708	656,975
Potatoes.....£	369,774	315,509	306,730	341,749	354,330	393,409	448,172	448,930
Railway rails.....£	100,998	90,894	84,820	86,871	89,667	106,249	124,534	130,147
Silk manufactures.....£	70,629	57,468	48,294	59,451	599,997	63,429	71,058	80,594
Spirits.....£	94,565	51,534	44,724	47,172	82,850	110,680	90,872	129,291
Brandy.....gallons.	1,886,902	2,345,580	2,362,415	2,569,672	2,520,044	2,913,419	3,625,882	4,580,201
Rum.....gallons.	58,304	64,134	64,157	79,225	87,675	112,738	112,738	176,651
Gin and Geneva.....gallons.	217,654	210,871	186,515	182,215	183,099	229,602	215,331	257,162
Whisky.....gallons.	58,316	36,181	33,246	50,175	52,779	59,075	32,344	68,936
Stationery (excluding writing paper).....£	172,675	150,043	96,421	114,989	190,304	191,968	216,353	218,444
Sugar, unrefined.....£	88,486	70,887	63,493	91,243	95,123	97,871	100,420	136,354
Tea.....pounds.	224,498	164,194	163,983	148,920	157,629	173,901	206,205	172,071
Tin, ingots and ore.....£	114,418	86,637	76,741	84,218	88,396	103,049	103,049	93,390
Tobacco.....£	207,755	216,476	215,316	161,418	198,548	216,602	161,368	150,519
Manufactured (excluding snuff).....pounds.	38,429	33,427	29,867	22,125	26,695	29,204	21,091	21,400
Unmanufactured.....pounds.	205,583	215,911	172,364	183,973	199,883	181,520	187,425	223,399
Cigars.....pounds.	53,716	56,588	34,872	48,620	50,474	51,025	51,285	62,909
Wine.....gallons.	505,409	499,787	477,081	514,262	494,351	514,355	612,931	616,016
Stationery (excluding writing paper).....£	194,439	187,430	177,577	180,523	179,447	191,951	231,993	288,258
Sugar, unrefined.....£	136,972	113,051	101,808	93,795	125,497	143,596	145,136	156,396
Sugar, unrefined.....£	33,595	35,596	46,253	36,284	38,352	39,806	61,094	61,045
Tea.....pounds.	515,756	534,471	657,445	482,288	528,920	542,377	765,268	743,170
Tin, ingots and ore.....£	12,687,819	11,224,783	12,097,127	12,591,422	10,074,903	12,192,603	12,085,965	13,006,616
Tobacco.....£	430,444	345,081	367,162	361,699	288,184	345,609	344,693	430,894
Tobacco.....£	237,245	210,840	178,648	108,736	87,078	61,929	50,782	131,710
Manufactured (excluding snuff).....pounds.	1,427,852	1,300,090	1,420,597	1,243,220	1,530,224	1,618,325	1,459,486	1,297,468
Unmanufactured.....pounds.	98,214	84,502	76,441	82,988	102,448	108,680	105,045	88,371
Cigars.....pounds.	858,948	890,323	484,090	597,184	1,034,250	912,141	1,315,498	1,754,328
Wine.....gallons.	25,996	14,097	16,535	21,130	30,501	28,436	41,021	64,862
Wood and timber:.....£	369,387	239,982	207,444	259,598	306,270	353,912	298,763	268,293
Timber, dressed and undressed.....£	97,807	63,788	46,443	59,522	69,958	92,289	77,476	77,779
Other (including manufactures). See also furniture.....£	149,014	98,159	91,613	84,458	94,466	97,416	96,601	103,567
Wool.....pounds.	85,156	53,395	47,370	48,400	61,171	62,523	59,668	67,235
Woolen manufactures. See also blankets and carpeting, etc.....£	67,662,793	61,608,017	56,445,471	54,690,878	59,278,430	75,989,299	73,397,335	82,956,235
Bullion:.....£	412,748	275,527	284,790	275,527	316,323	394,320	367,704	429,858
Gold (dust and bar).....pounds.	26,447	15,212	25,059	38,833	37,839	52,023	54,297	51,796
Silver.....pounds.	15,628,621	26,215,259	22,406,329	32,547,101	34,500,851	27,289,203	31,891,164	34,685,700
Woolen manufactures. See also blankets and carpeting, etc.....£	502,769	803,422	587,923	968,348	1,086,967	892,581	1,088,888	1,589,044
Gold (dust and bar).....pounds.	661,287	677,188	709,996	541,569	528,381	571,186	528,171	668,282
Silver.....pounds.	2,467,018	2,606,773	2,626,696	2,010,239	1,988,614	2,041,646	1,913,267	2,453,027
Specie:.....£	4,604	325	13,354	19,184	132,973	17,237	8,600	43,266
Gold.....£	800	60	1,670	2,411	16,629	8,112	996	4,938
Silver.....£	118,151	1,501,711	298,758	55,845	481,420	1,149,819	3,664,796	702,160
Silver.....£	37,540	35,629	10,000	21,894	9,800	26,326	57,202	70,837
Total value of principal and other articles.....£	20,776,526	18,107,035	15,801,941	15,992,415	20,561,510	21,744,350	24,453,560	25,594,315



## EXPORTS FROM NEW SOUTH WALES, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1893 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Books and periodicals.....	£. 28,687	21,513	30,788	37,262	30,990	38,029	33,915
Boots and shoes.....	£. 24,503	21,517	35,007	54,248	42,721	33,799	48,741
Butter.....	{pounds.. 3,177,911	4,596,430	2,147,650	2,707,088	6,655,761	9,127,181	7,987,664
.....	{£. 125,458	150,365	62,899	108,435	264,096	385,030	347,262
Coal.....	{tons.. 1,835,090	2,125,125	2,106,230	2,474,907	2,696,023	2,791,796	2,798,523
.....	{£. 814,929	804,769	773,954	900,264	952,051	962,668	1,005,794
Coke.....	{tons.. 6,332	11,671	8,807	5,434	31,714	30,791	43,018
.....	{£. 5,875	10,666	8,525	4,523	27,045	25,066	36,396
Copper, refined.....	{cwt.. 38,860	38,631	57,403	79,247	81,706	104,037	108,902
.....	{£. 82,689	74,639	123,946	180,938	192,976	257,143	387,340
Drapery and apparel.....	£. 191,897	183,615	233,442	294,719	252,425	310,355	415,917
Flour (not including corn flour).....	{tons.. 1,784	1,662	1,903	22,802	34,136	26,688	16,587
.....	{£. 16,987	12,894	16,250	243,187	412,796	273,049	118,984
Fruit, green.....	£. 149,631	120,126	81,227	129,691	110,509	149,210	115,061
Grain:							
Maize.....	{bushels.. 12,270	11,733	42,296	62,388	107,224	215,977	247,051
.....	{£. 2,323	1,125	5,460	6,574	12,694	30,288	36,664
Wheat.....	{bushels.. 14,750	6,045	1,870	588,555	1,379,933	1,338,960	450,012
.....	{£. 2,518	774	311	116,479	305,302	241,949	57,353
Hardware, hollow ware, and ironmongery.....	£. 42,491	35,668	31,985	50,771	54,331	181,945	156,520
Hides and skins.....	£. 808,182	565,331	924,466	638,399	772,584	840,533	1,035,965
Leather, unmanufactured.....	£. 206,041	241,848	294,708	333,961	304,179	340,400	439,429
Live stock:							
Horses.....	{number.. 3,562	4,606	5,219	8,212	8,819	7,880	11,396
.....	{£. 167,500	96,660	97,460	127,083	169,069	173,188	213,092
Cattle.....	{number.. 60,567	43,277	41,555	45,720	59,603	56,610	26,771
.....	{£. 247,118	143,746	131,909	222,697	255,711	297,429	138,757
Sheep.....	{number.. 933,012	905,783	999,773	744,578	1,022,295	1,311,880	1,200,331
.....	{£. 288,254	305,698	299,154	258,952	411,354	509,005	519,546
Machinery (including parts).....	£. 88,971	75,637	95,385	110,308	142,469	211,391	230,628
Meat:							
Preserved (not salted).....	£. 171,871	219,680	314,153	262,280	186,044	270,794	255,974
Frozen.....	{cwt.. 220,584	339,404	608,441	642,566	504,372	540,114	460,145
.....	{£. 141,610	193,760	380,651	243,680	276,647	331,046	332,961
Shale (kerosene).....	{tons.. 27,745	18,859	34,549	14,220	21,930	13,845	9,147
.....	{£. 79,919	49,187	77,934	32,846	44,511	27,197	19,355
Silver:							
Lead.....	{cwt.. 1,169,803	850,292	593,747	391,664	362,107	202,173	405,150
.....	{£. 2,019,997	1,543,213	959,736	794,867	645,477	321,136	404,728
Ore (silver and silver lead).....	{cwt.. 3,148,204	2,818,906	3,822,009	5,600,865	5,429,280	7,796,404	8,514,179
.....	{£. 908,991	683,264	613,797	1,089,585	1,041,105	1,330,991	1,580,236
Sugar:							
Refined.....	{cwt.. 62	129	269	264	189	226	152
.....	{£. 83	176	346	345	234	275	165
Unrefined.....	{cwt.. 226,970	145,949	103,357	91,723	106,601	345,370	400,462
.....	{£. 197,888	138,839	78,497	72,621	80,027	217,847	239,732
Tallow.....	{cwt.. 805,271	1,102,393	1,127,245	583,704	615,952	637,574	455,317
.....	{£. 905,394	1,146,528	1,102,145	509,666	504,227	495,918	510,861
Tea.....	{pounds.. 1,238,428	1,497,368	2,123,886	2,296,202	2,598,405	2,643,035	2,663,756
.....	{£. 51,574	54,179	77,737	75,853	83,405	89,610	96,529
Timber, rough.....	{feet.. 8,242,291	7,188,858	11,315,703	11,542,826	13,036,521	15,800,941	18,657,105
.....	{£. 43,163	32,419	50,810	56,036	66,095	87,111	101,777
Tin, ingots.....	{cwt.. 79,218	73,805	62,611	52,084	36,163	27,238	30,925
.....	{£. 330,350	255,345	194,082	152,719	111,269	96,385	221,747
Tin ore.....	{cwt.. 2,961	4,217	1,576	1,939	282	24	146
.....	{£. 6,604	8,567	2,591	2,905	560	35	445
Tobacco of all kinds (including snuff).....	{pounds.. 602,942	697,621	598,075	756,872	810,880	803,936	867,752
.....	{£. 46,322	44,945	53,323	70,537	76,312	85,543	92,223
Wool.....	{pounds.. 344,982,876	354,165,446	329,992,075	306,824,358	285,797,725	280,948,406	240,019,494
.....	{£. 10,449,911	9,628,123	9,976,044	9,897,382	8,920,285	9,457,535	11,738,607
Bullion:							
Gold (dust and bar).....	{ounces.. 6,717	91,583	120,812	82,817	105,921	106,943	254,286
.....	{£. 25,885	332,691	434,997	283,504	408,738	404,585	922,931
Silver.....	{ounces.. 647,041	921,931	739,647	333,207	210,063	549,143	692,491
.....	{£. 95,131	103,055	91,662	42,767	23,350	61,178	76,963
Specie:							
Gold.....	£. 2,969,892	1,975,573	2,710,560	3,602,986	4,346,647	6,529,060	3,469,286
Silver.....	£. 9,166	12,764	7,666	13,290	19,909	29,872	62,495
Total value of principal and other articles.....	22,921,223	20,577,673	21,934,785	23,010,349	23,751,072	27,648,117	28,445,466

## IMPORTS INTO CEYLON, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Casks, shooks, and staves.....£.	49,501	43,026	19,556	41,616	20,099	43,576	38,890	31,899
Coal and coke.....(tons..£.	812,757	291,901	325,497	326,298	878,460	414,913	419,975	511,698
Cotton manufactures.....£.	343,992	332,422	861,215	324,026	462,230	538,874	605,082	759,656
Cotton twist.....(packages..£.	889,084	287,835	275,489	815,836	844,934	416,846	443,456	453,578
Cutlery and hardware.....£.	219	1,618	2,107	1,827	1,771	1,753	1,806	1,579
Curry stuffs.....(cwt..£.	8,829	6,946	8,690	8,135	8,435	9,501	9,706	8,643
Fish, salted and dried.....(cwt..£.	28,508	26,209	24,576	34,293	41,417	82,925	87,345	89,632
Government stores.....£.	116,249	94,621	124,700	111,912	115,404	121,946	157,874	143,429
Grain and pulse:.....£.	64,022	59,385	65,124	50,301	56,511	99,160	106,616	85,221
Paddy.....(bushels..£.	190,407	173,699	208,602	191,141	201,529	189,082	207,483	206,491
Rice.....(bushels..£.	122,972	106,752	115,166	105,526	120,707	96,592	109,767	110,128
Other and flour.....£.	121,275	185,830	69,654	95,211	102,783	91,995	112,648	241,575
Haberdashery.....£.	1,178,192	1,604,170	1,591,400	1,667,389	1,828,172	1,017,119	1,562,544	157
Iron, galvanized, etc.....(tons..£.	114,137	172,532	153,752	161,094	138,692	88,058	141,507	120,833
Live stock:.....£.	7,364,347	7,456,366	7,556,506	8,722,823	7,594,413	8,723,750	9,023,598	14,928
Horned cattle.....(number..£.	1,545,746	1,603,896	1,460,137	1,685,504	1,592,068	1,929,524	2,089,057	2,358,335
Sheep and lambs.....(number..£.	146,336	113,771	100,561	107,818	109,217	113,456	123,356	152,525
Machinery and millwork, including sewing machines.....£.	52,922	50,157	43,777	53,678	74,436	134,733	126,084	159,570
Malt liquors.....(gallons..£.	795	779	1,034	1,141	1,390	2,083	1,711	1,542
Manures.....£.	18,486	17,242	20,552	22,678	29,973	47,886	40,750	37,011
Oil, kerosene.....£.	23,524	21,072	20,851	18,381	16,023	21,445	23,136	20,888
Onions.....(cwt..£.	47,429	33,170	22,703	22,688	21,170	28,988	29,582	25,491
Poonac (cocoanut cake).....(cwt..£.	58,161	63,156	72,598	68,940	79,520	61,154	79,511	79,628
Potatoes.....£.	19,135	18,427	17,895	18,361	24,429	19,470	25,709	29,457
Railway materials.....£.	61,608	43,022	43,767	45,588	51,221	106,882	100,286	93,136
Silk manufactures.....£.	254,451	206,966	186,631	213,975	269,118	253,150	297,080	311,826
Spirits—whisky.....(gallons..£.	32,800	27,662	22,225	25,189	27,476	25,524	30,832	33,027
Sugar (excluding palm and jaggery).....(cwt..£.	17,519	20,081	25,058	34,832	38,861	41,593	56,186	72,836
Tea lead.....(packages..£.	44,789	6,163	58,010	43,223	70,848	73,478	82,846	77,977
Tobacco—cigars.....(pounds..£.	95,832	95,475	96,107	122,960	131,003	108,861	131,237	148,282
Woolen manufactures of all kinds.....£.	18,567	35,206	31,835	40,731	47,079	20,638	26,042	29,656
Wood and timber—teak.....£.	202,362	218,050	226,601	243,246	255,357	275,429	295,598	332,569
Woolen manufactures of all kinds.....£.	52,277	53,604	50,041	53,717	61,179	69,622	78,210	88,685
Bullion—silver.....£.	52,431	37,913	36,084	43,102	51,696	52,148	56,693	72,375
Specie:.....£.	25,396	17,476	14,941	17,847	23,223	26,364	30,000	38,600
Gold.....£.	25,615	27,380	81,855	65,885	47,117	61,076	46,742	7,986
Silver.....£.	26,583	27,922	20,517	20,757	26,460	27,173	29,544	68,263
Bullion—silver.....£.	80,933	41,247	48,528	61,684	66,163	67,311	61,416	72,006
Specie:.....£.	39,202	22,815	24,112	30,649	35,666	38,283	36,562	45,598
Gold.....£.	64,685	73,815	79,346	109,892	92,927	117,135	126,781	157,068
Silver.....£.	82,316	83,872	81,907	154,839	145,876	194,750	222,169	277,362
Tea lead.....(packages..£.	1,394	2,385	2,477	2,841	5,272	3,167	3,681	3,420
Tobacco—cigars.....(pounds..£.	1,730	30,706	26,348	29,775	36,325	54,115	61,535	64,504
Woolen manufactures of all kinds.....£.	26,769	20,725	22,663	24,721	26,308	27,840	27,479	34,689
Wood and timber—teak.....£.	44,763	19,106	18,768	20,472	23,636	26,390	27,264	84,690
Woolen manufactures of all kinds.....£.	43,365	24,561	23,610	21,913	84,964	30,432	21,997	38,604
Bullion—silver.....£.	80,222	20,762	19,907	23,247	81,961	28,489	25,560	27,037
Specie:.....£.	20,919	88						
Gold.....£.		4,663	1,055	1,465	4,354	6,139	15,586	20,989
Silver.....£.	511,858	386,419	540,618	440,898	636,801	770,983	670,216	675,686
Total value of principal and other articles.....£.	4,565,234	4,418,795	4,288,627	4,644,135	5,227,644	6,158,607	6,475,218	7,466,157

## EXPORTS FROM CEYLON, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1892 TO 1899.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899
Areca nuts ..... {cwt.....	100,235	107,389	122,269	99,187	126,104	187,823	104,776	99,837
..... {packages..	189				139	203	45	134
..... £.....	57,268	68,213	69,100	50,178	66,883	83,214	76,785	85,937
Cardamoms..... £.....	18,153	28,305	21,190	32,112	45,345	64,077	64,612	49,209
Cinchona bark..... £.....	53,062	16,917	11,171	4,063	4,124	2,055	6,467	3,188
Cinnamon..... {pounds..	2,642,449	2,741,082	2,784,754	3,052,000	3,182,824	3,850,005	4,281,166	5,501,096
..... {£.....	85,329	67,385	61,497	67,398	76,255	138,680	161,413	184,046
Coal and coke..... {tons.....		50	400		25	3 pkgs.		
..... {£.....		62	332	296	38	2		
Cocoa..... {cwt.....	19,177	29,776	22,792	27,523	33,891	35,121	38,099	42,528
..... {£.....	86,695	130,385	62,915	62,299	65,972	82,120	110,884	125,003
Cocoanuts..... £.....	27,593	31,944	23,457	31,556	37,428	37,255	34,113	27,815
..... {cwt.....	16,008	27,269	42,692	73,194	94,036	103,987	121,468	129,889
Cocoanuts, desiccated..... {packages..							126	161
..... {£.....	23,881	36,714	55,275	91,553	122,853	135,994	154,229	152,982
Coffee, plantation..... {cwt.....	39,014	51,155	29,629	59,782	19,593	17,341	11,524	18,821
..... {£.....	195,272	245,223	147,219	297,039	92,710	88,765	56,025	89,457
Coffee, native..... {cwt.....	3,214	3,519	1,568	6,076	2,567	782	170	173
..... {£.....	13,616	13,733	5,885	23,985	9,687	3,058	511	498
Coir, and manufactures thereof..... £.....	70,573	69,281	66,215	68,664	66,967	108,545	125,189	95,539
..... {cwt.....	169,073	87,220	45,781	40,499	57,593	140,416	517,124	316,981
Copperah..... {packages..						283		2,797
..... {£.....	101,953	76,974	31,990	21,877	33,827	83,953	332,300	213,054
Oil:								
Citronella..... {ounces.....	12,825,240	12,470,192	15,724,116	15,007,730	19,492,669	18,853,637	24,050,986	23,922,398
..... {packages..							23	37
..... £.....	35,785	53,180	35,701	43,601	75,197	58,264	77,802	67,270
Cocoanut..... {cwt.....	564,550	388,606	449,564	419,212	390,833	488,393	467,423	430,570
..... {£.....	453,731	371,514	386,084	360,044	364,144	403,388	404,099	404,161
Plumbago..... {cwt.....	430,667	332,169	335,168	326,751	361,061	379,416	478,318	635,224
..... {£.....	278,139	153,109	138,781	135,297	183,822	231,977	474,581	1,483,033
Poonac..... {cwt.....	216,195	169,686	189,959	172,438	149,008	198,124	217,865	174,856
..... {£.....	55,397	41,863	36,852	27,288	32,449	56,322	56,581	54,974
Spirits—arrack..... {gallons..	88,874	94,672	97,775	118,745	117,376	109,599	65,902	70,716
..... {£.....	6,474	7,699	5,473	7,151	8,989	9,521	10,125	7,388
Tea..... {pounds..	72,282,524	82,269,353	85,376,322	98,581,061	110,095,194	114,466,318	122,395,518	129,661,908
..... {£.....	2,100,711	2,502,788	2,545,282	2,721,248	3,074,896	2,965,790	3,157,422	3,457,651
Timber..... £.....	19,553	15,385	11,657	10,999	18,129	11,361	8,124	15,287
Tobacco, unmanufactured..... {cwt.....	51,389	39,942	54,904	53,242	61,881	44,914	46,360	37,883
..... {£.....	68,191	53,344	69,417	66,085	86,253	66,513	71,148	57,101
Specie:								
Gold..... £.....		1,983	8,367	2,270		28,488		
Silver..... £.....	75,952	55,288	31,914	189	36,269	89,704	85,712	32,686
Total value of principal and other articles...£..	4,021,728	4,239,081	3,976,500	4,278,401	4,669,346	4,908,570	5,647,043	6,771,794

IMPORTS INTO INDIA, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1893 TO 1900.<sup>1</sup>

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900
Apparel (excluding hosiery).....Rx..	1,259,881	1,435,338	1,303,893	1,455,580	1,390,992	1,095,625	1,220,434	1,265,278
Books, paper and stationery.....Rx..	928,704	1,010,614	869,408	985,613	952,728	807,376	884,443	933,182
Chemicals.....Rx..	307,746	367,152	412,326	455,547	386,535	456,052	421,652	449,537
Coal.....tons.....Rx..	634,749	544,006	808,983	746,850	481,036	247,613	316,988	398,014
.....Rx..	1,101,791	936,437	1,432,096	1,356,256	930,756	485,288	660,556	735,311
Coke.....tons.....Rx..	12,536	11,257	12,426	14,396	13,374	14,126	11,391	13,680
.....Rx..	37,801	36,126	37,299	45,061	46,941	50,090	34,627	48,866
Cotton twist and yarn.....Rx..	2,683,850	3,108,941	2,851,254	2,971,090	3,325,871	3,493,038	2,551,634	2,450,011
Cotton manufactures.....Rx..	22,942,015	29,268,328	29,822,374	22,784,782	26,124,284	22,901,794	24,678,086	27,002,115
Drugs and medicines, except opium.....Rx..	473,588	522,788	518,269	591,162	508,636	553,550	518,263	504,244
Dyeing and tanning materials.....Rx..	644,653	708,893	717,183	858,893	731,347	767,006	777,107	643,359
Earthenware and porcelain.....Rx..	251,593	251,596	192,843	231,422	215,101	205,042	187,349	199,037
Fruits and vegetables.....Rx..	143,532	95,780	75,994	103,794	118,837	148,481	112,416	55,456
Glass, and manufactures of.....Rx..	670,804	788,480	619,997	741,078	704,046	576,464	662,233	768,652
Hardware and cutlery.....Rx..	1,217,754	1,301,690	1,283,897	1,422,323	1,473,187	1,355,926	1,368,891	1,518,096
Ivory, unmanufactured.....pounds.....Rx..	394,588	463,194	418,073	450,240	331,085	335,562	329,085	169,162
.....Rx..	234,857	258,759	258,435	309,013	214,163	214,926	212,866	105,496
Jewelry, precious stones, and plate.....Rx..	300,783	289,141	664,241	779,310	640,054	571,555	625,437	1,102,500
Live stock—horses.....number.....Rx..	7,974	8,128	7,583	8,679	7,191	4,982	7,622	7,131
.....Rx..	289,305	298,392	261,116	301,627	361,717	218,275	323,096	297,021
Machinery and millwork.....Rx..	2,359,103	2,518,028	2,442,433	3,237,401	3,509,162	2,857,778	3,055,931	2,541,903
Malt liquors.....gallons.....Rx..	3,052,594	2,787,672	2,514,041	3,048,743	3,022,171	2,835,298	3,227,164	3,207,180
.....Rx..	454,571	427,559	396,506	477,594	472,824	460,552	479,349	454,015
Matches.....Rx..	358,957	375,137	367,845	361,433	284,807	417,195	379,789	347,594
Metals:								
Copper and brass.....cwt.....Rx..	433,250	603,196	962,871	482,542	250,460	335,525	260,030	101,042
.....Rx..	1,840,133	2,448,788	1,559,512	2,150,008	1,132,119	1,495,875	1,175,997	590,871
Iron.....tons.....Rx..	179,812	185,481	162,520	200,012	194,481	196,896	164,517	149,097
.....Rx..	2,428,434	2,420,968	2,215,189	2,811,846	2,769,371	2,872,283	2,308,579	2,419,398
Spelter.....cwt.....Rx..	115,782	131,531	81,736	89,861	44,830	62,708	74,714	77,080
.....Rx..	185,877	192,875	123,072	125,100	70,232	97,725	116,405	139,415
Steel.....tons.....Rx..	31,078	51,991	45,267	85,113	77,646	92,355	84,145	72,636
.....Rx..	385,181	622,776	585,793	1,036,755	962,426	1,136,447	1,025,505	1,000,850
Tin.....cwt.....Rx..	37,603	45,906	48,425	50,329	36,397	38,628	29,198	17,401
.....Rx..	296,034	327,572	320,700	329,411	220,536	221,631	166,772	138,412
Lead.....cwt.....Rx..	113,076	121,967	112,550	121,686	123,434	114,283	100,795	103,249
.....Rx..	155,707	166,328	161,932	174,116	169,558	155,881	137,197	156,730
Oil, kerosene.....gallons.....Rx..	64,409,305	83,611,938	50,364,624	63,312,422	64,471,307	82,795,486	76,625,406	70,440,116
.....Rx..	2,515,874	3,091,526	1,941,966	2,779,743	2,859,356	3,397,787	2,985,872	2,939,982
Paints and colors.....cwt.....Rx..	170,537	174,665	174,976	190,661	190,565	180,643	199,983	182,325
.....Rx..	222,279	248,448	222,791	281,977	269,032	266,454	257,303	265,421
Provisions.....Rx..	1,862,054	1,782,868	1,575,943	1,797,246	1,549,816	1,731,089	1,540,660	1,702,128
Railway materials.....Rx..	1,032,939	1,242,977	1,558,969	1,520,585	2,558,598	2,758,551	2,824,815	2,777,078
Salt.....tons.....Rx..	360,042	412,876	508,375	407,271	328,304	486,716	411,865	416,635
.....Rx..	576,694	791,068	842,193	658,226	628,544	868,718	661,227	611,996
Silk, raw.....pounds.....Rx..	2,292,846	2,947,595	2,494,496	3,030,546	2,287,752	2,049,608	2,250,866	1,694,848
.....Rx..	1,016,080	1,360,179	1,086,533	1,282,950	875,488	669,772	797,657	676,088
Silk goods.....pounds.....Rx..	1,801,571	1,827,874	1,277,420	1,704,320	1,366,669	1,149,260	1,361,793	1,129,831
Spices.....pounds.....Rx..	48,516,623	73,024,493	80,769,730	73,701,218	78,903,491	93,241,454	87,989,038	101,344,689
.....Rx..	623,633	873,655	777,107	659,329	604,674	744,773	889,054	916,523
Spirits.....gallons.....Rx..	1,057,317	1,067,373	1,093,115	1,186,696	1,179,909	1,205,525	1,248,733	1,233,244
.....Rx..	681,660	686,700	710,874	802,103	806,994	805,363	836,031	840,072
Sugar, etc.....cwt.....Rx..	1,959,818	2,127,905	2,490,611	2,730,963	2,851,400	4,608,620	4,077,499	3,360,862
.....Rx..	2,625,683	2,824,190	2,875,297	3,106,813	3,151,829	4,784,479	4,016,999	3,376,630
Tea.....pounds.....Rx..	6,022,883	7,687,757	6,326,122	7,497,703	7,874,832	3,515,013	2,659,412	3,203,111
.....Rx..	443,336	572,006	424,666	493,483	518,420	212,986	184,944	158,643
Umbrellas.....number.....Rx..	4,733,034	5,478,428	3,979,140	4,051,735	3,790,897	4,021,990	3,036,658	3,099,766
.....Rx..	441,145	480,933	346,331	341,218	306,943	335,374	243,438	273,031
Woolen goods.....Rx..	1,523,243	1,892,042	1,511,639	1,445,517	1,692,445	1,148,427	1,523,731	1,758,000
Wines and liquors.....Rx..	309,376	342,518	348,893	413,960	363,173	320,700	330,052	301,519
Bullion and specie:								
Private—								
Gold.....Rx..	1,781,789	3,146,530	1,756,280	5,029,269	4,491,179	7,281,222	8,840,054	11,447,867
Silver.....Rx..	15,228,021	15,278,726	7,802,727	8,329,716	8,584,174	13,195,064	9,043,903	9,510,646
Government—Silver.....Rx..		36,000	22,200	9,000	9,211	54,331	11,656	14,243
Total value of principal and other articles.....Rx..	83,275,087	95,482,688	83,110,200	86,304,739	89,201,937	94,177,652	89,997,141	96,278,164

<sup>1</sup> Does not include land traffic.

EXPORTS FROM INDIA, BY PRINCIPAL ARTICLES, FROM 1893 TO 1900.<sup>1</sup>

[NOTE.—"Rx" = tens of rupees; ten rupees at the present exchange value, about \$3.33.]

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES.	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900
Coal.....	tons. 15,628	52,203	53,615	80,946	137,256	212,273	326,778	304,586
Rx.....	15,506	50,453	50,123	86,450	142,641	213,425	334,651	304,586
Coke.....	tons. 169	123	108	180	253	588	469	.....
Rx.....	305	308	128	472	531	725	988	728,012
Coffee.....	cwts. 299,387	282,817	291,741	298,435	215,986	233,108	281,556	288,606
Rx.....	2,082,489	2,029,634	2,208,555	2,244,886	1,619,120	1,560,570	1,785,517	1,505,849
Coir, and manufactures of.....	cwts. 296,598	257,027	268,059	371,709	292,881	338,188	367,884	428,654
Rx.....	260,431	235,761	243,433	345,498	298,232	315,575	337,833	388,873
Cotton, raw.....	cwts. 4,789,321	4,794,152	3,386,618	5,248,719	5,216,551	3,722,999	5,411,026	4,374,070
Rx.....	12,743,883	13,310,769	8,708,233	14,000,865	12,971,906	8,872,457	11,190,127	9,026,865
Cotton, twist and yarn.....	Rx.....	6,864,305	5,051,099	5,783,625	6,801,554	7,262,255	7,070,179	6,085,396
Cotton manufactures.....	Rx.....	8,060,054	2,914,356	3,599,824	3,418,688	2,700,925	2,497,419	2,460,869
Dyeing and tanning materials.....	Rx.....	4,963,667	5,042,627	5,630,729	6,219,416	5,039,169	3,567,476	3,509,511
Grain: Wheat.....	cwts. 14,973,453	12,156,851	6,820,120	10,001,171	1,910,626	2,332,607	19,529,496	9,504,087
Rx.....	7,410,384	5,133,985	2,566,247	3,914,377	836,450	1,211,152	9,719,688	3,909,496
Hides and skins.....	cwts. 7,872,598	8,500,082	9,658,885	1,114,276	996,452	1,275,031	1,110,113	1,734,995
Rx.....	5,591,991	5,801,753	6,569,259	7,640,863	7,001,730	8,318,01	7,450,632	10,463,815
Jewelry, precious stones, and plate.....	Rx.....	50,334	96,926	83,638	93,382	83,709	132,227	100,100
Jute, raw.....	cwts. 10,587,512	8,699,133	12,976,791	12,266,781	11,464,556	15,023,225	9,864,545	9,725,245
Rx.....	7,944,223	8,524,130	10,575,977	9,992,861	10,550,578	10,129,992	6,941,245	8,071,647
Jute manufactures (including twist and yarn).....	Rx.....	3,238,176	3,441,958	4,211,018	4,717,797	5,214,509	5,080,654	6,264,350
Lac, including dye.....	Rx.....	785,960	960,797	1,409,076	1,833,772	1,399,862	1,070,924	1,136,660
Manure: Animal bones.....	tons. 47,584	50,020	76,060	77,004	74,116	71,96	74,027	109,978
Rx.....	246,060	274,042	458,974	448,451	411,503	391,25	403,543	607,618
Metals, and manufactures of metals.....	Rx.....	446,494	306,247	288,981	381,314	385,859	319,222	451,348
Oils (except paraffin-wax).....	Rx.....	619,665	626,211	764,804	710,467	574,896	627,134	786,402
Opium.....	cwts. 104,658	97,910	91,645	83,911	86,386	78,380	92,827	93,378
Rx.....	9,255,014	8,019,428	9,064,665	8,459,336	8,022,923	6,097,63	7,126,009	8,203,715
Provisions.....	Rx.....	922,067	998,409	984,635	1,020,209	1,044,533	1,061,76	1,229,192
Rice (including paddy).....	cwts. 27,938,325	24,047,907	34,301,591	35,161,968	28,281,277	26,834,52	37,946,86	32,271,393
Rx.....	12,406,719	10,384,789	13,806,611	13,542,766	11,951,208	11,759,37	15,813,208	13,096,170
Salt peter.....	cwts. 413,931	321,033	352,985	421,769	528,452	417,86	365,256	397,385
Rx.....	438,940	338,102	411,365	535,945	572,164	398,45	349,444	384,293
Seeds.....	cwts. 16,510,989	24,248,605	20,890,200	13,674,881	11,400,745	12,502,20	10,284,029	15,876,237
Rx.....	11,633,374	16,761,734	14,263,042	9,721,660	8,014,875	8,609,815	11,892,012	10,127,716
Silk, raw.....	pounds. 1,929,374	1,894,154	1,426,289	1,853,109	1,593,439	1,728,684	1,636,983	2,030,513
Rx.....	654,799	733,080	527,161	661,738	536,730	628,550	476,407	715,802
Silk goods.....	Rx.....	298,942	313,095	257,312	272,169	239,082	164,56	174,902
Spices.....	pounds. 27,349,568	24,347,989	29,379,522	31,965,520	34,061,537	27,514,87	32,804,163	27,725,003
Rx.....	545,089	485,692	546,705	533,416	516,416	487,923	639,339	579,925
Sugar, etc.....	cwts. 1,064,900	1,532,250	1,232,257	1,240,596	1,348,473	600,227	498,567	693,965
Rx.....	835,995	1,230,962	822,120	791,947	916,437	411,393	383,257	451,994
Tea.....	pounds. 118,131,184	129,907,616	133,439,263	142,080,083	153,482,194	154,121,582	159,895,650	176,386,820
Rx.....	6,620,490	6,928,993	7,988,599	8,025,974	8,493,781	8,274,117	8,191,115	9,176,979
Timber, wood, and manufactures of.....	Rx.....	699,383	595,804	663,080	808,435	1,082,455	1,090,048	1,086,912
Wool, raw.....	pounds. 37,116,699	36,821,308	44,700,148	47,042,674	41,444,132	44,962,232	38,613,146	41,704,162
Rx.....	1,714,296	1,699,082	2,016,086	2,115,927	1,849,500	2,000,623	1,724,842	1,801,970
Woolen manufactures.....	Rx.....	178,629	218,712	214,437	240,672	250,909	254,495	293,759
Bullion and specie:								
Private—								
Gold.....	Rx.....	4,594,472	2,505,284	6,730,374	2,503,317	2,200,141	2,372,733	2,336,646
Silver.....	Rx.....	2,334,522	1,519,453	1,427,643	1,728,984	2,725,750	4,761,436	5,071,535
Government—Silver.....	Rx.....	29,930	75,455	68,055	27,510	11,605	3,210	6,347
Total value of principal and other articles. Rx.....	113,554,399	110,603,562	117,139,850	118,594,549	108,921,592	104,781,428	120,211,146	117,070,032

<sup>1</sup> Does not include land traffic.

## IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF FRENCH COLONIES FOR THE YEARS 1889 TO 1899, INCLUSIVE.

[From official publications of the French Government. Value of franc, 19.3 cents.]

IMPORTS FROM—		Martinique.	Guadeloupe.	Reunion.	Senegal.	Guiana.	St. Pierre and Miquelon.	India.	New Caledonia.
		Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
1889	France .....	7,959,420	10,918,782	9,178,610	8,927,860	5,877,648	8,707,189	735,854	4,024,622
	French colonies .....	668,927	1,191,957	859,690	212,700	79,795	69,613	17,535	.....
	Foreign countries .....	14,298,102	12,580,881	11,224,067	13,781,920	2,993,042	10,578,173	6,009,710	5,452,206
	Total .....	22,916,449	24,691,620	21,262,367	22,921,980	8,950,485	14,354,975	6,763,099	9,476,828
1890	France .....	10,657,674	9,656,540	9,921,232	5,823,085	4,071,127	3,835,339	771,991	4,776,622
	French colonies .....	1,357,013	1,135,678	227,225	96,104	112,200	69,164	20,638	.....
	Foreign countries .....	18,246,662	12,456,772	20,165,999	9,271,536	3,706,105	10,195,982	3,845,427	6,312,896
	Total .....	30,261,349	23,248,990	30,314,456	15,190,725	7,889,532	14,100,485	4,637,956	11,089,516
1891	France .....	10,741,246	7,829,926	9,234,884	9,046,023	7,409,909	3,897,083	609,822	4,912,773
	French colonies .....	922,616	908,315	462,829	70,067	86,178	107,721	18,253	69,348
	Foreign countries .....	21,996,013	11,717,639	12,542,206	9,092,074	3,521,300	9,522,844	3,854,866	6,435,609
	Total .....	33,659,875	20,455,880	22,239,919	18,208,164	11,017,387	13,527,648	4,482,941	11,417,730
1892	France .....	10,057,694	7,928,693	11,958,011	12,287,612	6,545,032	4,110,871	414,500	5,634,992
	French colonies .....	1,338,956	794,852	199,016	85,934	71,279	153,407	27,945	119,043
	Foreign countries .....	21,713,378	12,342,738	12,912,450	11,886,582	3,637,064	6,272,536	2,835,486	8,512,619
	Total .....	33,110,028	21,066,283	25,069,477	24,260,128	10,253,365	10,536,814	3,277,931	14,266,654
1893	France .....	9,780,234	8,933,517	8,585,791	8,908,443	5,488,760	2,448,849	513,939	5,253,830
	French colonies .....	1,715,218	853,032	172,468	113,875	150,675	136,967	17,186	38,544
	Foreign countries .....	14,160,258	10,194,097	10,912,526	4,843,965	2,554,170	3,593,269	2,745,461	4,010,307
	Total .....	25,655,710	19,980,646	19,670,785	13,866,283	8,193,605	6,179,125	3,276,576	9,302,681
1894	France .....	12,452,547	11,081,722	11,714,729	14,412,808	9,197,619	2,917,849	625,730	5,272,924
	French colonies .....	1,304,485	812,949	380,391	2,265,824	286,661	136,105	17,271	2,500
	Foreign countries .....	15,360,178	10,741,277	11,200,588	10,307,901	2,658,040	3,695,560	2,531,615	3,385,869
	Total .....	29,117,210	22,635,948	23,295,708	26,986,533	12,142,320	6,749,514	3,174,616	8,661,293
1895	France .....	7,951,864	7,342,853	9,448,948	15,199,869	7,524,584	3,392,449	815,012	3,611,318
	French colonies .....	878,801	715,780	858,115	3,238,040	273,663	516,356	36,352	199,000
	Foreign countries .....	12,328,271	8,344,839	13,734,080	9,830,145	3,180,989	4,256,987	2,175,115	3,564,205
	Total .....	21,158,936	16,403,472	24,041,143	28,268,054	10,979,236	8,165,792	2,526,478	7,374,523
1896	France .....	9,320,684	10,631,312	11,814,121	11,723,871	5,662,466	3,784,830	362,155	4,536,537
	French colonies .....	1,319,925	827,591	1,346,158	2,505,545	369,853	797,333	23,166	404,673
	Foreign countries .....	12,244,896	10,258,159	8,727,621	11,946,310	2,625,026	4,084,127	2,627,477	4,026,396
	Total .....	22,885,505	21,717,062	21,887,900	26,175,726	8,657,345	8,666,290	3,012,798	8,967,606
1897	France .....	9,501,957	8,207,037	10,694,836	14,531,176	5,978,401	4,009,378	753,537	4,396,640
	French colonies .....	1,461,110	846,831	4,369,800	2,321,390	423,984	482,490	83,793	310,020
	Foreign countries .....	10,525,171	9,390,906	6,597,047	12,327,371	3,024,894	4,837,400	2,920,803	3,972,576
	Total .....	21,488,238	18,444,774	21,661,683	29,179,937	9,427,279	9,329,268	3,708,133	8,679,236
1898	France .....	11,574,310	7,652,574	9,168,573	16,178,038	7,178,977	7,213,358	759,465	5,026,930
	French colonies .....	1,568,488	1,221,871	2,720,468	2,307,785	282,256	355,146	61,107	337,018
	Foreign countries .....	11,225,592	9,725,772	7,876,227	14,669,727	3,076,688	5,364,676	2,313,825	4,388,865
	Total .....	24,368,390	18,600,217	19,765,268	33,155,550	10,537,921	12,933,180	3,134,397	9,752,806
1899	France .....	12,693,838	8,804,824	12,866,492	30,702,516	8,800,609	7,490,385	1,488,188	6,275,796
	French colonies .....	1,487,789	881,229	2,958,043	3,727,401	337,982	460,885	41,848	369,403
	Foreign countries .....	12,822,899	9,469,698	5,131,808	15,629,917	2,961,140	4,944,069	2,280,968	4,312,999
	Total .....	27,004,326	19,155,751	20,956,343	50,059,834	12,099,731	12,895,329	4,811,004	10,958,198



## IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF FRENCH COLONIES FOR THE YEARS 1889 TO 1899, INCLUSIVE.

[From official publications of the French Government. Value of franc, 19.3 cents.]

Tahiti.	INDO-CHINA.			Guinea.	Ivory coast.	Dahomey.	Congo.	Mayotte.	Madagascar.	Grand total.
	Cochin China and Cambodia.	Anam.	Tonquin.							
Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
841,294		16,237,993				1,496,052		347,720	153,724	70,406,268
3,003,427		263,711				2,361		59,484	82,462	3,503,235
		43,889,079				2,193,997		180,702	1,846,158	128,026,461
3,844,721		60,390,783				3,692,410		587,906	2,082,344	201,935,967
1,128,610		10,714,840				3,068,647		159,806	298,292	70,883,905
2,744,215		169,971				4,262,189		60,412	845,466	3,293,771
		43,363,649				7,330,836		341,382	1,681,630	136,594,444
3,872,825		60,248,460				778,676		561,600	2,025,388	210,772,120
579,853		20,321,010				2,250		152,317	350,320	75,863,842
5,596		206,413				1,899,962		56,328	111,350	3,237,169
3,066,860		46,507,144				2,680,888		451,768	2,171,245	132,790,530
3,672,309		67,034,567						660,413	2,632,915	211,690,636
566,494	9,688,001	254,352	9,431,661	609,396	181,901	1,819,401	1,107,016	347,720	1,604,467	81,517,714
2,177,096	20,064	1,657	73,365	3,000,000	1,797,678	4,595,820	2,035,629	18,300	256,497	3,237,169
	25,838,573	4,415,564	18,927,846					280,702	3,261,930	146,413,681
2,713,590	35,546,628	4,671,473	28,432,772	3,609,396	1,979,579	6,432,701	3,160,945	687,906	5,122,894	234,188,564
592,293	9,897,755	216,166	8,703,888	580,000	186,648	4,486,946	1,423,907	159,806	1,848,378	78,109,192
2,165,685	7,315	606	127,438	3,497,577	2,288,839	18,203	16,100	60,412	563,379	3,591,319
	27,183,794	3,704,589	18,246,609			5,951,708	1,726,364	341,382	3,170,665	121,291,255
2,757,978	37,088,864	3,921,261	27,077,935	4,077,577	2,475,488	10,456,857	3,166,371	561,600	5,582,422	203,291,766
367,374	10,066,311	127,645	9,839,221	600,000	432,617	3,544,473	1,152,657	310,840	2,578,007	96,695,472
2,140	9	425	110,620			330	27,676	53,628	774,505	6,175,449
2,215,038	26,628,639	4,263,289	16,846,646	4,283,688	2,691,436	7,226,956	3,424,620	277,283	3,578,060	131,326,684
2,584,552	36,695,469	4,391,259	26,796,387	4,893,688	3,124,053	10,771,790	4,604,953	641,751	6,930,572	234,197,605
445,761	17,415,868	324,815	10,566,344	712,640	366,354	3,407,985	1,675,689	280,721	1,725,509	91,708,582
3,479	820	17,755	17,755		578		68,938	56,224	388,619	7,253,196
1,991,081	40,916,667	3,176,567	16,598,805	4,360,263	2,632,664	7,134,236	3,904,254	216,769	4,130,393	142,476,309
2,440,321	58,333,400	3,502,192	27,182,904	5,072,903	2,999,596	10,542,221	5,648,881	553,714	6,244,521	241,438,087
316,139	18,182,285	249,671	12,093,388	512,750	800,228	3,716,311	1,489,957	283,648	4,969,316	100,449,669
1,034	2,137	540	19,556	12,166	21,708		11,975	241,393	545,460	8,450,214
2,531,784	33,834,923	3,610,471	13,091,069	4,109,064	3,816,477	6,012,939	3,294,681	147,741	8,473,155	135,462,315
2,848,957	52,019,345	3,860,682	25,204,013	4,633,980	4,638,413	9,729,250	4,786,613	672,782	13,987,931	244,362,188
390,112	20,824,261	225,992	14,732,657	1,209,365	689,164	2,930,912	991,764	111,783	9,583,231	109,762,403
889	1,670			15,782	15,524		20,657	215,283	863,098	11,382,521
3,354,138	31,096,753	4,493,357	16,808,101	6,412,928	3,989,142	5,312,045	2,560,041	126,491	7,912,589	135,661,754
3,745,139	51,922,684	4,719,349	31,540,958	7,638,075	4,693,830	8,242,957	3,572,462	453,557	18,358,918	256,836,478
709,363	23,993,046	474,352	17,834,306	1,453,392	1,045,146	1,923,781	1,274,366	131,351	17,029,655	130,020,982
556	88,741		2,625,342	32,159	8,973		8,134	135,597	1,130,166	12,883,802
2,253,229	31,482,436	3,297,644	23,248,480	7,534,320	4,544,623	8,070,786	3,561,734	125,365	3,467,996	146,227,985
2,969,148	54,964,222	3,771,996	43,708,128	9,019,871	5,598,742	9,994,567	4,844,234	392,313	21,627,817	289,132,768
328,825	28,939,136	824,458	24,669,104	3,980,004	1,453,575	1,804,463	2,436,856	183,056	24,377,357	178,118,480
257	485,825		282,844	145,898	168,451	20	19,091	109,920	1,602,511	13,079,392
2,532,351	36,809,047	3,349,109	20,064,970	11,315,813	4,757,860	10,544,488	4,234,317	268,645	1,936,746	154,366,334
2,861,433	66,234,008	4,473,567	45,016,918	15,441,710	6,379,886	12,348,971	6,690,263	564,621	27,916,614	345,565,706

## IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF FRENCH COLONIES FOR THE YEARS 1889 TO 1899, INCLUSIVE—Continued.

EXPORTS TO—		Martinique.	Guadeloupe.	Reunion.	Senegal.	Guiana.	St. Pierre and Miquelon.	India.	New Caledonia.
		Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
1889	France .....	22,248,794	24,691,120	12,625,867	13,649,769	4,115,125	9,811,498	14,637,238	2,067,020
	French colonies .....	106,299	438,010	407,831	1,580	1,665	2,462,652	652,817	
	Foreign countries .....	1,099,809	721,765	867,903	2,172,580	155,144	5,846,186	10,706,653	4,191,698
	Total .....	23,454,902	25,850,895	13,901,601	15,823,929	4,271,934	18,120,336	25,996,708	6,258,718
1890	France .....	21,920,466	20,572,204	15,519,461	10,247,194	3,998,865	8,043,244	11,351,528	1,348,900
	French colonies .....	249,557	279,457	323,653	234,322	22,109	2,179,034	160,959	
	Foreign countries .....	1,180,092	518,079	1,432,712	2,035,200	287,948	6,113,167	5,586,559	5,791,935
	Total .....	23,350,115	21,369,740	17,275,826	12,516,716	4,308,922	17,335,445	17,099,046	7,140,835
1891	France .....	21,253,857	14,133,411	14,891,826	10,819,719	4,067,193	8,491,075	14,456,040	821,298
	French colonies .....	307,276	682,969	114,134	127,128	77,867	1,510,830	105,931	
	Foreign countries .....	1,378,272	348,005	828,923	2,001,511	347,390	82,540	5,938,876	7,807,959
	Total .....	22,939,385	15,164,385	15,834,883	12,948,358	4,512,450	10,084,435	20,500,847	8,629,257
1892	France .....	16,343,787	20,927,226	15,730,605	12,410,687	4,596,775	6,518,450	8,782,338	2,377,198
	French colonies .....	374,787	447,575	30,996	22,149	82,840	1,237,794	509,103	
	Foreign countries .....	1,366,342	454,765	1,204,678	4,901,256	304,020	804,664	6,454,805	4,970,277
	Total .....	18,384,916	21,829,566	16,966,273	17,334,092	4,983,645	8,560,908	15,746,246	7,347,470
1893	France .....	22,315,476	22,563,285	15,730,605	13,805,593	5,004,953	5,609,430	12,344,083	4,568,839
	French colonies .....	395,886	526,516	30,990	77,540	21,193	1,779,952	364,923	
	Foreign countries .....	1,314,983	190,686	1,204,678	4,101,597	160,453	3,075,589	7,420,349	4,706,783
	Total .....	24,026,345	23,280,517	16,966,273	17,984,730	5,186,601	10,464,921	20,129,355	9,275,672
1894	France .....	20,615,707	20,216,946	14,435,447	14,464,341	14,081,035	5,653,878	12,094,025	1,424,427
	French colonies .....	574,769	696,878	19,445	92,318	38,174	1,436,678	273,773	
	Foreign countries .....	1,320,751	145,599	1,244,765	3,610,282	268,985	2,369,907	8,439,547	4,999,236
	Total .....	22,511,227	21,059,423	15,699,657	18,166,971	14,388,794	9,400,463	20,807,345	6,423,663
1895	France .....	17,385,986	11,526,453	17,173,378	9,170,297	8,649,684	7,761,331	7,666,722	2,308,098
	French colonies .....	626,806	424,178	561,237	29,293	27,970	1,194,522	400,275	9,600
	Foreign countries .....	1,182,979	187,512	310,076	3,235,299	308,288	2,232,234	7,812,688	5,461,743
	Total .....	19,645,771	12,138,143	18,044,691	12,435,888	8,985,942	11,188,087	15,879,685	7,779,441
1896	France .....	19,730,037	17,826,550	16,215,261	13,027,843	8,799,861	7,171,300	2,949,377	2,411,165
	French colonies .....	693,925	653,368	519,090	411,409	40	1,064,218	265,029	3,022
	Foreign countries .....	1,091,064	110,429	651,441	6,123,813	193,548	2,284,466	6,156,431	3,334,365
	Total .....	21,515,026	18,590,347	17,385,792	19,563,065	8,993,449	10,519,984	9,369,837	5,748,552
1897	France .....	17,580,281	15,361,883	17,419,779	13,414,336	6,952,901	6,961,946	3,834,065	3,331,440
	French colonies .....	589,417	790,862	631,456	2,691,131	52,618	1,033,653	266,613	1,345
	Foreign countries .....	1,146,905	155,031	431,293	5,031,184	226,795	2,757,446	10,910,385	3,712,239
	Total .....	19,316,603	16,307,776	18,482,528	21,136,651	7,232,314	10,753,045	15,011,063	7,045,024
1898	France .....	20,387,355	16,589,521	18,090,838	19,750,933	6,496,050	11,718,456	3,040,844	3,497,767
	French colonies .....	654,405	967,483	578,676	3,383,058	20,340	1,784,597	549,630	4,284
	Foreign countries .....	1,303,100	108,460	358,343	6,012,764	325,389	2,461,360	4,305,993	3,234,677
	Total .....	22,344,860	17,665,464	19,027,857	29,146,755	6,841,779	15,964,413	7,896,467	6,736,728
1899	France .....	24,212,270	17,701,608	14,348,944	17,927,210	6,447,252	11,868,599	2,983,083	3,480,392
	French colonies .....	721,984	780,429	867,563	821,108	20,021	1,333,153	978,238	748
	Foreign countries .....	1,668,893	225,461	140,971	5,298,107	376,803	2,216,745	5,322,029	5,432,057
	Total .....	26,603,147	18,707,558	15,357,475	23,546,425	6,844,076	15,418,467	9,283,350	8,913,197

## IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF FRENCH COLONIES FOR THE YEARS 1889 TO 1899, INCLUSIVE—Continued.

Tahiti.	INDO-CHINA.			Guinea.	Ivory coast.	Dahomey.	Congo.	Mayotte.	Madagascar.	Grand total.
	Cochin China and Cambodia.	Anam.	Tonquin.							
Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
1,387		1,447,733				23,678		1,098,376	116,137	106,534,192
3,032,937		346,632				2,505,600		58,925	148,518	4,624,929
		56,063,942						116,262	1,295,022	88,775,601
3,034,774		57,858,307				2,529,278		1,273,563	1,559,677	199,034,622
304,593		2,318,996				2,440,393		1,474,829	305,191	100,845,864
2,962		2,720				41,964		41,964	41,400	3,563,127
3,199,864		54,673,403				5,184,846		46,303	1,553,707	87,603,515
3,507,409		56,995,119				7,625,239		1,563,096	1,900,298	191,987,806
344,137		5,534,898				601,646		849,147	422,060	97,006,277
4,218,815		61,291,606				1,958,530		58,558	326,209	3,563,127
								123,124	1,961,183	88,286,734
4,562,952		67,068,944				2,560,176		1,030,829	2,709,452	188,846,353
218,581	1,821,209	69,896	835,397	612,000	1,412,942	1,583,174	350,743	1,098,376	1,061,969	103,751,348
170,167	813,720					15,649		58,925	298,446	4,624,929
8,051,112	71,671,927	3,443,792	10,815,629	8,400,537	2,325,792	5,661,088	2,147,891	116,262	1,519,233	124,034,103
3,439,860	80,706,856	3,513,688	10,851,026	4,012,559	3,738,734	7,259,510	2,498,637	1,273,569	2,879,648	231,847,592
375,015	10,509,599	249,433	312,930	625,000	1,386,062	2,353,882	444,740	1,474,829	1,277,864	120,981,618
279,773	428,565		100			8,245	9,606	41,964	298,446	4,624,929
2,950,527	69,870,313	2,078,690	9,960,119	4,176,698	2,976,034	6,479,579	1,890,668	46,303	1,751,178	124,355,126
3,605,315	80,808,477	2,328,123	10,273,149	4,801,698	4,362,096	8,833,461	2,345,014	1,563,096	3,317,362	249,582,104
126,257	11,116,348	151,094	354,789	650,000	1,127,869	2,725,570	1,443,010	915,425	771,580	122,411,348
307,463	116,851		1,000			8,245	11,000	45,053	440,390	4,624,929
2,706,984	76,416,840	2,398,409	12,955,330	4,572,177	2,941,540	7,239,888	4,538,687	98,216	2,523,024	138,730,167
3,140,704	87,650,039	2,549,503	13,311,119	5,222,177	4,069,409	9,973,703	5,992,687	1,098,691	3,737,994	265,203,583
233,589	11,621,479	140,522	751,728	674,498	1,091,628	3,941,354	645,254	942,523	334,183	102,468,706
	234,826	699	1,120			4,997	6,063	51,160	73,560	3,616,306
2,429,771	73,388,180	1,926,082	8,231,565	4,555,878	2,614,823	6,575,517	4,297,466	31,215	2,567,071	127,349,337
2,663,360	85,244,485	2,067,253	8,984,413	5,230,376	3,706,451	10,521,868	4,948,783	1,024,898	2,974,814	233,464,349
40,231	7,943,334	96,802	1,636,321	699,078	2,235,669	3,885,211	628,315	1,080,600	734,132	107,161,093
80	417,298		150	104,405	1,352	11,120	526	96,160	322,636	4,624,929
8,229,620	70,091,649	2,301,808	6,272,213	4,922,658	2,162,766	5,328,160	4,117,003	30,125	2,549,188	120,949,742
3,269,381	78,502,281	2,398,610	7,908,684	5,787,141	4,399,787	9,224,491	4,745,844	1,205,885	3,605,951	232,734,614
811,035	11,476,911	316,504	1,494,386	623,742	2,241,884	1,514,811	835,487	1,085,375	1,193,991	106,950,757
	2,846,785		10,145	52,212	1,545	12,874	457	78,497	325,941	9,385,551
2,839,633	80,367,991	2,236,415	18,485,825	6,019,322	2,475,232	4,251,173	4,442,073	32,907	2,822,500	148,374,349
3,150,668	94,691,687	2,552,919	19,990,356	6,725,276	4,718,661	5,578,858	5,278,077	1,196,779	4,342,432	263,710,657
102,154	24,932,794	254,216	924,752	429,690	935,075	2,177,946	1,487,887	773,866	1,867,301	133,448,417
	3,476,500		4,480	133,919	516	9,088	2,847	64,235	424,026	12,058,084
2,658,180	79,601,028	2,821,148	15,496,061	7,245,359	3,111,565	5,351,725	4,204,570	27,233	2,688,222	141,510,177
2,960,334	108,010,322	3,075,364	16,425,293		5,047,156	7,538,759	5,695,304	865,836	4,974,549	287,016,708
446,994	19,101,860	727,401	2,113,596	747,373	2,605,440	3,433,705	1,608,173	1,191,705	4,838,292	135,753,954
	1,664,140		39,586	214,475	22,515	8,090	515	93,857	606,843	7,573,265
3,111,439	90,338,950	5,840,090	18,211,665	8,499,648	3,235,300	9,278,395	5,016,353	24,370	2,601,273	166,838,519
3,523,433	111,004,950	6,567,491	20,364,847	9,461,496	5,863,255	12,720,190	6,625,041	1,309,932	8,046,408	310,165,738

VALUE OF IMPORTS OF FRENCH COLONIES DURING THE YEAR 1896, DIVIDED ACCORDING TO CLASSES OF MERCHANDISE.  
[From British Consular Report.]

ARTICLES.	MARTINIQUE.		GUADELOUPE.		REUNION.		FRENCH GUIANA.		SENEGAL.		FRENCH GUINEA.	
	French and French colonial goods.	Foreign goods.	French and French colonial goods.	Foreign goods.	French and French colonial goods.	Foreign goods.	French and French colonial goods.	Foreign goods.	French and French colonial goods.	Foreign goods.	French and French colonial goods.	Foreign goods.
Live animals.....	£ 98	17,617	£ 38	20,149	29,370	3,842	£ 233	23,872	£ 250	£ 705	£ 86	86
Animal products, hides, etc.....	9,517	47,886	7,893	100,636	21,547	65,990	27,220	22,641	18,892	1,780	1,149	1,163
Fish.....	43,194	1,642	40,809	1,847	82,354	3,401	4,149	4,113	891	188	152	183
Animal substances for medicines and perfumery.....	33								12			
Cereals and flour.....	29,205	100,020	23,395	132,780	30,112	219,621	33,220	18,219	90,289	6,927	1,723	7,100
Vegetables, fruits, and seeds.....	1,112	437	920	261	568	638	534	213	2,278	54,755	34	1,095
Colonial products.....	40,975	60,067	17,255	5,765	1,772	5,358	15,017	10,065	40,233	54,935	1,003	10,402
Oils and vegetable essences.....	12,375	23,642	20,894	13,074	6,706	2,159	8,094	1,592	28,709	5,350	573	617
Drugs.....	237	9					55	12	238			
Timber.....	2,952	26,453	1,180	27,826	5,667	3,844	19	5,744	5,154	14,332	794	1,826
Vegetable fibers, etc.....	199	229	9	50	53	67	169	5	35	70		100
Spirits, wines, etc.....	60,352	4,393	62,540	2,422	91,151	3,106	58,735	2,006	52,549	13,038	2,942	8,497
Building stone, mineral combustibles, etc.....	10,435	79,358	1,964	31,013	17,045	9,887	2,814	3,891	13,673	25,282	1,640	3,200
Metals.....	12,230	458	8,697	1,843	4,351	2,236	3,687	1,341	2,640	2,500	88	1,115
Chemical products.....	6,696	68,749	33,870	25,689	22,061	2,062	1,248	205	1,531	409	220	5,807
Coloring matters.....	2,198	24	2,020	25	2,923	16	865	2	4,548	384	197	138
Yarns and threads.....	5,803	49	5,966	531	7,733	257	500	72	10,580	6,298	37	144
Textiles.....	64,154	20,216	39,353	21,033	102,371	11,694	30,080	3,429	183,371	250,900	944	81,153
Paper, printed matter, etc.....	5,779	169	3,547	86	8,151	896	1,600	237	4,601	301	252	108
Dressed skins and furs.....	16,052	247	16,201	308	9,945	377	7,664	102	5,887	1,269	169	102
Machinery, hardware, tools, metal goods, etc.....	30,342	2,999	98,049	2,246	48,175	4,533	6,724	958	28,479	4,810	3,252	8,156
Arms and ammunition.....	4,680	399	282	4	310	3	1,279	92	8,756	4,849	1,640	3,421
Furniture and woodwork.....	4,476	22,741	1,331	5,011	8,207	245	1,598	1,754	5,486	1,950	205	1,740
Musical instruments.....	686	50	671	99			233	22	233	52	86	45
Matting, wickerwork, etc.....	1,890	1,562	1,560	463			787	23	109	111	142	109
Pottery and glassware.....	7,450	244	6,976	304	5,657	406	2,610	71	6,531	3,714	404	2,668
Dyes.....	1,094						13		3	20	66	70
Clothing.....			15,835	336								
Sundry products and manufactured goods.....	42,301	5,386	42,562	12,462	70,061	6,010	29,756	3,290	47,463	18,172	3,126	23,320
Total.....	421,510	484,946	453,817	406,263	521,190	345,648	238,903	103,961	563,541	473,121	20,788	162,735
Grand total.....	906,456		860,080		866,847		342,864		1,036,662		183,523	

NOTE.—In certain cases the specie imported is included in the French statistics under the head, "Machinery, hardware, tools, etc." The amounts are as follows:

Guadeloupe.....	£ 74,849	Indian settlements.....	£ 594
French Guinea.....	1,215	St. Pierre and Miquelon.....	3,218
Ivory Coast.....	19,598	Tahiti.....	2,997
Dahomey.....	24,076	Total.....	130,498
Kongo.....	3,961		

VALUE OF EXPORTS OF FRENCH COLONIES DURING THE YEAR 1896, DIVIDED ACCORDING TO CLASSES OF PRODUCTS.

CLASSES OF MERCHANDISE.	MARTINIQUE.		GUADELOUPE.		REUNION.		FRENCH GUIANA.		SENEGAL.		FRENCH GUINEA.	
	France and colonies.	Foreign countries.	France and colonies.	Foreign countries.	France and colonies.	Foreign countries.	France and colonies.	Foreign countries.	France and colonies.	Foreign countries.	France and colonies.	Foreign countries.
Live animals.....	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Animal products, raw hides, etc.....	1,621		286		131	601		846	927	2,968	1,405	16,249
Fish.....							208				1,459	7,877
Ivory, tortoise shell, mother-of-pearl, etc.....	160		289						353		192	571
Cereals and flour.....	312				1,170	5,174					181	300
Vegetables, fruits, and seeds.....	225		7,942	140	190		141		256,791	107,923	4,486	17,180
Colonial products.....	411,445	143	653,156	699	589,577	16,460	331				128	
Oils and vegetable essences.....					18,812		2,330		135,610	7,142	22,220	142,320
Timber.....	6,432		18,900				254					
Vegetable fibers.....					1,383							177
Drugs.....	1,598											
Spirituous liquors.....	215,722	288	31,091	167	34,680	228						
Building stone, mineral combustibles, etc.....							1,256	6,580				
Metals.....							337,762		5,976			364
Chemical products.....												
Yarns and threads.....					957							
Textiles.....												
Furniture and woodwork.....												
Matting, wickerwork, etc.....												
Pottery and glassware.....	153		2,845									
Dyes.....	862		52	81	507	155					43	8,863
Sundry exports.....	144	87					165	152	1,017	256		
Total.....	698,674	518	714,061	1,087	648,008	22,017	342,447	7,578	403,635	119,980	30,064	193,901
Total exportation of colonial goods.....	699,192		715,148		670,025		350,025		523,615		223,965	
Imports reexported.....	152,887		21,102		18,520		6,150		251,159		6,227	
Grand total.....	852,079		736,250		688,545		356,175		774,774		229,192	

NOTE.—In certain cases specie is included among the imports reexported. The amounts are as follows:

Martinique.....	£ 24,800
French Guiana.....	6,011
Tahiti.....	1,042
French Guinea.....	1,188
Total.....	33,041

VALUE OF IMPORTS OF FRENCH COLONIES DURING THE YEAR 1896, DIVIDED ACCORDING TO CLASSES OF MERCHANDISE.  
[From British Consular Report.]

IVORY COAST.		DAHOMÉY.		KONGO.		MADAGAS- CAR.	ST. PIERRE AND MIQUELON.		COCHIN CHINA AND CAMBODIA.		ANAM.		TONKIN.	
French and French colonial goods.	Foreign goods.	French and French colonial goods.	Foreign goods.	French and French colonial goods.	Foreign goods.	Total im- ports.	French and French colonial goods.	Foreign goods.	French and French colonial goods.	Foreign goods.	French and French colonial goods.	Foreign goods.	French and French colonial goods.	Foreign goods.
£ 805 1,380 304	£ 2 8,085 334	£ 8 1,890 84	£ 130 1,737 200	£ 391 3,325 340	£ 96 4,699 3,255	£ 11,642 11,968 1,658	£ 30 6,723 26,105	£ 8,711 15,131 2,007	£ 9 7,683 518	£ 4,697 10,430 7,279	£ 201 508 158	£ 300 508 158	£ 434 12,697 1,101	£ 8,710 13,174 1,717
947 84 700 156 4 372 5 4,509	4,090 45 8,746 136 3 1,082 5 23,224	2,592 56 5,317 633 2 1,565 260 113,775	5,994 1,553 26,031 260 2 2,305 10 56,776	2,142 108 1,333 438 2 646 10 18,202	4,540 80 5,858 506 2 1,045 8 10,187	243 29,372 880 15,490 3,470 215 5,739 556 67,006	5 3,861 315 8,615 3,022 25 131 427 37,256	8,711 17,044 915 14,731 724 25 9,081 70 6,664	128 9,893 1,273 125,868 7,464 14 438 561 67,834	4,697 50,223 48,380 55,673 137,642 8,693 11,658 11,049 11,061	201 163 40 192 77 13,945 21 32 675	300 1,967 718 12,399 631 102 442 669 675	434 21,110 1,674 17,826 6,735 102 442 669 127,812	8,710 21,920 3,701 31,767 26,279 41,625 2,531 4,752 7,786
783 328 1,957 141 73 1,805 505 175	1,767 2,063 1,960 310 2,172 36,712 229 360	1,985 474 1,237 90 222 7,073 351 165	2,861 5,083 6,225 749 4,848 64,758 256 379	1,683 135 1,456 749 3,633 56,016 277 628	1,999 3,640 3,756 373 1,737 282,888 368 439	1,763 87,160 4,164 2,317 1,737 282,888 5,390 5,567	792 1,730 25,911 1,260 10,416 18,916 987 3,885	12,440 2,131 17,356 1,220 7,701 5,890 154 2,353	24,500 33,686 8,657 6,442 4,112 259,242 363,787 3,813	160,714 115,973 4,492 3,248 43,053 363,787 63,826 4,255	744 2,507 116 43 6 310 468 150	7,205 2,235 437 191 46,900 11,172 23,819 158	10,204 33,222 7,371 4,233 2,093 87,806 13,407 7,581	44,450 12,411 2,265 1,374 145,118 35,841 22,355 2,887
9,686 498 4,291 73 64 768	20,859 24,684 4,939 189 217 2,814	3,241 1,025 2,895 29 45 561 8 683	26,210 1,411 5,225 175 330 7,042 708 1,456	10,253 4,100 1,992 13 408 1,045 7,290 51	11,970 6,308 1,349 514 674 7,290 51	25,804 1,114 1,114 805 874 7,500 20	15,397 577 1,298 137 292 3,193 1,774 126	8,951 633 6,814 41 44 1,774 126	90,133 5,051 1,398 408 536 15,222 99	47,466 14,185 13,166 1,081 7,217 27,656 15,896	1,007 118 51 85 6 141 926	4,184 1,671 690 228 518 6,290 926	43,035 31,741 2,055 650 553 10,376 22	23,810 4,535 4,591 230 4,403 20,197 3,354
2,138	11,170	2,237	15,573	5,916	5,722	27,530	10,161	19,041	36,740	97,206	1,029	4,971	34,529	26,675
32,551	151,147	147,180	238,127	59,482	130,482	553,976	181,467	161,747	720,174	1,339,996	9,909	142,988	479,720	518,458
183,698		385,307		189,964			343,214		2,060,170		152,897		998,178	

VALUE OF EXPORTS OF FRENCH COLONIES DURING THE YEAR 1896, DIVIDED ACCORDING TO CLASSES OF PRODUCTS.

IVORY COAST.		DAHOMÉY.		KONGO.		MADAGAS- CAR.	ST. PIERRE AND MIQUELON.		COCHIN CHINA AND CAMBODIA.		ANAM.		TONKIN.	
France and colonies.	Foreign countries.	France and colonies.	Foreign countries.	France and colonies.	Foreign countries.	Total ex- ports.	France and colonies.	Foreign countries.	France and colonies.	Foreign countries.	France and colonies.	Foreign countries.	France and colonies.	Foreign countries.
£ 677	£ 1,501	£ 1,501	£ 168	£ 168	£ 168	£ 16,419 24,566	£ 145 308,662	£ 257 66,469	£ 130 6,845 2,474	£ 15,894 92,940 816,105	£ 1,054	£ 8,308 3,020 2,271	£ 14,820 283	£ 1,276 27,703 7,966
2,662 3,725 62,691 3,598	1,026 159 5,791 34,205 22,245 518	82,138 72,131	146,855 41,470	5,992 7,802 9,035	64,206 491 74,771 9,014	356 7,375 2,490 52,732 3,127 29,005			4,328 232,356 10,759 68,989 963 308	5,469 2,152,343 11,066 3,381 3,942 1,740 53,690 370	163 3,709 1,950 2,616 2,008 849 2,176 963	1,077 3,709 1,950 58,602 2,008 849 2,176 963	781 91,151 110 1,805 14,161 886 4,026 1,195 204	283 91,151 110 1,805 14,161 886 4,026 1,195 204
15,836	20,533					599 4,443				1,776 2,296 481 258 783		420 3,390 287 109 177 430	756 1,341 165 788 494 18,193	60,598 1,341 165 788 494 18,193
82	64	1,062	5	278	229	393	58	238	685	39,022		2,690 2,636	5,061	10,005 2,978
68,594	85,218	155,321	205,063	23,107	157,869	142,809	306,192	67,909	328,877	2,706,253	3,833	91,160	53,975	245,328
173,812 436		380,374 4,952		180,976 6,977			374,101 42,581		3,035,130 73,870		94,993		299,303 13,713	
174,248		385,326		187,953		142,809	416,632		3,109,000		94,993		313,016	

## COMMERCE OF ALGERIA WITH FRANCE AND FOREIGN COUNTRIES IN 1889-1898.

The British vice-consul, Mr. Drummond-Hay, in a recent report to the British Government, states that the general commerce of Algeria with France and foreign countries for the decade 1889 to 1898 (imports and exports included) has had an average volume estimated at 524,794,988 francs a year. This sum is an increase of 111,098,372 francs on the average for the preceding decade. The percentage of trade with the mother country has increased in the same period from 67.7 to 78.4 per cent of the whole.

With respect to imports, the increase in the average value has been 32,091,352 francs in the last ten years, while the export average has gone up from 178,190,809 francs to 257,645,570 francs, a difference of 79,454,761 francs.

The total excess of imports over exports from 1879 to 1888 was 573,149,967 francs; while from 1889 to 1898 it was only 95,038,480 francs.

During the year 1898 the general commerce of Algeria with the mother country, foreign countries, French colonies and protectorates attained a total (imports and exports included) of 587,991,745 francs. This is an increase of 15,362,255 francs on the previous year. The details are as follows:

IMPORTS.	Francs.	EXPORTS.	Francs.
French products .....	225,535,389	From Algeria to France during 1898 .....	232,136,851
Foreign products imported through France or directly from foreign countries .....	76,687,669	To foreign countries .....	56,631,836
Total, 1898 .....	302,223,058	Total .....	288,768,687
Equivalent in pounds sterling .....	12,088,922	Equivalent in pounds sterling .....	11,550,747

## IMPORTATIONS INTO ALGERIA, 1897 AND 1898.

[From official publications of the French Government.]

ARTICLES.	1898			1897			DIFFERENCES IN QUANTITIES AS COMPARED WITH THE RESULTS OF 1897.	
	French by origin or by importation to France.	From French bonded warehouses and from foreign countries.	Total.	French by origin or by importation to France.	From French bonded warehouses and from foreign countries.	Total.	Increase.	Decrease.
Arms, powder, and ammunition. ....	581,161	1,310	582,571	544,430	1,081	545,511	37,060	.....
Seagoing vessels. ....	1,943,757	23,509	1,967,266	1,874,626	18,654	1,893,280	1,805	.....
Butter and cheese. ....	2,209,721	582,865	2,792,586	2,336,649	526,748	2,863,397	70,811	.....
Beer. ....	3,937,875	928,345	4,866,220	4,057,740	861,939	4,919,679	132,746	.....
Jewelry and clockwork. ....	1,556,701	3,601	1,560,302	1,438,378	2,032	1,500,410	83,602	.....
Fancy articles, fans, brushes, and buttons. ....	1,139,564	71,362	1,210,926	1,242,341	64,955	1,307,296	10,534	.....
Timber. ....	667,026	24,833	691,859	640,649	17,698	658,347	47,834	.....
Candles of all sorts. ....	4,607,942	213,479	4,821,421	5,288,345	146,781	5,435,126	10,209	.....
Coffee. ....	21,355	40,671	62,026	29,641	10,919	40,560	19,328	.....
Carriages and parts of carriages. ....	2,083,009	3,917,112	6,000,121	2,077,971	4,426,303	6,504,274	92,704	.....
Cereals (grain and flour). ....	2,159,760	10,23	2,169,999	2,118,007	4,158	2,122,165	218,314	.....
Hats of straw, bark, or esparto, etc. ....	2,591,712	12,287	2,603,999	2,541,608	4,990	2,546,598	8,019	.....
Horses. ....	738	4,492,942	4,493,680	1,049	4,482,422	4,483,471	19,328	.....
Chocolate. ....	1,071	6,066,098	6,067,169	1,877	6,096,094	6,097,971	19,006	.....
Colors. ....	1,562,103	6,149	1,568,252	815,794	19,307	335,101	1,233,156	.....
Copper. ....	3,038,10	19,487	3,057,597	1,054,142	39,292	1,093,734	246,508	.....
Brandies, spirits, or liquors. ....	237,603	730,972	968,575	181,091	587,976	722,067	2,149	.....
Medicinal herbs. ....	8,292,195	12,957,390	21,249,585	5,301,983	8,492,235	13,794,218	7,302	.....
Thread of all sorts. ....	40,759	163	40,922	41,750	1,321	43,071	19,328	.....
Cast-iron, iron, and steel. ....	716,670	2,592	719,262	857,970	7,603	865,573	92,704	.....
Preserved fruit, sweet biscuits, sirups, sweets, and jams. ....	279	413	722	7,686	8,021	8,743	1,701,239	.....
Fruit, table, dry or preserved. ....	279,550	453,600	733,150	76,880	347,500	424,380	.....	.....
Sowing seeds. ....	106,468	719	107,187	87,010	849	87,859	.....	.....
Grease, animal. ....	319,404	2,157	321,561	261,030	2,547	263,577	.....	.....
Meal, semolina, pearled grain, macaroni, etc. ....	904,808	18,854	923,662	1,000,840	15,026	1,015,866	.....	.....
Coal. ....	971,120	15,478	986,598	1,046,144	17,985	1,064,129	.....	.....
Oils, pure (olive oil included). ....	563,203	7,432	570,635	244,700	7,621	252,321	.....	.....
Oils of petroleum (refined and heavy). ....	1,404,891	33,038	1,437,929	403,755	35,350	439,105	.....	.....
Oils, volatile, and essences. ....	80,966	232	81,198	73,073	106	73,179	.....	.....
	4,427,786	23,976	4,451,762	4,062,841	7,478	4,070,319	.....	.....
	152,919	25,454	178,373	156,957	40,421	197,378	.....	.....
	404,253	74,779	479,032	374,487	120,677	495,164	.....	.....
	1,598,927	145,965	1,744,892	1,157,429	214,937	1,372,366	.....	.....
	2,630,709	297,406	2,928,115	2,153,619	523,568	2,677,187	.....	.....
	21,127,248	211,245	21,338,493	20,029,349	283,203	20,312,552	.....	.....
	3,316,979	18,378	3,335,357	2,949,523	50,866	3,000,389	.....	.....
	765,693	51,767	817,460	720,573	65,105	785,678	.....	.....
	1,042,740	64,024	1,106,764	970,479	78,545	1,049,024	.....	.....
	1,531,793	8,411,613	4,943,406	2,500,197	4,144,448	6,644,645	.....	.....
	708,289	1,273,249	1,981,538	940,282	1,178,598	2,118,880	.....	.....
	254,304	24,228	278,532	172,160	48,939	221,099	.....	.....
	279,734	25,439	305,173	184,211	47,960	232,171	.....	.....
	1,719,778	22,357	1,742,135	1,617,065	20,742	1,637,107	.....	.....
	1,154,899	16,768	1,171,667	892,459	11,309	903,768	.....	.....
	5,631,871	19,863	5,651,734	5,190,988	17,214	5,208,202	.....	.....
	1,980,275	7,020	1,987,295	1,725,409	5,336	1,730,745	.....	.....
		5,258,720	5,258,720		4,840,985	4,840,985	.....	.....
		10,096,742	10,096,742		8,423,314	8,423,314	.....	.....
		3,807,966	10,772,594		3,096,192	10,002,069	.....	.....
		1,519,782	4,683,005		1,322,353	4,772,798	.....	.....
		6,500,869	10,185,607		4,050,886	9,000,568	.....	.....
		768,079	1,291,509		558,155	1,108,615	.....	.....
		3,029	15,880		2,271	4,264	.....	.....
		173,660	623,289		76,645	156,945	.....	.....

<sup>1</sup> Tons measurement.



## IMPORTATIONS INTO ALGERIA, 1897 AND 1898—Continued.

ARTICLES.		1898			1897			DIFFERENCES IN QUANTITIES AS COMPARED WITH THE RESULTS OF 1897.	
		French by origin or by importation to France.	From French bonded warehouses and from foreign countries.	Total.	French by origin or by importation to France.	From French bonded warehouses and from foreign countries.	Total.	Increase.	Decrease.
Vegetables, fresh, preserved, and salted .....	kilos ..	879,693	958,621	1,838,314	925,786	641,020	1,566,806	271,508	.....
	francs ..	415,294	432,471	847,772	422,378	350,494	781,872	.....	.....
Vegetables, dry, their flours, and potatoes .....	kilos ..	25,551,679	5,113,171	30,664,850	22,711,550	4,864,977	27,576,527	3,088,323	.....
	francs ..	2,906,192	988,438	3,894,630	2,914,079	826,519	3,740,598	.....	.....
Machines and machinery .....	kilos ..	5,305,900	1,196,505	6,502,405	3,325,562	818,273	4,143,835	2,357,570	.....
	francs ..	6,670,528	1,521,768	8,192,296	3,795,544	1,146,288	4,941,832	.....	.....
Marble of all kinds .....	kilos ..	1,521,271	10,162	1,531,433	1,524,594	93,303	1,617,897	86,464	.....
	francs ..	317,555	11,328	328,883	318,932	21,410	340,342	.....	.....
Building materials .....	quintals ..	978,295	5,021	983,316	888,083	8,418	896,501	86,815	.....
	francs ..	2,705,065	14,127	2,719,192	2,190,643	24,021	2,214,664	.....	.....
Medicines .....	kilos ..	167,311	3,907	171,218	136,424	3,625	140,049	31,164	.....
	francs ..	687,719	20,422	708,141	545,973	20,538	566,511	.....	.....
Furniture and woodwork .....	kilos ..	43,374,438	363,754	43,738,192	36,383,847	864,943	37,248,790	6,489,402	.....
	francs ..	10,846,990	183,565	11,030,555	9,224,514	294,867	9,519,381	.....	.....
Mules .....	head ..	952	1,677	2,629	699	1,687	2,386	942	.....
	francs ..	666,400	828,500	1,504,900	480,300	494,000	974,300	.....	.....
Tools and metal work .....	kilos ..	16,190,802	451,350	16,642,152	13,632,194	390,023	14,022,217	2,519,935	.....
	francs ..	9,791,009	515,083	10,306,092	8,428,593	547,577	8,976,170	.....	.....
Rubber and gutta-percha articles .....	kilos ..	80,257	1,520	81,777	66,060	436	66,496	15,281	.....
	francs ..	659,797	12,560	672,357	548,346	3,630	551,976	.....	.....
Skin and leather articles .....	kilos ..	535,646	11,427	547,073	496,479	11,835	508,314	38,759	.....
	francs ..	7,917,518	146,067	8,063,585	7,767,103	148,076	7,915,179	.....	.....
Paper, cardboard, books, and engravings .....	kilos ..	6,875,603	58,414	6,934,017	5,904,524	63,307	5,967,831	966,186	.....
	francs ..	4,757,910	153,318	4,911,228	4,788,753	130,318	4,919,071	.....	.....
Perfumery and soap .....	kilos ..	9,290,238	7,303	9,297,541	10,259,163	14,124	10,243,287	975,346	.....
	francs ..	4,701,887	4,752	4,706,639	4,680,148	5,000	4,685,148	.....	.....
Skins and furs, raw .....	kilos ..	325,627	702,519	1,028,146	189,886	426,335	616,221	413,825	.....
	francs ..	648,490	1,644,025	2,292,515	366,580	1,554,622	1,921,202	.....	.....
Skins, prepared .....	kilos ..	1,118,915	24,955	1,143,870	1,008,115	21,899	1,030,014	143,856	.....
	francs ..	6,949,421	325,682	7,275,103	5,965,292	294,954	6,260,246	.....	.....
Fish, fresh, dry, salted or otherwise preserved .....	kilos ..	1,862,646	425,934	2,288,580	1,914,177	363,362	2,277,539	11,041	.....
	francs ..	1,318,640	346,835	1,665,475	1,269,032	310,441	1,579,473	.....	.....
Pottery and glass .....	kilos ..	14,844,752	890,679	15,735,431	15,967,054	1,081,686	16,048,740	293,319	.....
	francs ..	4,032,465	237,576	4,270,041	4,215,641	292,435	4,508,076	.....	.....
Chemical products .....	kilos ..	14,455,110	950,497	15,405,607	14,318,568	2,551,697	16,870,265	1,464,658	.....
	francs ..	1,931,171	131,815	2,062,986	1,695,586	424,769	2,120,355	.....	.....
Rice, its flour, and semolina .....	kilos ..	6,037,553	438,659	6,476,212	5,177,003	204,307	5,381,310	1,094,902	.....
	francs ..	1,629,712	109,665	1,739,377	1,397,719	53,120	1,450,839	.....	.....
Silk .....	kilos ..	11,624	5,812	17,436	16,235	7,799	24,034	6,598	.....
	francs ..	321,796	186,333	508,129	419,002	238,792	657,794	.....	.....
Sulphur .....	kilos ..	11,513,424	833,142	12,346,566	10,273,629	2,208,525	12,482,154	135,618	.....
	francs ..	1,685,732	149,015	1,834,747	1,372,361	361,407	1,733,768	.....	.....
Sugar, raw and refined .....	kilos ..	14,621,839	31,676	14,653,515	13,740,551	62,546	13,803,097	850,409	.....
	francs ..	4,346,883	10,099	4,356,982	4,317,574	19,386	4,336,960	.....	.....
Tobacco in leaf .....	kilos ..	.....	885,213	885,213	.....	1,347,227	1,347,227	462,014	.....
	francs ..	.....	1,549,123	1,549,123	.....	2,061,257	2,061,257	.....	.....
Tobacco, manufactured .....	kilos ..	41,828	134,844	176,672	82,999	271,869	304,868	128,196	.....
	francs ..	224,198	1,015,788	1,239,986	177,249	2,643,131	2,820,380	.....	.....
Cotton tissues and ribbons .....	kilos ..	8,920,094	371,189	9,291,283	8,520,507	390,160	8,910,667	380,616	.....
	francs ..	28,016,206	1,810,869	29,827,075	27,761,618	1,869,539	29,631,157	.....	.....
Woolen tissues and ribbons .....	kilos ..	567,220	103,402	670,622	795,243	111,269	906,512	235,890	.....
	francs ..	6,519,061	910,259	7,429,320	8,834,305	518,971	9,353,276	.....	.....
Flax, hemp, and ramie tissues and ribbons .....	kilos ..	361,329	45,165	406,494	402,007	770	402,777	3,717	.....
	francs ..	1,453,264	273,984	1,727,248	1,689,514	7,464	1,696,978	.....	.....
Silk tissues and ribbons .....	kilos ..	15,772	3,345	19,117	20,609	5,918	26,527	7,410	.....
	francs ..	950,534	241,916	1,192,450	1,279,189	848,684	1,627,873	.....	.....
Jute tissues .....	kilos ..	5,316,146	21,690	5,337,836	3,310,282	16,607	3,326,889	2,010,947	.....
	francs ..	3,643,935	16,589	3,660,524	2,581,370	21,300	2,602,670	.....	.....
Basket work .....	kilos ..	286,393	106,100	392,493	233,368	72,891	306,259	86,234	.....
	francs ..	283,890	104,935	388,825	255,132	70,732	325,864	.....	.....
Ready-made clothes and linen .....	kilos ..	743,956	39,031	783,047	548,564	39,869	588,433	194,614	.....
	francs ..	12,911,850	699,341	13,611,191	11,979,749	684,938	12,664,687	.....	.....
Meat, fresh, salted or otherwise preserved .....	kilos ..	1,167,510	286,512	1,454,022	1,041,038	250,319	1,291,357	162,665	.....
	francs ..	2,322,881	429,552	2,752,433	1,886,411	354,450	2,240,861	.....	.....
Wines, ordinary, and liquor .....	hectoliters ..	30,214	24,783	54,997	43,410	11,514	54,924	73	.....
	francs ..	3,020,490	832,119	3,852,609	3,484,340	426,998	3,911,338	.....	.....
Zinc .....	kilos ..	536,700	2,664,570	3,201,270	517,648	739,470	1,257,118	2,461,800	.....
	francs ..	358,942	586,205	945,147	297,540	44,713	342,253	.....	.....
Parcels post .....	francs ..	30,394,335	.....	30,394,335	35,532,945	.....	35,532,945	4,138,010	.....
Other articles .....	francs ..	6,530,682	10,055,391	16,586,073	7,267,327	10,028,562	17,295,889	.....	.....
Total (francs) .....	francs ..	225,535,389	76,687,669	302,223,058	216,175,322	60,726,105	276,901,427	.....	.....
Increase in value, 1898 .....	francs ..	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	25,322,631	.....

## EXPORTATIONS FROM ALGERIA, 1897 AND 1898.

ARTICLES.	1898			1897			DIFFERENCES IN QUANTITIES AS COMPARED WITH THE RESULTS OF 1897.	
	For France.	For foreign countries.	Total.	For France.	For foreign countries.	Total.	Increase.	Decrease.
Sheep.....	head 1,163,793	1,723	1,165,516	1,076,419	1,029	1,077,448	88,068	.....
.....	frances 22,927,308	39,109	22,966,417	20,564,733	23,687	20,588,425	.....	.....
Cattle.....	head 41,656	4,136	45,792	40,450	1,046	41,496	4,296	.....
.....	frances 12,495,347	1,316,810	13,812,157	13,908,478	521,668	14,430,146	.....	.....
Cereals, grain and flour.....	quintals 1,419,743	138,466	1,558,209	1,033,733	74,678	2,108,411	.....	550,202
.....	frances 29,312,812	2,435,099	31,747,911	21,912,204	1,570,189	23,482,393	.....	.....
.....	kilos 1,355	775	2,130	4,648	834	5,482	.....	3,352
Coral, raw.....	frances 101,625	49,406	151,031	395,080	60,257	455,337	.....	.....
.....	kilos 7,163,459	14,255,839	21,419,298	7,909,858	20,955,595	28,965,453	.....	7,546,155
Vegetable hair.....	frances 1,550,147	1,568,142	3,118,289	1,581,972	2,306,115	3,887,087	.....	.....
.....	hectols 15,528	1,374	16,902	12,245	515	12,760	4,142	.....
Brandies, spirits and liquors.....	frances 1,178,008	112,182	1,290,190	982,560	39,349	1,021,909	.....	.....
.....	kilos 5,822,479	5,499,760	11,322,239	6,111,206	5,080,575	11,191,785	127,454	.....
Tan barks, ground or otherwise.....	frances 553,136	522,477	1,075,613	580,830	482,654	1,063,484	.....	.....
.....	kilos 115,696	38,849	154,545	177,063	19,830	196,893	.....	42,348
Medicinal herbs.....	frances 285,581	100,115	385,696	338,839	46,214	445,044	.....	.....
.....	kilos 1,618,134	4,343,374	5,961,508	3,122,542	8,671,711	11,794,253	.....	5,802,745
Hay.....	frances 243,924	642,819	886,743	465,259	1,292,085	1,757,344	.....	.....
.....	kilos 21,227,985	1,214,070	22,442,055	16,491,327	139,832	16,631,259	5,820,796	.....
Table fruit.....	frances 4,792,060	237,093	5,029,153	3,883,145	38,789	3,921,925	.....	.....
.....	kilos 1,407,253	46,721	1,453,974	960,242	263,455	1,223,697	230,277	.....
Meal, semolina.....	frances 464,393	15,418	479,811	297,675	81,671	379,346	.....	.....
.....	quintals.....	3,463,185	3,463,185	.....	3,385,100	3,385,100	78,085	.....
Coal for bunkers.....	frances.....	6,649,315	6,649,315	.....	5,890,074	5,890,074	.....	.....
.....	kilos 1,348,319	33,970	1,382,289	1,099,498	28,788	1,128,286	254,003	.....
Olive oil.....	frances 728,092	16,985	745,077	633,311	15,238	648,549	.....	8,904
.....	kilos 44,617	5,166	49,783	40,673	206	40,879	.....	.....
Essential oils or essences.....	frances 1,561,595	180,810	1,742,405	1,423,555	112,210	1,535,765	.....	.....
.....	kilos 5,128,666	31,789	5,160,455	6,815,917	203,045	7,018,962	.....	1,858,507
Wool.....	frances 8,000,718	49,591	8,050,309	9,814,920	292,355	10,107,305	.....	.....
.....	kilos 6,604,334	95,420	6,699,754	5,890,313	68,759	6,959,072	.....	259,318
Vegetables, fresh.....	frances 1,651,084	71,565	1,722,649	1,472,578	27,731	1,500,309	.....	.....
.....	kilos 1,800,496	57,320	1,857,815	947,073	295,251	1,242,324	615,491	.....
Vegetables, dry, and their flours.....	frances 357,115	16,460	373,575	197,649	79,388	277,037	.....	.....
.....	kilos 4,236,817	4,121,655	8,358,472	6,300,027	5,662,977	11,963,004	.....	.....
Corkwood, raw, scraped, etc., in boards.....	frances 2,118,409	2,060,828	4,179,237	3,150,014	2,831,489	5,981,503	.....	3,604,532
.....	kilos 92,940	3,566	96,506	89,076	43,536	132,612	.....	36,106
Cork, worked.....	frances 464,700	17,830	482,530	445,380	217,680	663,060	.....	.....
.....	quintals 682,247	4,149,431	4,831,678	648,020	3,858,590	4,506,610	325,068	.....
Iron ore.....	frances 614,022	3,527,016	4,141,038	583,218	3,360,832	3,944,050	.....	.....
.....	kilos.....	2,428,822	2,428,822	.....	2,421,723	2,421,723	7,099	.....
Lead.....	frances.....	388,612	388,612	.....	242,172	242,172	.....	.....
.....	kilos 3,279,000	32,665,195	35,944,195	1,549,218	24,979	1,574,297	34,369,898	.....
Zinc.....	frances 721,380	1,602,579	2,323,959	247,875	1,423,803	1,671,678	.....	.....
.....	kilos 2,367,077	803,448	3,170,525	1,849,322	692,925	2,542,247	628,278	.....
Skins and furs, raw.....	frances 7,337,115	2,609,675	9,946,790	5,739,371	1,792,562	7,531,933	.....	.....
.....	kilos 60,985	23,545	84,530	58,952	17,442	76,394	8,136	.....
Skins and furs, prepared, articles of leather or skin.....	frances 299,915	228,200	528,115	313,342	165,883	479,225	.....	.....
.....	quintals 703,700	1,794,072	2,500,772	656,407	1,525,707	2,181,114	.....	.....
Phosphates.....	frances 2,826,800	7,176,286	10,003,086	2,625,629	6,102,828	8,728,457	.....	.....
.....	kilos 1,603,211	996,931	2,600,142	2,095,044	1,225,747	3,320,791	.....	720,649
Fish, fresh, dry, smoked, or otherwise prepared.....	frances 1,440,090	811,920	2,252,010	1,837,613	979,916	2,817,529	.....	.....
.....	kilos 6,069,634	347,659	6,417,293	4,186,725	374,491	4,561,216	1,856,077	.....
Potatoes.....	frances 364,178	20,860	385,038	288,383	26,214	314,597	.....	.....
.....	kilos 2,712,188	58,559	2,770,747	2,463,571	406,279	2,869,850	.....	99,103
Bran from all grains.....	frances 325,464	7,027	332,491	270,993	44,691	315,684	.....	.....
.....	kilos 2,217,515	95,661,560	97,879,075	2,515,861	85,072,916	2,598,777	95,280,298	.....
Alfa or sparta.....	frances 554,379	6,582,732	7,137,111	603,172	6,167,162	6,770,334	.....	.....
.....	kilos 1,435,220	62,660	1,497,880	3,421,605	102,825	3,524,430	.....	2,026,450
Tobacco, leaf.....	frances 2,511,635	109,655	2,621,290	5,234,903	157,322	5,392,225	.....	.....
.....	kilos 553,269	682,680	1,235,949	508,677	671,572	1,180,249	55,650	.....
Tobacco, manufactured.....	frances 5,441,892	6,129,023	11,570,915	5,327,360	6,324,886	11,652,246	.....	.....
.....	kilos 829,307	541,963	1,371,270	1,255,279	594,321	1,849,610	.....	478,340
Tartrates of potash.....	frances 783,959	312,058	1,096,017	905,112	250,205	1,155,317	.....	12,373
.....	kilos 13,751	39,368	53,119	22,075	43,417	65,492	.....	.....
Clothes and linen, ready made.....	frances 208,928	701,804	910,732	284,815	786,438	1,070,753	.....	.....
.....	hectols 3,591,672	27,880	3,619,552	3,784,876	25,529	3,810,405	.....	390,853
Wine.....	frances 116,159,276	908,834	117,068,110	135,485,292	899,256	136,384,548	.....	.....
.....	kilos 18,461	4,218	22,679	3,138	4,098	7,236	15,443	.....
Parcels post.....	frances 276,915	63,270	340,185	47,070	61,470	108,540	.....	.....
Other articles.....	frances 3,684,939	6,350,231	10,035,170	4,177,130	5,095,548	9,272,678	.....	.....
Total.....	frances 232,136,851	53,631,836	285,768,687	245,978,961	49,749,102	295,728,063	.....	.....
Decrease in value, 1898.....	frances.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	9,959,376

## IMPORTS INTO THE FRENCH COLONY OF MARTINIQUE DURING THE YEAR 1899.

FROM—	Number of vessels.	Tonnage.	VALUE OF MERCHANDISE.		
			French.	Foreign.	Total.
France.....	105	89,192	12,693,833	536,888	13,230,726
French colonies.....	195	19,598	1,487,789	76,852	1,564,641
United States.....	90	90,759	.....	7,560,298	7,560,298
Other countries.....	243	115,960	.....	4,648,861	4,648,861
Total.....	633	315,509	14,181,627	12,822,899	27,004,526
France.....	.....	.....	.....	14,181,627	.....
Total imports, 1899.....	.....	.....	.....	27,004,526	.....
Total imports, 1898.....	.....	.....	.....	24,368,798	.....
Increase, 1899.....	.....	.....	.....	2,635,728	.....

## EXPORTS FROM THE FRENCH COLONY OF MARTINIQUE DURING THE YEAR 1899.

FROM—	Number of vessels.	Tonnage.	VALUE OF PRODUCE, ETC.			
			French.	Foreign.	Produce of colony.	Total.
France .....	122	87,454	<i>Francs.</i> 953,743	<i>Francs.</i> 623,283	<i>Francs.</i> 22,635,244	<i>Francs.</i> 24,212,270
French colonies .....	187	15,976	404,167	99,493	218,414	721,984
United States .....	22	14,972	411	54	494	659
Other countries .....	308	195,438	864,466	1,286,160	17,608	1,668,334
Total .....	634	813,840	1,722,437	2,008,900	22,871,760	26,603,147
Foreign .....					2,008,900	
France .....					1,722,437	
Grand total, 1899 .....					26,603,147	
Grand total, 1898 .....					22,344,860	
Increase, 1899 .....					4,258,287	

## FRENCH INDO-CHINA.

## COMPARATIVE VALUE OF FRENCH AND FOREIGN GOODS WHICH ENTERED INDO-CHINA IN THE YEARS 1884-1898.

[In Mexican dollars.]

YEARS.	FRENCH ORIGIN.			FOREIGN ORIGIN.			General total.	Average rate of exchange.	Converted into francs.
	Piece goods.	Other goods.	Total.	Piece goods.	Other goods.	Total.			
	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Dollars.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>	
1884 .....	112,766.00	2,164,410.00	2,277,176.00	5,226,226.00	6,035,501.00	11,465,727.00	13,772,973.00	4.58	63,080,216.34
1885 .....	89,587.00	3,014,283.00	3,103,870.00	5,147,029.00	6,216,389.00	9,363,418.00	12,467,293.00	4.40	54,856,029.39
1886 .....	250,571.00	2,140,999.00	2,391,570.00	4,567,642.00	8,403,704.00	12,691,246.00	15,082,816.00	4.06	61,256,232.96
1887 .....	276,247.00	1,784,261.00	2,060,508.00	3,262,052.00	6,416,016.00	9,618,568.00	11,689,076.00	3.95	46,171,849.20
1888 .....	221,703.00	2,144,888.50	2,366,591.50	2,929,988.75	4,414,022.62	7,344,011.37	9,710,552.87	3.82	37,094,311.96
1889 .....	999,974.50	1,281,812.50	2,221,787.00	2,045,096.00	4,623,016.47	6,668,812.47	8,890,699.47	3.82	33,932,029.00
1890 .....	841,773.25	1,486,711.00	2,328,484.25	2,945,399.25	4,094,030.20	7,043,829.55	9,371,873.80	4.42	39,336,870.00
1891 .....	1,199,933.75	2,386,336.75	3,586,270.50	2,410,052.00	4,066,628.63	6,476,680.63	10,072,961.13	4.04	40,803,054.00
1892 .....	916,894.00	2,190,120.00	3,107,014.00	2,472,552.00	5,183,272.16	7,655,824.16	10,762,533.16	3.50	38,657,512.00
1893 .....	1,042,566.96	2,209,507.11	3,252,074.06	3,239,355.56	6,062,068.54	9,302,104.40	12,654,178.46	2.25	40,801,080.00
1894 .....	919,641.23	3,182,810.65	4,112,451.88	3,004,122.57	6,612,449.50	9,616,572.07	13,729,003.35	2.67	36,656,438.94
1895 .....	2,781,788.00	3,741,337.00	6,523,125.00	4,503,220.00	10,821,272.00	15,324,592.00	21,847,717.00	2.67	58,533,405.00
1896 .....	2,392,851.00	4,274,880.00	6,667,731.00	3,565,027.00	10,095,000.00	13,662,027.00	20,070,158.00	2.73	54,791,531.00
1897 .....	3,663,722.50	7,490,083.00	11,153,805.50	2,908,336.25	14,140,709.57	16,569,045.82	27,662,861.32	2.48	68,591,089.00
1898 .....	2,926,301.00	6,817,155.11	9,743,456.11	2,591,690.13	11,885,000.31	14,376,290.34	24,118,746.45	2.44	58,126,178.94

## NETHERLANDS COLONIES.

## SUGAR PRODUCTION IN JAVA FROM 1875 TO 1900.

YEARS.	Quantity.	YEARS.	Quantity.
	<i>Tons.</i>		<i>Tons.</i>
1875 .....	198,634	1888 .....	355,334
1876 .....	237,870	1889 .....	332,997
1877 .....	246,814	1890 .....	399,999
1878 .....	224,689	1891 .....	406,000
1879 .....	223,362	1892 .....	422,000
1880 .....	218,179	1893 .....	479,660
1881 .....	279,707	1894 .....	484,260
1882 .....	292,005	1895 .....	537,690
1883 .....	324,764	1896 .....	490,061
1884 .....	394,247	1897 .....	548,611
1885 .....	380,046	1898 .....	683,032
1886 .....	356,022	1899 .....	780,842
1887 .....	375,784	1900 .....	710,150

## EXPORTS OF SUGAR CROP FOR YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31, 1900, COMPARED WITH THE YEARS 1898 AND 1899.

COUNTRIES.	Quantity.		
	1898	1899	1900
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
Europe .....	200,906	279,013	6,685
America .....	233,388	213,802	419,808
Australia .....	2,491	10,325	72,990
China .....	118,782	96,015	113,474
Japan .....	12,318	7,067	81,659
Other countries .....	24,083	80,074	34,690
Total .....	566,967	636,286	679,106

## CUSTOMS RECEIPTS IN JAVA AND MADURA DURING THE YEARS 1899-1900.

[Value of florin, 40.2 cents.]

DESCRIPTION.	AMOUNT.	
	1899	1900
Import duty.....	<i>Florins.</i> 7,392,862.64	<i>Florins.</i> 7,645,441.82
Export duty.....	960,343.18	933,484.59
Excise on—		
Spirituous liquors.....	183,853.38	176,014.57
Tobacco.....	8,226.06	13,505.44
Petroleum.....	3,500,080.83	3,642,722.55
Matches.....	1,274,122.10	1,684,717.93
Store rent.....	37,687.84	43,870.28
Remuneration for services.....	4,923.00	4,282.00
Fines and forfeitures.....	18,976.58	2,906.38
Other receipts.....	30,125.81	29,214.79
Sales of unclaimed property, etc.....	2,984.64	8,802.22
Total.....	13,414,186.06	14,179,962.62
Equivalent in pounds sterling.....	1,117,849	1,181,663

NOTE.—In 1898 the amount was 12,611,531.54 florins; in 1897, 13,073,682.58 florins, and in 1896, 12,239,406.95 florins.

## RETURN OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF EXPORT FROM JAVA AND MADURA DURING THE YEARS 1897-1900.

[From British Consular Report.]

ARTICLES.	QUANTITY.			
	1897	1898	1899	1900
Sugar (all kinds).....tons..	506,237	672,680	796,324	712,210
Coffee:				
Private.....do.....	26,400	19,471	35,968	33,165
Government.....do.....	23,880	10,356	8,938	7,201
Rice.....do.....	18,236	36,211	43,265	36,476
Arrack.....gallons.....	499,016	404,477	430,274	553,152
Rattans.....tons.....	941	496	857	1,912
Hides.....pieces.....	435,290	504,058	499,703	522,038
Nutmegs.....pounds.....	81,600	182,784	241,400	231,472
Tobacco.....do.....	30,223,416	49,853,656	53,417,672	63,241,224
Indigo.....do.....	2,107,921	2,556,133	1,784,553	1,537,149
Gum damar.....cwts.....	28,327	81,379	36,137	30,284
Kapok.....packages.....	34,251	51,919	51,682	68,903
India rubber.....pounds.....	59,840	67,728	78,880	213,112
Tea.....do.....	11,218,559	12,110,724	12,841,702	15,406,984
Tin:				
Private.....tons.....	5,436	5,194	5,248	6,045
Government.....do.....	8,137	8,934	11,359	14,440
Cinchona bark:				
Private.....pounds.....	7,901,502	11,273,877	11,698,871	11,349,577
Government.....do.....	597,224	849,433	715,631	719,141
Sulphate of quinine.....ounces.....	.....	468,800	301,600	766,400
Gutta-percha.....pounds.....	3,128	25,704	146,744	646,544
Mace.....do.....	12,452	87,176	33,048	44,064
Pepper.....do.....	12,409,184	8,686,864	18,840,272	9,830,352
Copra.....tons.....	5,541	2,467	45,331	34,637
Cocoa.....pounds.....	1,920,184	2,073,592	2,116,976	4,464,200
Tapioca.....tons.....	939	8,783	8,120	5,438

## PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF IMPORT INTO JAVA (INCLUDING MADURA) DURING THE YEARS 1899-1900.

ARTICLES.	1899		1900	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Cotton goods:				
Unbleached—		£		£
Holland .....		254,691		238,080
United Kingdom .....		238,848		242,900
Other countries .....		12,651		7,688
Bleached—				
Holland .....		616,124		568,827
United Kingdom .....		395,729		350,675
Other countries .....		26,381		15,680
Printed and colored—				
Holland .....		364,321		395,160
United Kingdom .....		414,310		446,761
Other countries .....		117,583		43,806
Woolen goods:				
Holland .....		91,854		78,025
United Kingdom .....		17,651		18,100
Other countries .....		26,493		19,937
Haberdashery and mercery .....		181,348		189,371
Provisions .....		396,731		389,827
Copper sheathing and plates .....		17,207		23,692
Earthenware .....		137,336		135,623
Glass and glassware .....		51,031		52,787
Gunny bags .....		60,372		57,864
Iron and steel .....		71,944		123,940
Nails .....		26,157		71,879
Paint and paint oils .....		39,613		39,514
Soap .....		22,351		27,571
Tar .....		3,382		2,496
Zinc .....		6,826		7,809
Sundries .....		1,894,126		2,210,786
Fish:				
Dried and salted .....	pounds..	75,773,339		74,730,384
Unenumerated .....		24,353		19,973
Butter .....	pounds..	2,128,138		2,177,694
Flour .....	do.	20,137,017		24,447,822
Rice .....	tons..	52,425		115,305
Coals:				
United Kingdom .....	do.	56,346		42,149
Australia .....	do.	52,834		29,623
Other countries .....	do.	3,866		33,693
Petroleum .....	gallons..	13,258,419		15,127,581
Brandy .....	do.	48,771		54,251
Gin .....	do.	262,438		213,491
Wines .....	do.	232,366		222,779
Beer .....	do.	222,855		213,667
Liquors, spirits .....	do.	16,147		16,538
Champagne .....	bottles..	50,623		50,435
Mineral waters .....	do.	911,534		885,653
Matches .....	gross of boxes..	1,628,383		2,523,645

## IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF DUTCH GUIANA, BY COUNTRIES, IN THE CALENDAR YEAR 1900.

[From British Consular Report.]

The imports to the colony for the year 1900 amounted to £513,882, and the exports to £461,738, as shown in the following table:

COUNTRIES.	VALUE.	
	Imports.	Exports.
Netherlands.....	£ 249,375	£ 162,858
Dutch colonies.....	1,735	8,755
United Kingdom.....	56,315	29,838
British colonies.....	45,689	12,494
United States.....	118,270	262,073
France.....	2,668	550
French colonies.....	123,124	116
Other countries.....	6,706	554
Total.....	513,882	461,738

<sup>1</sup> The imports from the French colonies include 266,444 grams of raw gold, of which were exported to the Netherlands 237,359 grams; United Kingdom, 1,672 grams; and to France and other places 887 grams.

## IMPORTS OF DUTCH GUIANA, SHOWING PRINCIPAL ARTICLES AND COUNTRIES OF ORIGIN.

ARTICLES.	Total value.	WHENCE SHIPPED.		
		Holland.	United States.	United Kingdom and colonies.
Potatoes.....	£ 5,075	£ 4,850	.....	85
Beer.....	18,955	18,720	25	830
Flour and meal.....	29,448	18	26,051	4,377
Butter, etc.....	18,717	17,167	1,132	899
Biscuits.....	8,913	1,523	1,616	646
Provisions, tinned.....	14,771	7,661	3,203	2,794
Spirits.....	10,277	9,379	69	517
Grain and pulse.....	11,309	3,885	1,950	5,447
Haberdashery.....	10,168	6,090	796	1,456
Cottons and woollens.....	56,690	27,737	1,109	27,565
Clothing, manufactured.....	11,123	5,190	1,590	3,578
Oils, vegetable.....	8,204	6,921	82	893
Oils, mineral.....	8,348	.....	8,237	111
Rice.....	30,062	27,453	.....	2,608
Coal.....	3,055	.....	956	2,095
Tobacco and cigars.....	9,533	7,292	1,926	305
Wines.....	4,559	8,420	33	153
Lumber.....	6,590	.....	5,660	903
Boots and shoes.....	4,338	2,884	187	1,222
Cheese.....	7,067	7,067	.....	.....
Chemicals.....	5,948	4,620	401	828
Machinery, etc.....	27,662	10,855	11,407	5,355
Soap, unscented.....	4,588	803	1,944	1,670

**OFFICIAL ESTIMATES OF EXPENDITURES OF THE GERMAN GOVERNMENT FOR ITS COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES FOR 1900-1901.**

[From British Consular Report.]

The estimated receipts and expenditure for the German protectorates for the financial year 1901 are balanced at £2,037,530, the corresponding figures for the current year being £1,637,235 10s. The provisions for German Samoa for the year 1900 were included in a supplementary estimate. The amount asked for from the imperial treasury for contributing toward the cost of the colonies is put at £1,673,230, or £309,987 more than the total of State grants for the previous year. In the estimates for New Guinea and the Carolines alone, the State subsidies fall below those asked for in 1900.

**GERMAN COLONIAL ESTIMATES.**

	1901	1900	Increase.	Decrease.
	£	£ s.	£ s.	£
German East Africa .....	617,450	485,433 0	132,017 0	.....
Kamerun .....	189,440	162,250 0	27,190 0	.....
Togo .....	72,400	87,500 0	84,900 0	.....
Southwest Africa .....	536,380	387,715 0	148,665 0	.....
New Guinea .....	40,485	46,175 0	.....	5,690
Carolines, etc .....	15,575	18,500 0	.....	2,925
Samoa .....	13,300	12,600 0	700 0	.....
Kiautschou .....	562,500	499,662 10	52,837 10	.....
Total .....	2,037,530	1,649,835 10	387,694 10	.....

**STATE GRANTS IN AID.**

	1901	1900	Increase.	Decrease.
	£	£	£	£
German East Africa .....	455,850	335,003	120,847	.....
Cameroons .....	109,640	108,150	6,490	.....
Togo .....	44,200	13,500	30,700	.....
Southwest Africa .....	468,980	359,065	109,915	.....
New Guinea .....	35,435	42,425	.....	6,990
Carolines, etc .....	14,325	18,500	.....	4,175
Samoa .....	7,300	2,600	4,700	.....
Kiautschou .....	537,500	489,000	48,500	.....
Total .....	1,673,230	1,363,243	309,987	.....



RATES OF IMPORT DUTY LEVIED ON PRINCIPAL ARTICLES BY THE TARIFFS OF THE SEVERAL COLONIAL AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, ACCORDING TO THE LATEST RETURNS.  
[From British Statistical Abstract for the Colonies.]

POSSESSIONS.	YARNS.				Cordage, etc.
	Cotton.	Linen, hemp, and jute.	Silk.	Woolen and worsted.	
	<i>Ad val.</i>	<i>Ad val.</i>	<i>Ad val.</i>	<i>Ad val.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
India .....	Free .....	5 per cent .....	5 per cent <sup>1</sup> .....	5 per cent .....	5 per cent ad val. <sup>1</sup> .....
Straits Settlements .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....
Ceylon .....	4 per cent <sup>2</sup> .....	5½ per cent .....	5½ per cent .....	5½ per cent .....	Coir rope and twine, free; other twine, r. 1.65 cents; other cordage, 5½ per cent ad val.
Australasia:					
New South Wales .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....
Victoria .....	Free .....	8s. per cwt. ....	Free .....	Free .....	Twine, sewing or seaming, of hemp or flax, 10 per cent ad val.; reaper and binder of jute, hemp, or flax, 8s. per cwt.; other (except cotton, free), 2d. per pound; coir rope, 5s. per cwt.; other cordage and spun yarn, 12s. <sup>6</sup>
South Australia .....	Free .....	10 per cent .....	Sewing, free; other, 10 per cent.	Berlin wool, 25 per cent; Angora, mending, and combed, not being fingerings, free; other, 10 per cent.	Twines, sewing or seaming, free; harvest, 8s.; other (including fishing lines and cords), 2d. per pound; coir rope, 5s.; other, 11s.
Tasmania .....	20 per cent .....	Hemp thread for sole sewing, in balls, free; other, 20 per cent.	20 per cent .....	Worsted knitting, free; other, 20 per cent.	Cordage, rope, binder, sewing, and seaming twine, and harvest, spun, and rope yarn, free; other twine and cord, 1d. per pound.
New Zealand <sup>8</sup> .....	Sewing, crochet, darning, and knitting cotton, free; other, 20 per cent. <sup>9</sup>	Sewing and bookbinders' thread and hemp or flax yarn, free; jute, 20 per cent. <sup>9</sup>	Silk twist (shoemakers' and saddlers') and sewing thread, free; other, 20 per cent.	Sewing thread and Angora mendings, not exceeding 45 yards on cards, free; other, 20 per cent. <sup>9</sup>	Binder twine, net-maker's cotton twine, and hawsers of 12-inch and over, free; other, 20 per cent ad val.
Queensland .....	Sewing, knitting, embroidery, and crochet thread, free; other, 25 per cent.	Sewing thread and jute and hemp yarn, free; other, 25 per cent.	Sewing silks and twists, free; other, 25 per cent.	Berlin and knitting wool and worsted in hanks, colls, and reels, 15 per cent; other, 25 per cent.	Cordage and rope, 8s.; twine, seaming and for net making, free; other twine, 14s.
Natal and Cape of Good Hope. <sup>13</sup>	7½ per cent <sup>14</sup> .....	7½ per cent <sup>14</sup> .....	7½ per cent .....	7½ per cent <sup>14</sup> .....	Seaming and binding twine and harvest yarn, free; other, 7½ per cent ad val.
North America:					
Dominion of Canada. <sup>15 16 17</sup>	Nos. 40 and finer, free; other, 25 per cent; sewing thread in hanks (3 and 6 cord), 15 per cent; on spools, etc., 25 per cent. <sup>18</sup>	For manufacture of carpets, webbing, matting, or twine, free; other, 20 per cent.	Spun silk (singles, tram, or thrown or ganzine), not colored, 15 per cent; dyed, 20 per cent; sewing silk and silk twist, 25 per cent. <sup>19</sup>	If costing 1s. 2½d. per pound and over for manufacture of woolen goods, 20 per cent; otherwise, 30 per cent ad val. <sup>19</sup>	Coir, free; binders' and harvest twine <sup>20</sup> and twines for fishery purposes, free; sail twine, 5 per cent ad val.; other, 25 per cent ad val.
Newfoundland .... ( <sup>15 17 22</sup> )	Yarns, free; thread, 25 per cent.	Hemp yarn, free; linen thread, 25 per cent; other, 30 per cent.	25 per cent .....	20 per cent .....	Lines and twines for fishery purposes (except sporting tackle), free; marine for lobster pots, 10 per cent ad val.; other twines, 30 per cent ad val.; fishing lines for anglers, 35 per cent ad val.; <sup>21</sup> cordage, 6s. 10½d.

<sup>1</sup> For value on which percentage is to be reckoned see table on page 1563.

<sup>2</sup> On the importation of cut piece goods, the words "cut piece" and the aggregate length and the number of cut pieces are to be marked on the outer fold of the piece.

<sup>3</sup> For value on which percentage is to be reckoned see table on page 1564.

<sup>4</sup> Cotton blankets, if not legibly and indelibly branded with the words "all cotton," 25 per cent ad valorem.

<sup>5</sup> Dress goods containing not more than 10 per cent of silk, laces and veillings, plush cut up into sizes or lengths, and reps and damasks for covering furniture, umbrella silk, and silks cut up into sizes for making neckties, free; handkerchiefs, 10 per cent ad valorem.

<sup>6</sup> Cordage, being unserviceable when cut into lengths of not over 3 feet, free.

<sup>7</sup> Calico, jute canvas, forfar, dowlas, and hessian bagging cut into sizes not exceeding 47 inches by 36 inches for making flour and other bags, free.

<sup>8</sup> An additional duty of 20 per cent ad valorem is charged on prison-made goods.

<sup>9</sup> Yarn for making carpets, free.

<sup>10</sup> Tubular woven cotton cloth (for meat wraps) in the piece, butter and cheese cloth, and tailors' trimmings, free.

<sup>11</sup> If cut in certain sizes for making flour bags and lining wool mats, free.

<sup>12</sup> Tailors' trimmings, free.

<sup>13</sup> Natal and Cape Colony belong to the South African Customs Union, and admit duty free, (1) raw produce of South Africa imported overland; (2) articles grown, produced, or manufactured within the South African Customs Union, with certain exceptions in regard to flour and spirits. The rates of duty shown in the table apply to goods imported for consumption in any country within the customs union.

<sup>14</sup> Boot and shoemakers', bookbinders', saddlers', and sailmakers' thread, free.

RATES OF IMPORT DUTY LEVIED ON PRINCIPAL ARTICLES BY THE TARIFFS OF THE SEVERAL COLONIAL AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, ACCORDING TO THE LATEST RETURNS.

[From British Statistical Abstract for the Colonies.]

WOVEN FABRICS.					Apparel.
Cotton.	Linen, hemp, and jute.	Silk.	Woolen and worsted.	Bags and sacks (hemp, jute, etc.).	
<i>Ad val.</i> Machine belting, free; other, 3½ per cent. <sup>1</sup>	<i>Ad val.</i> 5 per cent	<i>Ad val.</i> 5 per cent	<i>Ad val.</i> 5 per cent	<i>Ad val.</i> Second-hand or used gunny bags, free; other, 5 per cent.	<i>Ad val.</i> Cotton hosiery, 3 per cent; other, 5 per cent.
Free 4 per cent. <sup>2</sup>	Free Gunny cloth and filter bagging, free; other, 5½ per cent.	Free 5½ per cent	Free Felt, free; other, 5½ per cent.	Free Gunnies, free; other, 5½ per cent.	Free Cotton hosiery, 4 per cent; other, 5½ per cent.
Free	Free Hessians, part 10 per cent, part free; jute matting, 25 per cent; other matting, 15 per cent; other, free.	Free 15 per cent. <sup>3</sup>	Free Felt carpeting and druggeting, saddlecloth and serges, carriage cloth, twilled scourers, imitation plush for upholstery, bunting, and cloths cut into sizes or lengths for making caps, free; carpets, druggets, and gray or colored blankets (not of white body) and blankets of which the invoice value is 1s. per pound, or under 15 per cent; other blankets (except printers', free) and rugs and rugging, 25 per cent; other piece goods, part 15 per cent; part 25 per cent.	Free Bags, the capacity of which is less than 3 bushels, 6d. per dozen; other, free.	Free Cotton or linen hosiery, free; other hosiery, 25 per cent; corsets, 15 per cent; other, 35 per cent.
Velvets and velveteens, 10 per cent; table and toilet covers, towels, handkerchiefs, dusters, table napkins, 15 per cent; other piece goods, free.	Towels, handkerchiefs, table napkins, table and toilet covers (linen), matting, 15 per cent; other, free.	15 per cent	Bunting and crimean shirtings, free; dress piece goods, 10 per cent; other, 15 per cent.	Canvas, 25 per cent; other, free.	Hosiery, knitted, 20 per cent; not knitted, 10 per cent; moleskin, 15 per cent; other, 25 per cent.
Hatters' calicoes, free; other, 20 per cent. <sup>7</sup>	Navy canvas, free; other, 20 per cent. <sup>7</sup>	Hatters' plush, free; other, 20 per cent.	Saddlers' collar check, free; other, 20 per cent.	Free	20 per cent.
Union shirtings (value not exceeding 6d. per yard), colored cotton and flannelette shirtings, calico, sheetings, moleskin, and corduroy, free; other, part 10 per cent; part 20 per cent. <sup>10</sup>	Bagging (jute), free; other, 15 per cent; for far, dowlas, flax sheeting in the piece, 20 per cent; <sup>11</sup> sailcloth, canvas, duck, and hessians, free; other, 20 per cent. <sup>12</sup>	Silk hat plush, reversible and levantine mixtures, silk bindings and silk for flour dressing, free; other, 25 per cent. <sup>12</sup>	Bunting and tailors' trimmings, free; other, 20 per cent.	Jute bags and sacks, wool pockets, wool packs, corn sacks, and bags made of New Zealand tow or flax, free; other sacks, 15 per cent; other bags, 15 or 20 per cent.	Made to order, 40 per cent; hosiery, 20 per cent; other, 25 per cent.
Tailors' trimmings (except Italians) and bookbinders' cloth, free; velvets and velveteens, 15 per cent; other, 5 per cent.	Canvas, hessian, and bagging, free; linen piece goods, 5 per cent; carpeting and druggeting, 15 per cent; other 25 per cent.	Mixtures (reversible and levantine), not less than 44 inches wide, and hatters' black silk plush, free; other, 15 per cent.	Bunting, saddle serge, collar check, tailors' trimmings, and felt, free; Crimean flannel and alpaca, 5 per cent; other, 15 per cent.	Jute corn sacks, to contain 3 bushels, and wool packs, free; other, 15 per cent.	25 per cent.
Bookbinders' cloth, free; blankets, rugs, and sheets, 20 per cent; other, 7½ per cent.	Bagging and sacking, free; other, 7½ per cent.	Milk silk, free; other, 7½ per cent.	Blankets, rugs, and sheets, 20 per cent; other, 7½ per cent.	Free	Coats, etc., made of blanketing or balze, and shawls, 20 per cent; other, 7½ per cent.
White or gray, 25 per cent; printed, dyed, or colored, 35 per cent; cotton velvets, sheets, towels, napkins, etc., 30 per cent; bookbinders' cloth, free. <sup>21</sup>	Jute cloth, as taken from the loom, free; if bleached or calendered, 10 per cent; jute canvas for carpets, oilcloth, etc., free; sail canvas, 5 per cent; damask, sheets, towels, etc., 30 per cent; other, 25 per cent.	Black crapes, 20 per cent; velvets, plush (except hatters', free), and fabrics, 30 per cent. <sup>21</sup>	Carpets, 35 per cent; women's dress goods, cashmeres, serges, etc., to be dyed or finished in Canada, 25 per cent; other, 35 per cent. <sup>21</sup>	20 per cent	Woolen, 35 per cent; shirts, collars, and cuffs, 35 per cent; shawls, 30 per cent; knitted goods, 35 per cent; other, 30 to 35 per cent. <sup>22</sup>
Canvas, 5 per cent; other fabrics, 30 per cent; sheets, quilts, towels, napkins, handkerchiefs, etc., 35 per cent; bookbinders' cloth, 10 per cent; boot and shoe linings, 25 per cent. <sup>22</sup>	Damask, star linen, sheets and like articles, handkerchiefs, window shades, carpets, rugs, mats, etc., 35 per cent; canvas, 5 per cent; carriage drill, 25 per cent; "bread bag brin," imported by manufacturers of bread, rope, or nails, 10 per cent; other, 30 per cent.	Fabrics which have been exported to be dyed or cleaned when reimported, and black crapes, 30 per cent; carriage plush, 25 per cent; other, 35 per cent.	Carpets, rugs, embroideries, braids, etc., 35 per cent; carriage cloth, 25 per cent; other, 30 per cent.	30 per cent	Shirts and underclothing, hand made, 35 per cent; machine made, of cotton, linen, or silk, 40 per cent; of wool, or cotton and wool, 30 per cent; corsets, blouses, and shawls, 35 per cent; gloves and mitts (except of calf, kid, or fur, 35 per cent), socks, and stockings, 30 per cent; clothing exported to be dyed and cleaned and reimported, and oiled clothes, 30 per cent; other, 35 and 40 per cent. <sup>23</sup>

<sup>12</sup> The value of the dollar has been taken as 4s. 1½d. for converting the tariff rates into sterling for Canada and Newfoundland, as 4s. 1½d. for Honduras, and as 4s. 2d. for British Guiana.

<sup>13</sup> In accordance with the provisions of the British preferential tariff of 1898, as amended in 1900, articles which are the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United Kingdom, Bermuda, British West Indies, British Guiana, British India, Ceylon, Straits Settlements, and New South Wales, when imported direct into Canada from any of such countries, are entitled to a reduction of one-third of the duty. The reduction does not apply to duties levied on wines, malt liquors, spirits, tobacco, and cigars, nor to raw sugar unless it be imported direct from any British colony or possession, nor to refined sugar unless it be manufactured wholly from raw sugar produced in the British colonies or possessions.

<sup>14</sup> The importation of prison-made goods is prohibited.

<sup>15</sup> Cotton yarn, polished or glazed, when imported by manufacturers of shoe laces for the manufacture of such goods in their own factories, free.

<sup>16</sup> Spun silk, when imported by silk underwear manufacturers, and wool and worsted yarns, when genapped, dyed, or finished and imported by braid, cord, tassel, and fringe manufacturers, for use in their own factories, free.

<sup>17</sup> Each ball of binder twine offered for sale is to have a stamp attached with the name of the manufacturer or importer, and stating the number of feet of twine per pound in such ball.

<sup>18</sup> Cloths, not rubbered or made waterproof, whether of wool, cotton, unions, silk, or ramie, 60 inches or over in width and weighing not more than 7 ounces to the square yard, when imported exclusively for the manufacture of mackintosh clothing, 15 per cent ad valorem.

<sup>19</sup> Settlers' effects and donations for charitable purposes, free.

<sup>20</sup> With an additional charge of 10 per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>21</sup> Anglers' outfits and trout gear, when in the custody of tourists, free.

<sup>22</sup> A drawback equal to one-third of the duty paid is allowed upon unbleached calico when used by manufacturers in the manufacture of oiled clothes.

RATES OF IMPORT DUTY LEVIED ON PRINCIPAL ARTICLES BY THE TARIFFS OF THE SEVERAL COLONIAL AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, ACCORDING TO THE LATEST RETURNS—Continued.

POSSESSIONS.	YARNS.				Cordage, etc.
	Cotton.	Linen, hemp, and jute.	Silk.	Woolen and worsted.	
	<i>Ad val.</i>	<i>Ad val.</i>	<i>Ad val.</i>	<i>Ad val.</i>	<i>Per cent.</i>
Bermuda .....	5 per cent	5 per cent	5 per cent	5 per cent	5 per cent ad val.
Honduras .....	12½ per cent	12½ per cent	12½ per cent	12½ per cent	12 per cent ad val.
West India Islands:					
Bahamas .....	20 per cent	20 per cent	20 per cent	20 per cent	Rope, 10 per cent ad val.; other, 20 per cent ad val.
Turks Island .....	Free	Free	Free	Free	Free
Jamaica .....	16½ per cent	16½ per cent	16½ per cent	16½ per cent	16½ per cent ad val.
St. Lucia <sup>1</sup> .....	15 per cent	15 per cent	15 per cent	15 per cent	15 per cent ad val.
St. Vincent <sup>2</sup> .....	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent ad val.
Barbados .....	15 per cent	15 per cent	15 per cent	15 per cent	Twines, 15 per cent ad val.; cordage, 4s. 6d. per 100 pounds.
Grenada .....	7½ per cent	7½ per cent	7½ per cent	7½ per cent	7½ per cent ad val.
Virgin Islands <sup>3</sup> .....	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent ad val.
St. Christopher and Nevis <sup>13</sup> .....	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent ad val.
Antigua <sup>34</sup> .....	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent ad val.
Montserrat <sup>34</sup> .....	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent ad val.
Dominica <sup>3</sup> .....	12½ per cent	12½ per cent	12½ per cent	12½ per cent	Fishing lines, free; other, 12½ per cent ad val.
Trinidad and Tobago .....	5 per cent	5 per cent	5 per cent	5 per cent	5 per cent ad val.
British Guiana <sup>46</sup> .....	15 per cent	15 per cent	15 per cent	15 per cent	Cordage (including gasketing), 4s. 2d.; twine, 9s. 4d.

<sup>1</sup> With an additional charge of 15 per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>2</sup> With an additional charge of 10 per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>3</sup> Produce or manufactures of any other of the Leeward Islands, free.

<sup>4</sup> With an additional charge of 33½ per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

RATES OF IMPORT DUTY LEVIED ON PRINCIPAL ARTICLES BY THE TARIFFS OF THE SEVERAL COLONIAL AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, ACCORDING TO THE LATEST RETURNS—Continued.

WOVEN FABRICS.				Bags and sacks (hemp, jute, etc.).	Apparel.
Cotton.	Linen, hemp, and jute.	Silk.	Woolen and worsted.		
<i>Ad val.</i>	<i>Ad val.</i>	<i>Ad val.</i>	<i>Ad val.</i>	<i>Ad val.</i>	<i>Ad val.</i>
5 per cent	5 per cent	5 per cent	5 per cent	5 per cent	5 per cent.
12½ per cent	12½ per cent	12½ per cent	12½ per cent	12½ per cent	12½ per cent.
Duck for making sails, 10 per cent; other, 20 per cent.	20 per cent	20 per cent	20 per cent	20 per cent	20 per cent.
10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	Free	10 per cent.
16½ per cent	16½ per cent	16½ per cent	16½ per cent	For exporting home produce, free; other, 16½ per cent.	16½ per cent.
15 per cent	Bagging (for sugar or other home products), free; other, 15 per cent.	15 per cent	15 per cent	For sugar or other home products, free; other, 15 per cent.	15 per cent.
10 per cent	Ships' canvas, free; other, 10 per cent.	10 per cent	10 per cent	Empty produce bags, free; other, 10 per cent.	10 per cent.
15 per cent	15 per cent	15 per cent	15 per cent	15 per cent	15 per cent.
7½ per cent	7½ per cent	7½ per cent	7½ per cent	7½ per cent	7½ per cent.
10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent.
10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent.
10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent.
10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent	10 per cent.
12½ per cent	12½ per cent	12½ per cent	12½ per cent	12½ per cent <sup>3</sup>	12½ per cent.
5 per cent	5 per cent	5 per cent	5 per cent	5 per cent	5 per cent.
15 per cent	15 per cent	15 per cent	15 per cent	5s. 2½d. per 100	15 per cent.

<sup>3</sup> The value of the dollar has been taken as 4s. 1½d. for converting the tariff rates into sterling for Canada and Newfoundland, as 4s. 1½d. for Honduras, and as 4s. 2d. for British Guiana.

<sup>4</sup> Subject to a deduction of 5 per cent from the rates of duty (except those on spirits and tobacco) given in the table, provided that the reciprocal trade convention between Great Britain and the United States in respect of British Guiana does not come into operation.

RATES OF IMPORT DUTY LEVIED BY THE TARIFFS OF THE SEVERAL COLONIAL AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM,  
ACCORDING TO THE LATEST RETURNS, ETC.—Continued.

POSSESSIONS.	METALS.		
	Iron and iron wares.		
	Pig, bar, rod, plate, sheet, and hoop.	Galvanized.	Other kinds.
India .....	<i>Ad val.</i> 1 per cent <sup>1</sup> 2	<i>Ad val.</i> Angle, T, channel, bar, hoop, plate, sheets, ridging, nails, rivets, and washers, 1 per cent; other, 1 per cent or 5 per cent. <sup>1</sup> 2	<i>Ad val.</i> 1 per cent or 5 per cent <sup>1</sup> 2
Straits Settlements .....	Free	Free	Free
Ceylon .....	Free	Rs. 15 per ton	T and channel iron, rolled joists, angle iron, tanks, and tin plates, free; corrugated iron, Rs. 7 per ton; nails, tacks, and rivets, Rs. 12½ per ton; other, 5½ per cent. <sup>3</sup>
Australasia:			
New South Wales .....	Free	Free	Free
Victoria .....	Free	Sheet, wire, machine-made wire netting, and screws, free; other, 30 per cent.	Wire, tram, and railway rails, angle and T iron, pipes (brass cased, solid drawn), iron mongery, etc., free; H-rolled girder and channel iron, pipes (cast), fire bars, sash weights, and barbed wire, £3 per ton; axles, common dray, with linchpins, 25 per cent; other axles (except for bicycles, free), 1s. to 4s. per arm; nails, horseshoe, 14s. per hundredweight; other, 7s. 6d. per hundredweight; <sup>4</sup> machine tools, 20 per cent; cutlery, 10 per cent; <sup>5</sup> other sorts, part free, part 25 per cent, part 30 per cent.
South Australia .....	Free	Sheet (plain), droppers, and wire, free; corrugated, 30s. per ton; cordage, 60s. per ton; manufactures, 25 per cent.	Rails, tanks, and wire, free; columns, girders, pipes, <sup>6</sup> and nails, 40s. per ton; other, part free, part 15 per cent, part 25 per cent.
Tasmania .....	Free	Corrugated, 40s. per ton; plain sheet, free.	Tin plates, angle, H and T iron, wire rope, and netting, free; nails, 2s. 6d. per hundredweight; engine fittings, boilers for machinery, railway, and tramway plant, rolled channels, special, column, and trough sections, bulb bars and rolled bridge plate, 10 per cent; implements, tools, fencing wire, boiler plates and tubes, free; other, part free, part 10 per cent, part 20 per cent.
New Zealand .....	Free	Plain sheet and hoop, 1s. 6d., corrugated sheets, screws, and nails, 2s. per hundredweight; other, 20 per cent or 25 per cent.	Wire, cordage, hawsers (12 inch and over), wire netting, railway and tramway rails, rolled girders, bolts and nuts, pulleys, machine and hand tools, and agricultural implements, free; nails, 2s. per hundredweight; pipes and fittings, 5 per cent; iron bridges and material for construction of bridges, wharves, etc., gates, standards, straining posts, and apparatus, columns and structural ironwork for buildings, 20 per cent; tanks, 200 gallons and under, 5s. each; 200 gallons to 400 gallons, 10s. each; other, part free, part 20 per cent (lacquered, 25 per cent).
Queensland .....	Rod less than $\frac{1}{4}$ or more than $\frac{1}{4}$ inch, 25 per cent; other, free.	Wire and screws, free; other, 2s. per hundredweight.	Corrugated, 2s. per hundredweight; nails and castings, 3s. per hundredweight, wire, wire netting, pipes, boiler plates and tubes, channel, angle, and T iron, tin plates, tools, sleepers, fish plates, etc., free; tanks, 8s. each; hook and eye hinges, 6s. per hundredweight; other, 15 per cent or 25 per cent.
Natal and Cape of Good Hope. <sup>13</sup>	Free (except corrugated sheet, 7½ per cent).	Angle, channel, and T iron, railway, tramway, telegraph and telephone materials, anchors, ships' cables, pipes, boiler tubes, wire rope, fencing wire and standards, winders, etc., free; kafir picks and hoes, 6d. each; other agricultural implements, free; other, part free, part 7½ per cent.	

NOTE.—For continuation of rates of duty on metals, see p. 1552.

<sup>1</sup> Materials for railways subject to the provisions of the Indian railways act 1890 (and such tramways as the governor-general in council may, by notification, include therewith), and for railways constructed in a native State under the suzerainty of Her Majesty; tea chests, entire or in sections, provided that the collector of customs is satisfied that they are imported for the purpose of packing tea for transport in bulk; and wire gauze imported by the owners or agents of paper mills for use in the mills, free. Pieces of metal resembling in shape and in size, and stamped either on the obverse or on the reverse in imitation of sovereigns and half sovereigns, prohibited.

<sup>2</sup> For value on which percentage is to be reckoned, see table on page 1563.

<sup>3</sup> Iron drums for oil and sheet-iron tea boxes (imported in shooks) and screws for the same, free.

<sup>4</sup> Nails for trunks and grindery and tacks not over 1 inch, free.

<sup>5</sup> Cutlery (being tools of trade) and axes, free.

RATES OF IMPORT DUTY LEVIED BY THE TARIFFS OF THE SEVERAL COLONIAL AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM,  
ACCORDING TO THE LATEST RETURNS, ETC.—Continued.

METALS.				
Machinery.	Earthenware and porcelain.	Glass and glassware.	Leather and leather manufactures (other than boots and shoes).	Boots and shoes (of leather).
<i>Ad val.</i> Free or 5 per cent .....	<i>Ad val.</i> 5 per cent .....	<i>Ad val.</i> 5½ per cent <sup>2</sup> .....	<i>Ad val.</i> Machine belting, free; other, 5 per cent.	<i>Ad val.</i> 5 per cent.
Free .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....
Mostly free; other, 5½ per cent .....	Tiles, free; other, 5½ per cent.	Aerated water bottles and glass tiles, free; other, 5½ per cent.	5½ per cent .....	5½ per cent.
Free .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....
Paper making, printing, felting, spinning, and weaving, free; agricultural, etc., implements, 15 per cent (except reapers and binders, free); electric motors, 25 per cent; other, part free, part 25 per cent; engines, traction, free; portable and patent safety oil engines, 15 per cent; other, 30 per cent.	Earthenware, part 8d. per cubic foot, part 15 per cent; tiles, 20 per cent; china-ware and porcelain, 15 per cent; photographic, scientific, and telegraphic materials, free.	Glass, plate and window (uncut), free; other glass, 30 per cent; tiles (sand-blasted), 20 per cent; other glassware, part free, part 1s. to 2s. 6d. per cubic foot, part 25 per cent. <sup>8</sup>	Leather, part free, part 6d. per lb.; <sup>7</sup> machine belting, 35 per cent; boot uppers, 18s. and £1 4s. per dozen pairs; Wellington fronts and grafts, 6s. per dozen pairs; gloves, 20 per cent; other wares, 30 per cent.	Children's Nos. 0-3, free; other, 8s. 6d. to 60s. per dozen pairs.
Weaving, flour milling, paper making, printing, and gas, portable, and traction engines, free; washing machines and mangles, 25 per cent; other, part free, part 20 per cent, part 25 per cent.	Brown earthenware and stoneware, 20 per cent; tiles, 25 per cent; other, 15 per cent. <sup>9</sup>	Glassware, cut, etched, or ground, and bottles (except medicine bottles), 20 per cent; silvered, 25 per cent; other (including plate and sheet glass), 15 per cent.	Leather, patent kid, morocco, etc., free; other, and wares, 10 per cent, 15 per cent, or 25 per cent.	Children's Nos. 0-3, free; other, part 11s. 6d. to 33s. per dozen pairs; part 45 per cent.
For woolen and boot manufactures, for manufacturing or distilling from "dyeodile," agricultural, horticultural, dairying, sewing, knitting, bookbinding, ruling, and printing, free; roller, registering, and washing machines, 20 per cent; other, 10 per cent.	20 per cent <sup>10</sup> .....	Empty bottles, plain, not being cut or ground, memorial windows and siphons for aerated waters, free; other, 20 per cent. <sup>10</sup>	Pump butt leather, 10 per cent; all other, free; cap peaks and straps, and menagerie harness, free; other manufactures, 20 per cent.	20 per cent.
Fire, gas, traction, and oil engines, sewing, knitting, kilting machines, and agricultural machinery, free; electric, 10 per cent; other, part free, part 5 per cent, part 20 per cent.	Retorts, free; other, 20 per cent.	Bottles (plain), free; crown, sheet, and window, 2s. per 100 sup. feet; mirrors and plate glass (beveled or silvered), 25 per cent; other and wares, 20 per cent.	Japanned, enameled, and morocco (other than black), free; chamolais, 20 per cent; cut into shapes, 22½ per cent; other, 1d. to 4d. per lb.; leather washers, free; other leather wares, 20 per cent, 22½ per cent, or 25 per cent.	Children's (0 to 3), free; other, 22½ per cent.
Weighing machines (except platform weigh bridges, free), 15 per cent; spinning, weaving, planing, printing, paper making, telegraphic, mining, sewing machines, gas, portable, fire, and traction engines, and nearly all other kinds of machinery, free; other, 25 per cent.	China doorknobs, 15 per cent; other, 25 per cent. <sup>11 12</sup>	Window and plate glass, lamp chimneys and globes, and stoppers for soda-water bottles, 15 per cent; <sup>13</sup> other, 25 per cent.	Patent kid, morocco, etc., and bookbinders' leather, free; other 4d. per lb.; men's boot uppers, 18s. per dozen pairs; other wares, 25 per cent.	Children's (0 to 6), free; other, 11s. 6d. to 33s. per dozen pairs.
Mostly free; other, 7½ per cent .....	Bottles, jars, and pipes, free; other, 7½ per cent.	Bottles and jars, free; beads, 3d. per lb.; other, 7½ per cent.	Patent, enameled, roan, morocco, pigskin, bookbinders', fire hose, belting and bands for machinery, free; other 7½ per cent,	7½ per cent.

<sup>8</sup> Siphons for aerated waters, free; bottles for aerated waters, 6d. per cubic foot; other, containing a fluid dram or less quantity of liquid or other substance, free; otherwise, 3d. or 6d. per dozen bottles.

<sup>7</sup> Black morocco and goat levant, 20 per cent ad valorem; other morocco (for furniture, bootmaking, or bookbinding), Persian sheep roan, and skivers, 35 per cent ad valorem.

<sup>9</sup> Wrought pipes under 6 inches internal diameter, free.

<sup>10</sup> Porcelain chemical apparatus, chinaware doorknobs and crucibles, free.

<sup>11</sup> Empty bottles on proof that they have been used in the export of Tasmanian produce, and empty jam, fruit, and preserving jars, free; insulators for main cable, 10 per cent ad valorem.

<sup>12</sup> Patent porcelain rollers for flour mills and earthen and porcelain ware for scientific purposes, free.

<sup>13</sup> Bottles, empty, free.

<sup>14</sup> See note 13, p. 1546.

RATES OF IMPORT DUTY LEVIED BY THE TARIFFS OF THE SEVERAL COLONIAL AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM,  
ACCORDING TO THE LATEST RETURNS, ETC.—Continued.

POSSESSIONS.	METALS—continued.		
	Iron and iron wares, plain and galvanized.		Machinery.
	Pig, bar, rod, plate, sheet, and hoop.	Other kinds.	
North America:	<i>Ad val.</i>		<i>Ad val.</i>
Dominion of Canada <sup>1</sup> ...	Pig, 10s. 3d. per ton; bar, puddled, 8s. 2d. per ton; bar iron, rolled hoop (8 inches or less in width, 18 gauge and thicker), 28s. 9d. per ton; sheets or plates, part, 28s. 9d. per ton; part, 5 per cent; <sup>2</sup> Canada plates, flat galvanized sheets, rolled hoop (less than 18 gauge), 5 per cent. <sup>3</sup>	Cast-iron pipe, 32s. 10d. per ton; tubes, boiler, 5 per cent; nails (except cut and wire), 30 per cent; screws and tacks, 35 per cent; cut nails, 1d. per pound; rails weighing not less than 45 pounds per linear yard for use only on railways employed in the common carrying of goods and passengers and operated by steam motive power only, free; other railway and tramway rails, 30 per cent ad val.; railway fish and tie plates, 32s. 10d. per ton; angle, T, channel, girder, etc., iron, part, 28s. 9d. per ton; part, 10 per cent; wire (most kinds), 20 per cent; hardware (most kinds), 30 per cent; anchors, free; manufactures, 30 per cent; other, various rates, to 35 per cent.	Mining, smelting, and reducing, free; Printing, etc., 10 per cent; agricultural, 20 per cent or 25 per cent; sewing machines, 30 per cent; railway locomotives and fire engines, 35 per cent; other engines and machinery, 25 per cent. <sup>4</sup>
Newfoundland <sup>5</sup> .....	Boiler and ship plates, and pig, free; herring-barrel hoop iron, free; other hoop iron, 5 per cent; other, 10 per cent.	Cast-iron pipe, forgings weighing under 5 hundredweight, railway rails, <sup>7</sup> and stove plates, 30 per cent; forgings weighing over 5 hundredweight, anchors, coil chain, and boiler tubes, 10 per cent; columns and girders, etc., 20 per cent; nails and spikes, cut or pressed, and wire nails, 35 per cent; shoe nails, 25 per cent; other nails, 10 per cent; tools, 25 per cent; cutlery, 25 per cent and 35 per cent; other manufactures, 10 per cent to 50 per cent (mostly 30 per cent). <sup>7</sup>	Printing, photoengraving, mining, <sup>8</sup> smelting, and agricultural, if imported by agricultural societies for the promotion of agriculture, free; other agricultural (except plows and harrows not patented), 20 per cent; dating, ruling, paging, cutting, perforating, wool carding, spinning wheels, air motors, and bone crushers, 10 per cent; ships' and builders' machinery, power machines for manufacture of steam and other engines and boilers, machines imported by manufacturers for manufacture of boots and shoes, machinery patented and of a kind not manufactured in Newfoundland, and electric motors, 20 per cent; other 30 per cent. <sup>9</sup>
Bermuda.....	5 per cent.....	5 per cent <sup>10</sup> .....	5 per cent <sup>10</sup> .....
Honduras.....	Cask hoop, free; other, 12½ per cent <sup>11</sup>	12 per cent <sup>11</sup> .....	Free.....
West India Islands:			
Bahamas.....	Hoop for construction of barrels, and metal roofing, free; other 20 per cent.	Nails, 3s. per 100 pounds; other, part, free; part, 20 per cent. <sup>12</sup>	Part, free; part, 20 per cent.....
Turks Islands.....	Free.....	Hardware and cutlery, 10 per cent; other, free.	Free.....
Jamaica.....	Pig, free; other, 16½ per cent.....	16½ per cent <sup>13</sup> .....	For manufacturing or preparing agricultural and mineral products, fire engines, locomotives, and sewing machines, free; other, 16½ per cent.
St. Lucia <sup>14</sup> .....	Truss hoop, free; other, 15 per cent.	Nails, 2s. per 100 pounds; other, part, free; part, 15 per cent. <sup>15</sup>	Free.....
St. Vincent <sup>16</sup> .....	Hoop, free; other, 10 per cent.....	Telegraphic and electrical apparatus, iron bridges, gas and water pipes, etc., free; other, 10 per cent.	Part, free; part, 10 per cent.....
Barbados.....	Hoops, bars, and rods, 6d. per 100 pounds; other, 15 per cent.	Old, free; nails, spikes, rivets, and clinches, 1s. 6d. per 100 pounds; other, 15 per cent.	Part, free; part, 15 per cent.....
Grenada.....	7½ per cent.....	7½ per cent <sup>18</sup> .....	7½ per cent <sup>18</sup> .....
Virgin Islands <sup>19</sup> .....	10 per cent.....	Part, free; part, 10 per cent <sup>17</sup> .....	Part, free; part, 10 per cent.....
St. Christopher <sup>19 16</sup> and Nevis, <sup>19 16</sup>	10 per cent.....	10 per cent <sup>17</sup> .....	Part, free; part, 10 per cent.....
Antigua <sup>19 20</sup> .....	10 per cent.....	10 per cent <sup>17</sup> .....	Part, free; part, 10 per cent.....
Montserrat <sup>19 20</sup> .....	10 per cent.....	10 per cent <sup>17</sup> .....	Part, free; part, 10 per cent.....
Dominica <sup>19</sup> .....	12½ per cent.....	Part, free; part, 12½ per cent <sup>17</sup> .....	Part, free; part, 12½ per cent.....
Trinidad and Tobago...	5 per cent.....	Water pipes and railway and tramway materials, free; other, 5 per cent.	Part, free; part, 5 per cent.....
British Guiana <sup>5 21</sup> .....	Hoops, 7½d. per hundredweight; pig, 15 per cent ad val.; boiler plates and plates for steamboats and barges, free; other, galvanized, 2s. 1d. per hundredweight; black, 1s. 8d. per hundredweight.	Chains (black or galvanized) and bolts and nuts, 1s. 8d. per hundredweight; buckets and pails, 2s. 1d. per dozen; wire, black, 1s. 3d. per hundredweight; nails and spikes, 1s. 2d. per hundredweight; other, part, free; part, 15 per cent. <sup>22</sup>	Mostly free; other 15 per cent.....

<sup>1</sup> See notes 15 and 16, p. 1547.

<sup>2</sup> Plates of iron of and above 30 inches wide and of and above ½ inch thick, 10 per cent; if for ships, all kinds, free.

<sup>3</sup> Swedish rolled iron nail rods under ½ inch in diameter for manufacture of horseshoe nails, 15 per cent ad valorem; hoop iron not above ½ inch in width and 25 gauge or thinner for manufacturing tubular rivets, free; rolled round wire rods of iron or steel in the coil and not over ½ inch in diameter for manufacture of wire, free.

<sup>4</sup> Machinery of a class not made in Canada, when imported exclusively for use in factories for the manufacture of beet-root sugar, free.

<sup>5</sup> For rate of conversion into sterling, see note 15, p. 1547.

<sup>6</sup> With an additional charge of 10 per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>7</sup> All rails, fish plates, fish bolts, and track spikes required by the contractors for certain railways, and nail strips to be used in the manufacture of cut nails in the colony, free.

<sup>8</sup> When used in mining operations and not for sale.

<sup>9</sup> Turning lathes and fret-saw machines costing at the place of shipment over 24s. 7½d., and to be driven by steam, water, or electric power, 20 per cent ad valorem; otherwise, 30 per cent ad valorem.

<sup>10</sup> Electric cable machinery and apparatus for establishing and maintaining telegraphic communication with places beyond the sea, and machinery, tools, plant, and materials for surveying and improving ship channels (under contract or agreement with the Government), free.

<sup>11</sup> Iron framework, and girders (including bolts and rivets) for iron bridges; ironwork for carts used in logwood works; agricultural implements; pumps; tanks; and railway, tramway, telegraph, telephone, and electric-lighting plant, free.



RATES OF IMPORT DUTY LEVIED BY THE TARIFFS OF THE SEVERAL COLONIAL AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM,  
ACCORDING TO THE LATEST RETURNS, ETC.—Continued.

Earthenware and porcelain.	Glass and glassware.	Leather and leather manufactures (other than boots and shoes).	Boots and shoes (of leather).
<i>Ad val.</i> Drain tiles (not glazed), 20 per cent; other tiles and pipes, etc., 35 per cent; other, 30 per cent.	<i>Ad val.</i> Common window glass, 20 per cent; colored enameled, etc., 20 or 30 per cent; plate glass, 20 per cent to 35 per cent; silvered 35 per cent; carboys, bottles, flasks, cut or molded tableware, lamps, chimneys, shades, etc., 30 per cent; electric-light bulbs, 10 per cent; other, 20 per cent.	<i>Ad val.</i> Leather, 10 per cent to 25 per cent; belting, 20 per cent; whips, 35 per cent; harness (except menagerie harness, free) and saddlery, 30 per cent; other wares, 25 per cent.	<i>Ad val.</i> 25 per ct.
Tiles, drain pipes, churns, jars, and demijohns, 30 per cent; other, 35 per cent.	Ornamental, figured, and enameled glass, memorial windows, plate glass, demijohns, bottles, decanters, flasks, jars, lamps, chimneys, shades, globes, and tableware, 35 per cent; stoppers, 10 per cent; other, 30 per cent.	Rough, split, undressed, imported by tanners, 20 per cent; bookbinding leather and belting, 10 per cent; other leather, 20 to 30 per cent; harness and saddlery, 40 per cent; other manufactures, 35 per cent.	35 per ct.
5 per cent. .... Drain pipes and telegraph materials, free; other, 12½ per cent.	5 per cent. .... 12½ per cent. ....	5 per cent. .... 12½ per cent. ....	5 per ct. .... 12½ per ct. ....
Earthenware, etc., for hotels, and electrical and photographic materials, free; other, 20 per cent. Free .....	Glassware for hotels, siphons and bottles, free; other, 20 per cent. Free .....	20 per cent. .... 10 per cent. ....	20 per ct. .... 10 per ct. ....
Photographic appliances, free; other, 16½ per cent. <sup>12</sup>	Photographic appliances, free; other, 16½ per cent. <sup>13</sup>	16½ per cent. ....	16½ per ct. ....
Water pipes, free; other, 15 per cent. <sup>14</sup> .....	15 per cent. <sup>15</sup> .....	Machine belting, free; other, 15 per cent. ....	15 per ct. ....
Tiles, 8s. per 1,000; water pipes, free; other, 10 per cent. <sup>17</sup>	10 per cent. <sup>17</sup> .....	10 per cent. ....	10 per ct. ....
Bottles, free; other, 15 per cent. ....	Bottles, free; other, 15 per cent. ....	Machine belting, free; other, 15 per cent. ....	15 per ct. ....
7½ per cent. ....	7½ per cent. ....	7½ per cent. ....	7½ per ct. ....
Bottles, tiles, and water pipes, free; other, 10 per cent. <sup>17</sup>	Bottles, free; other, 10 per cent. <sup>17</sup> .....	Machine belting, free; other, 10 per cent. ....	10 per ct. ....
Tiles, 4s. 2d. per 1,000; other, 10 per cent. <sup>17</sup> .....	10 per cent. <sup>17</sup> .....	10 per cent. ....	10 per ct. ....
Tiles, 4s. 2d. per 1,000; other, 10 per cent. <sup>17</sup> .....	10 per cent. <sup>17</sup> .....	10 per cent. ....	10 per ct. ....
Bottles and water pipes, free; tiles, 6s. 3d. per 1,000; other, 12½ per cent. <sup>17</sup>	Bottles, free; other, 12½ per cent. <sup>17</sup> .....	Machine belting, free; other, 12½ per cent. ....	12½ per ct. ....
Tiles, 4s. 2d. per 1,000; water pipes, free; other, 5 per cent.	5 per cent. ....	5 per cent. ....	5 per ct. ....
Water and drain pipes and telegraph materials, free; tiles, 12s. 6d. per 1,000; other, 15 per cent.	15 per cent. ....	15 per cent. ....	15 per ct. ....

<sup>12</sup> Tools, implements, and materials for making cans and packing fruit and other produce, water pipes and fittings for farm irrigation purposes, materials for furnishing hotels, agricultural implements and tools, etc., free.

<sup>13</sup> Materials for railways and tramways; apparatus and appliances of all kinds for generating, storing, conducting, converting into power or light and measuring electricity or for generating, measuring, conducting, and storing gas; agricultural tools and implements; telegraph materials for the Direct West India and the West Indies and Panama Telegraph Companies; and tools and materials for the Kingston General Commissioners, the Spanish Town Waterworks Commissioners, and for any parochial board on the certificate of the revenue commissioner, free.

<sup>14</sup> With an additional charge of 15 per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>15</sup> Articles imported exclusively for the building or repair of schoolhouses; telegraphic, etc., apparatus and appliances; railway and tramway plant, etc., free.

<sup>16</sup> With an additional charge of 10 per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>17</sup> Telegraphic, telephonic, and electrical apparatus and appliances, free.

<sup>18</sup> Fire-extinguishing apparatus; machinery and implements for waterworks; printing presses; machinery for the development of local manufactures or products; and machinery for the development or improvement of any business or manufacture or curing process carried on by or belonging to the importer, free.

<sup>19</sup> Produce or manufactures of any other of the Leeward Islands, free.

<sup>20</sup> With an additional charge of 33½ per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>21</sup> See note 6, p. 1549.

<sup>22</sup> Iron bridges; grating bars; water tanks; angles and other materials for the construction of steamboats and barges; materials for railways and telegraphic and electrical plant, free.

RATES OF IMPORT DUTY LEVIED BY THE TARIFFS OF THE SEVERAL COLONIAL AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM,  
ACCORDING TO THE LATEST RETURNS, ETC.—Continued.

POSSESSIONS.	OILS, MINERALS, ETC.				
	Oils.	Candles.	Coals.	Soap.	Salt.
India .....	<i>Per gallon.</i> Mineral, 1 anna; <sup>1</sup> other, 5 per cent ad val. <sup>2</sup>	<i>Per cwt.</i> 5 per cent ad val. <sup>3</sup>	<i>Per ton.</i> Free	<i>Per cwt.</i> 5 per cent ad val.	<i>Per cwt.</i> In Burmah, R. 1½; in other parts, Rs. 3½. <sup>4</sup>
Straits Settlements .....	Free	Free	Free	Free	Free.
Ceylon .....	Kerosene (including all mineral), 25 cents; castor, R. 1.20 cents per cwt.; coconut and fish, free; other, 5½ per cent ad val.	5½ per cent ad val.	Free	Perfumed and toilet, 5½ per cent ad val.; other, 55 cents.	Rs. 2.13 cents.
Australasia:					
New South Wales .....	Free	Free	Free	Free	Free.
Victoria .....	Fish, mineral (refined), kerosene, resin, coconut, palm, lubricating, <sup>5</sup> free (in bulk); other (in bulk), 6d. per gallon; in bottles, 6d. (½ pint and under) to 12s. (over 1 quart and not exceeding 1 gallon) per dozen, according to size.	9s. 4d.	Free. (Ground coal, 20 per cent ad val.)	Perfumed and toilet, 37s. 4d.; other, 18s. 8d.	Brown rock, free; other, 1s.
South Australia .....	Coconut, palm, cod (in bulk), seal, whale, black shale, rhodium, free; salad (in bottles), 4s. per dozen quarts; in bulk, 2s. per gallon; kerosene, 3d. per gallon; other, 6d.	18s. 8d.	Free	Fancy, 37s. 4d.; soap and washing powders, 18s. 8d.; other, 9s. 4d.	Rock, free; other, 1s. 3d.
Tasmania .....	Perfumed, 20 per cent ad val.; lubricating (in bulk), chiefly composed of mineral oil, and kerosene, 6d.; other, 1s. 3d. <sup>7</sup>	18s. 8d.	Small, 2s.; round, 3s.	Common, 9s. 4d.; fancy and perfumed, 28s.	Rock, free; other, 1s. 6d. <sup>8</sup>
New Zealand .....	Benzine (in bulk), kerosene shale (once run for gas making), rhodium, essential, fish, whale, seal, penguin, candlenut, and palm, free; eucalyptus, 20 per cent; perfumed, 25 per cent ad val.; vegetable or other (in bottles), 15 per cent ad val.; other, 6d. per gallon.	9s. 4d.	Free	Common, 5s.; fancy and scented, 25 per cent ad val.; powder, dry, and soft soap, 20 per cent ad val.; honey and brown Windsor composition, free.	Conserved, 15 per cent ad val.; other, free.
Queensland .....	Cod liver, salad, and castor (in bottles), 2s. per dozen pints; linseed and other vegetable oils (except castor), Chinese, cod liver, and neat's foot (in bulk), 1s. per gallon; mineral and other, 6d. per gallon; perfumed, 25 per cent ad val. <sup>9</sup>	18s. 8d.	2s.	Perfumed and toilet, 28s.; other, 10s.; soap powders, 18s. 8d.	Free.
British New Guinea .....	Perfumed, 10 per cent ad val.; other, 6d. per gallon.	9s. 4d.	Free	4s. 8d.	6d.
Natal and Cape of Good Hope. <sup>10</sup>	Essential and perfumed, 20 per cent ad val.; fish oil, 1s. per gallon; other (if in vessels of not less than 1 quart), 3d. per gallon; otherwise, 7½ per cent ad val.	18s. 8d.	Per ton of 2,000 pounds, 3s.	Toilet and soap powders and extracts, 20 per cent ad val.; other, 4s. 2d. per 100 pounds. <sup>11</sup>	Per ton of 2,000 pounds, rock, 2s.; common, 5s.; refined or table, 7½ per cent ad val.
North America:					
Dominion of Canada. <sup>12 13</sup>	Crude palm and coconut, carbolic, resin, cottonseed (when imported by liquid annatto manufacturers for their use), and olive (for manufacturing uses), free; crude petroleum, 1½d.; <sup>14</sup> kerosene (distilled, etc.) and lubricating oils of petroleum (costing less than 1s. 4d. per gallon), 2½d.; essential, 10 per cent ad val.; other, 20 per cent or 25 per cent ad val.	Paraffin wax, 30 per cent ad val.; other, 25 per cent ad val.	Anthracite, free; bituminous, 2s. 2½d. per ton of 2,000 pounds; bituminous slack coal, 20 per cent ad val. <sup>15</sup>	Per pound, common, ½d.; castile and white, 1d.; soap powders, 30 per cent ad val.; harness soap, 25 per cent ad val.; other, 35 per cent ad val.	Per 100 pounds in bulk, 2½d.; <sup>17</sup> otherwise, 3½d. <sup>17</sup>
Newfoundland <sup>12 13</sup>	Kerosene and other illuminating oils, 3d.; <sup>19</sup> linseed and flaxseed, 10 per cent ad val.; olive (in bottles) and cod-liver oil, 30 per cent ad val.; essential, lubricating, neat's foot, lard, sesame <sup>20</sup> and olive, <sup>20</sup> 20 per cent ad val.; other, 35 per cent ad val. <sup>20</sup>	Paraffin wax, 30 per cent ad val.; other, 35 per cent ad val.	At St. Johns, <sup>21</sup> Harbor, Grace, and Carbonar, 2s. ½d.; at Placentia, 1s. 2½d.; <sup>22</sup> other ports, free.	Harness soap, 20 per cent ad val.; Pearlina and other soap powders, 30 per cent ad val.; other, 35 per cent ad val.	When imported in bulk for sea fisheries, 9½d. per ton; dairy and table, 10 per cent ad val.; other, 35 per cent ad val.
Bermuda .....	5 per cent ad val.	5 per cent ad val.	Free	5 per cent ad val.	5 per cent ad val.

<sup>1</sup> Petroleum, with flashing point at or above 200° Fahr., if used for the batching of jute or other fiber, for lubricating purposes or for fuel, 5 per cent ad val.

<sup>2</sup> For value on which percentage is to be reckoned, see table on p. 1563.

<sup>3</sup> Salt imported into Calcutta and issued with the sanction of the Government of Bengal to manufacturers of glazed stoneware, free.

<sup>4</sup> Liquid fuel, the product of petroleum, with a flashing point not under 200° Fahr., free. A rebate of the duty is allowed on kerosene oil when used as the source of motive power in oil engines.

<sup>5</sup> Except refined mineral with point of ignition at or above 80° Fahr.

<sup>6</sup> Of which the chief component part is mineral oil.

<sup>7</sup> Crude shale or petroleum, imported solely for fuel purposes or for the manufacture of gas, also russoline, 3d. per gallon. Batching oil to be used in woollen manufactures, refuse shale (to be used in brickmaking), cod, sod, whale, seal, and penguin oil for tanning, whale oil direct from the fisheries, oil for the preparation of leather, cotton-seed oil (when rendered unfit for other than manufacturing purposes), and coconut and palm (unrefined), free.

<sup>8</sup> If unfit for human consumption, free.

<sup>9</sup> Oil of rhodium, cotton-seed, and fish, and castor oil (in bulk), free.

<sup>10</sup> See note 13, p. 1546.

<sup>11</sup> A rebate of the duty is allowed on soap imported for and used exclusively in connection with the industry of wool washing.

<sup>12</sup> For rates of conversion into sterling, see note 15, p. 1547.

<sup>13</sup> See note 16, p. 1547.

<sup>14</sup> If for use as fuel in factories; otherwise, 2½d. per gallon.

<sup>15</sup> The duty on bituminous slack coal, such as will pass through a half-inch screen, is not to exceed 6½d. per ton of 2,000 pounds.

<sup>16</sup> By the commercial treaty between France and Canada the import duties on common and castile soaps of French origin are ½d. and ¼d. per pound, respectively. The advantages granted to France also extend to Great Britain, the British Possessions, and any foreign country which is entitled by treaty with Great Britain to like advantages.

<sup>17</sup> But if imported from United Kingdom or any British possession, or for the use of the sea or Gulf fisheries, free.

<sup>18</sup> With an additional charge of 10 per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given, except in the case of coal.

<sup>19</sup> The duty on kerosene oil may, in some cases, be increased by 2½d. per gallon.

<sup>20</sup> Sesame, olein, beef oil, neutral lard stock, cotton-seed, and other oils to be used in manufacturing and butter coloring, 15 per cent ad val. Olive oil and cotton-seed oil for preserving fish, and oil the product of fish (except cod-liver oil) of British catch, free.

<sup>21</sup> A rebate of the duty is allowed upon all coal supplied in St. Johns to ships of war.

<sup>22</sup> Provided that duties shall not be levied on more than 400 tons imported annually by any person or corporation for the purpose of railway operations.

RATES OF IMPORT DUTY LEVIED BY THE TARIFFS OF THE SEVERAL COLONIAL AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM,  
ACCORDING TO THE LATEST RETURNS, ETC.—Continued.

POSSESSIONS.	OILS, MINERALS, ETC.				
	Oils.	Candles.		Coals.	Soap.
		Tallow.	Other kinds.		
	Per gallon.	4s. 7½d.	9s. 2½d.	Per ton.	Per 100 pounds.
Honduras <sup>1</sup> .....	Mineral oil of and above 130° test, 1½d., below 130° test, 3d. Other, in bottles, 12½ per cent ad val.; other, in bulk, 3d. per gallon.			Free .....	Per 100 pounds, 1s. ½d. ....
West India Islands:					
Bahamas .....	Kerosene, 3d.; <sup>2</sup> crude petroleum, coconut, cotton seed, lubricating, and palm, free; essential, 25 per cent ad val.; other, 9d. 1s.	6s. per 100 pounds.	Sperm, 11s. per 100 pounds.	Free .....	Common, 4s. per 100 pounds; other, 20 per cent ad val.
Turks Islands .....	Mineral, 1d.; other, 6d.	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....	3s. per 100 pounds. ....
Jamaica .....	Essential and perfumed, 16½ per cent ad val.; petroleum, naphtha, and gasoline, 7½d.; other, 9d.	7s. ....	18s. 8d. ....	Free .....	Common, 5s. 6d. per 100 pounds; other, 16½ per cent ad val.
St. Lucia .....	Perfumed, 20 per cent ad val.; medicinal and sewing machine, 15 per cent ad val.; petroleum, 2½d.; other, 6d. <sup>3</sup>	9s. 4d. <sup>4</sup> .....	18s. 8d. <sup>5</sup> .....	6d. <sup>6</sup> .....	Fancy, 20 per cent ad val.; other, 2s. 6d. per 100 pounds. <sup>7</sup>
St. Vincent <sup>8</sup> .....	Chemical, essential, and perfumed, 10 per cent ad val.; kerosene, 2½d.; other, 6d.	5s. per 100 pounds.	10s. per 100 pounds.	10 per cent ad val.	Common, 4s. 8d.; other, 10 per cent ad val.
Barbados .....	Kerosene, 6d.; other, 15 per cent ad val.	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds.	12s. 6d. per 100 pounds.	2s. 6d. ....	3s. per 100 pounds. ....
Grenada .....	Kerosene and paraffin, 2½d.; olive, sperm, and lard, 1s.; other kinds, 9d.	5s. per 100 pounds.	16s. 8d. per 100 pounds.	Free .....	2s. per 100 pounds. ....
Virgin Islands <sup>9</sup> .....	Olive, 1s.; castor and cod liver, free; petroleum, per case of 8 gallons, 1s. 6d.; other, 9d.	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds.	16s. 8d. per 100 pounds.	2s. 6d. ....	Fancy, 10 per cent ad val.; other, 4s. 2d. per 100 pounds.
St. Christopher and Nevis. <sup>10</sup>	Castor, cod liver, and olive, 1s.; petroleum, per case of 8 gallons, 2s.; <sup>7</sup> other, 8d.	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds.	16s. 8d. per 100 pounds.	2s. 1d. ....	Fancy, 20 per cent ad val.; other, 4s. 2d. per 100 pounds.
Antigua <sup>11</sup> .....	Castor, cod liver, and olive, 1s.; petroleum, per case of 8 gallons, 1s. 6d.; other, 8d.	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds.	16s. 8d. per 100 pounds.	2s. ....	Fancy, 20 per cent ad val.; other, 4s. 2d. per 100 pounds.
Montserrat <sup>12</sup> .....	Castor, cod liver, and olive, 1s.; petroleum, per case of 8 gallons, 1s. 6d.; other, 8d.	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds.	16s. 8d. per 100 pounds.	2s. ....	Fancy, 20 per cent ad val.; other, 4s. 2d. per 100 pounds.
Dominica <sup>13</sup> .....	Castor and cod liver, 1s. 6d.; olive and cotton seed (refined), 1s.; kerosene and rock oil, per case of 8 gallons, 2s. 6d.; in other packages, 4d. per gallon; essential, 12½ per cent ad val.; other, 8d.	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds.	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds.	5s. ....	Fancy, 20 per cent ad val.; other, 4s. 2d. per 100 pounds.
Trinidad and Tobago.	Creosote, 5 per cent ad val.; petroleum, 9d.; other, 1s. 3d.	5 per cent ad val.	5 per cent ad val.	Free .....	2s. 1d. per 100 pounds. ....
British Guiana <sup>14</sup> .....	Perfumed, medicinal, and essential, 15 per cent ad val.; crude petroleum, ½d.; other, 1s. ½d. per gallon. <sup>15</sup>	4s. 8d. ....	23s. 4d. ....	Per hhd. 1s. 4d. <sup>11</sup> ..	Common, 2s. 4d.; fancy, £1 8s.

<sup>1</sup> For rates of conversion into sterling, see note 15, p. 1547.

<sup>2</sup> A drawback of 90 per cent is allowed upon kerosene oil when used as fuel in the working of a steam, oil, or gas engine.

<sup>3</sup> With an additional charge of 15 per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>4</sup> If used in the manufacture of sugar or other products, free.

<sup>5</sup> With an additional charge of 10 per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>6</sup> Produce or manufactures of any other of the Leeward Islands free.

<sup>7</sup> The additional duty of 10 per cent is not imposed on petroleum and its products.

<sup>8</sup> With an additional charge of 33½ per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>9</sup> See note 6, p. 1549.

<sup>10</sup> But, if giving off inflammable vapor at temperatures less than 85° F., 12s. 6d. per gallon.

<sup>11</sup> Loose, 2s. 1d. per ton.

RATES OF IMPORT DUTY LEVIED BY THE TARIFFS OF THE SEVERAL COLONIAL AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, ACCORDING TO THE LATEST RETURNS, ETC.—Continued.

POSSESSIONS.	ARTICLES OF FOOD AND DRINK.				
	Bacon and hams.	Beef and pork, salted.	Butter.	Coffee.	Corn, wheat.
	<i>Per cwt.</i>	<i>Per cwt.</i>	<i>Per cwt.</i>	<i>Per cwt.</i>	<i>Per bushel.</i>
India .....	5 per cent ad val. <sup>1</sup> .....	5 per cent ad val. <sup>1</sup> .....	5 per cent ad val. <sup>1</sup> .....	5 per cent ad val. <sup>1</sup> .....	Free .....
Straits Settlements .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....
Ceylon .....	Rs. 3 .....	R. 1.25 cents .....	Rs. 3 .....	Free .....	Per cwt., 50 cents .....
Australasia:					
New South Wales .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....
Victoria .....	18s. 8d. ....	Per 100 pounds, beef, 7s.; pork, 10s. ....	18s. 8d. (butterine, etc., 112s.) .....	Raw, free; other, £1 8s. ....	Per 100 pounds, 2s. 11d. ....
South Australia .....	37s. 4d. ....	Beef, 18s. 8d.; pork, 28s. ....	18s. 8d. (butterine, 37s. 4d.) .....	Raw, £1 8s.; roasted, £1 17s. 4d. <sup>3</sup> .....	By sea, per 100 pounds, 2s.; overland, free. ....
Tasmania .....	18s. 8d. ....	Beef, 9s. 4d.; pork, 18s. 8d. ....	18s. 8d. ....	Raw, 18s. 8d.; roasted, £1 17s. 4d. ....	Per 100 pounds, 1s. 6d. ....
New Zealand .....	18s. 8d. ....	20 per cent ad val. ....	20 per cent ad val. ....	Raw, free; roasted, £1 8s. ....	Per 100 pounds, 9d. ....
Queensland .....	28s. ....	Beef and mess pork, 9s. 4d.; other pork, 18s. 8d. ....	28s. (butterine, 37s. 4d.) .....	Raw, £1 17s. 4d.; roasted, £2 16s. ....	4d. ....
Natal <sup>5</sup> .....	18s. 8d. ....	18s. 8d. ....	28s. ....	[Raw, 6s. 3d. per 100 pounds; roasted, ground, and mixed, 16s. 8d. per 100 pounds. ....	Per 100 pounds, 2s. ....
Cape of Good Hope <sup>5</sup> .....					
North America:					
Dominion of Canada <sup>6</sup> .....	1d. per pound .....	1d. per pound .....	2d. per pound <sup>10</sup> .....	Green, from country of pro- duction, <sup>11</sup> free; other- wise, 10 per cent ad val. Roasted or ground, from country of production, 1d. per pound; otherwise, 1d. per pound and 10 per cent ad val. ....	5½d. <sup>12</sup> .....
Newfoundland <sup>6</sup> .....	Smoke cured, 13s. 9½d., and 10 per cent ad val.; dry salted or pickled, 9s. 2½d. ....	Beef 4s., 1½d. per barrel; pork, belly, back, or family mess and loin, 8s. 2½d. per barrel; other, 6s. 2d. per barrel. <sup>13</sup> .....	13s. 9½d. <sup>15</sup> .....	Green, 23s. 0½d.; roasted or ground, 32s. 2½d. ....	Free .....
Bermuda .....	5 per cent ad val. ....	5 per cent ad val. ....	5 per cent ad val. ....	5 per cent ad val. ....	5 per cent ad val. ....
Honduras <sup>9</sup> .....	12½ per cent ad val. ....	4s. 1½d. per barrel of 200 pounds. ....	12½ per cent ad val. ....	9s. 2½d. ....	12½ per cent ad val. ....
West India Islands:					
Bahamas .....	6s. per 100 pounds .....	6s. per 100 pounds. ....	20 per cent ad val. ....	Raw, 8s. per 100 pounds; roasted or prepared, 12s. per 100 pounds. ....	6d. ....
Turks Islands .....	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds. ....	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds .....	Free .....	Free .....
Jamaica .....	18s. 8d. ....	15s. per barrel of 200 pounds. ....	18s. 8d. ....	British colonial: Raw, 20s. per 100 pounds; roasted, 40s. per 100 pounds; other, 16½ per cent ad val. ....	6d. ....
St. Lucia <sup>19</sup> .....	18s. 8d. ....	9s. 4d. ....	18s. 8d. ....	9s. 4d. ....	6d. ....
St. Vincent <sup>18</sup> .....	9s. 4d. ....	10s. per barrel of 200 pounds. ....	9s. 4d. (oleomargarine, 4s. 8d.) .....	5s. per 100 pounds. ....	4d. ....
Barbados .....	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds. ....	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds (ole- omargarine, 4s. 2d. per 100 pounds). ....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds .....	9d. per 100 pounds. ....
Grenada .....	5s. per 100 pounds .....	5s. per 100 pounds .....	9s. 4d. (butterine, etc., 4s. 8d.) .....	18s. 8d. ....	6d. ....
Virgin Islands <sup>20</sup> .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pound .....	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds .....	5s. per 100 pounds. ....	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds .....	6d. ....
St. Christopher <sup>13</sup> <sup>20</sup> .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds. ....	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds (ole- omargarine, 5s.) .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds .....	3d. ....
Nevis <sup>18</sup> <sup>20</sup> .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds. ....	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds .....	3d. ....
Antigua <sup>20</sup> <sup>21</sup> .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds. ....	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds .....	3d. ....
Montserrat <sup>20</sup> <sup>21</sup> .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds. ....	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds .....	3d. ....
Dominica <sup>20</sup> .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds. ....	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds .....	10s. per 100 pounds .....	10s. 5d. per 100 pounds .....	6d. ....
Trinidad .....	Free .....	Free .....	9s. 4d. (oleomargarine, 4s. 8d.) .....	Free .....	4d. ....
Tobago .....	9s. 4d. ....	8s. 4d. per barrel of 200 pounds. ....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds .....	21s. ....	½d. per pound. ....
British Guiana <sup>22</sup> .....					

<sup>1</sup> For value on which percentage is to be reckoned, see table on p. 1563.

<sup>2</sup> Undressed, to be dressed in bond, 4s. per 100 pounds; to be manufactured into starch in bond, free.

<sup>3</sup> Coffee and substitutes therefor mixed with chicory or coffee, 56s. per cwt.

<sup>4</sup> If to be manufactured into starch in bond, free.

<sup>5</sup> See note 13, p. 1546.

<sup>6</sup> If manufactured from South African wheat and imported from countries within the S. A. Customs Union, free.

<sup>7</sup> If of South African catching, free.

<sup>8</sup> For rates of conversion into sterling, see note 15, p. 1547.

<sup>9</sup> See note 16, p. 1547.

<sup>10</sup> The importation of oleomargarine, butterine, and all such substitutes for butter is prohibited.

<sup>11</sup> Or if purchased in bond in the United Kingdom, and the coffee so purchased is such as might be entered for home consumption.

RATES OF IMPORT DUTY LEVIED BY THE TARIFFS OF THE SEVERAL COLONIAL AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM,  
ACCORDING TO THE LATEST RETURNS, ETC.—Continued.

ARTICLES OF FOOD AND DRINK.				
Corn.		Rice.	Fish.	
Indian.	Flour (wheaten).		Dried.	Pickled.
<i>Per bushel.</i>	<i>Per barrel.</i>	<i>Per cwt.</i>	<i>Per cwt.</i>	<i>Per barrel.</i>
Free	5 per cent ad val.	Free	Salted, 8½ annas; other, 5 per cent ad val.	Per cwt., 8½ annas.
Free	Free	Free	Free	Free.
Per cwt., 50 cents.	Per cwt., R. 1	50 cents; paddy, 33 cents.	50 cents.	Per cwt., 50 cents.
Free	Free	Free	Free	Free.
Per 100 pounds, 2s. 11d.	Per 100 pounds, 5s.	Per 100 pounds—paddy, 2s.; other, 8s. <sup>2</sup>	5s.	Per cwt., 5s.
Per 100 pounds, 1s.	Per 100 pounds, 2s.	3s. <sup>4</sup>	9s. 4d.	10 per cent ad val.
Per 100 pounds, 1s. 6d.	Per 100 pounds, 2s.	9s. 4d.	20 per cent ad val.	20 per cent ad val.
Per 100 pounds, 9d.	Per 100 pounds, 1s.	Free	10s.	Per cwt., 10s.
8d.	Per 2,000 pounds, £1	9s. 4d.	9s. 4d.	Per cwt., 9s. 4d.
Per 100 pounds, 2s.	{ If for consumption in Natal, free; otherwise, 4s. 6d. per 100 pounds. <sup>6</sup>	7½ per cent ad val.	9s. 4d. <sup>7</sup>	Per cwt., 9s. 4d. <sup>7</sup>
For distillation, 3½d. <sup>12</sup> ; otherwise, free.	2s. 5½d. <sup>13</sup>	Per 100 pounds, uncleaned, or paddy, 2s. ½d.; cleaned, 5s. 1½d. <sup>13</sup> (for starch making, 3s. 1d.).	Herrings, pickled or salted, 1d. per pound. Mackerel and pickled salmon, and all other dried or pickled fish imported in barrels, ½d. per pound. Foreign-caught fish, imported otherwise than in barrels, 2s. ½d. per 100 pounds.	
Free	1s. ½d. <sup>17</sup>	Cleaned, 1s. 1½d. <sup>18</sup> refuse and uncleaned, free.	If British caught and cured, free; otherwise, cod, ling, and haddock, 6s. 2d. per cwt. Herring, salmon, turbot, halibut, and mackerel, 4s. 1½d. per barrel; other, 35 per cent ad val. <sup>19</sup>	
5 per cent ad val.	5 per cent ad val.	5 per cent ad val.	5 per cent ad val.	5 per cent ad val.
12½ per cent ad val.	2s. 1d.	12½ per cent ad val.	12½ per cent ad val.	12½ per cent ad val.
6d.	3s. 6d.	2s. per 100 pounds.	4s. per 100 pounds.	25 per cent ad val.
Free	3s. 9d.	1s. per 100 pounds.	Free	Free.
4d.	8s.	Undressed, 1s. per bushel; other, 3s. per 100 pounds.	Smoked, 2s. 1d. to 16s. 8d. per 100 pounds; other, 2s. 6d. per 100 pounds.	Salmon, 10s. 6d.; other, 4s.
6d.	4s.	2s. per 100 pounds.	3s.	Salmon, 5s. per cwt.; other, 2s. 6d.
4d.	4s.	1s. 2d.	1s. per 100 pounds.	1s.
6d. per 100 pounds.	4s. 2d.	1s. 6d. per 100 pounds.	2s. 6d.	Trout or salmon, 6s. 3d.; other, 3s. 1½d.
6d.	4s.	2s. per 100 pounds.	1s. per 100 pounds.	Salmon, 1d. per pound; other, 2s. per barrel.
6d.	3s. 6d.	3s. per 100 pounds.	2s. 1d. per 100 pounds.	Salmon, 8s.; mackerel, 3s.; other, 2s. 6d.
3d. <sup>17</sup>	6s.	1s. ½d. per 100 pounds. <sup>17</sup>	1s. 6d. <sup>17</sup>	Salmon, 8s.; <sup>17</sup> other, 2s. 6d.
3d.	5s.	2s. 1d. per 100 pounds.	1s. 6d.	Salmon, 8s.; other, 2s. 6d.
3d.	6s.	2s. 1d. per 100 pounds.	1s. 6d.	Salmon, 8s.; other, 2s. 6d.
6d.	6s.	2s. 6d. per 100 pounds.	2s. 6d.	Salmon, 8s. 4d.; mackerel, 4s. 2d.; other, 3s.
4d.	3s. 4d.	2s. 2d. per 100 pounds.	Free	Free.
½d. per pound.	4s. 2d.	1s. 5½d. per 100 pounds.	2s. 1d.	Salmon, 8s. 4d.; mackerel, 4s. 2d.; other, 2s. 1d.

<sup>12</sup> If damaged by water in transit, 10 per cent ad val.

<sup>13</sup> If damaged by water in transit, 20 per cent ad val.

<sup>14</sup> With an additional charge of 10 per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>15</sup> The duty on pork may, in some cases, be increased by 3s. 1d. per barrel, and on butter by 3s. 1d. per 100 pounds.

<sup>16</sup> All packages containing substitutes for butter are to be stamped or marked on importation by a customs officer with the name of the article or with some distinguishing mark.

<sup>17</sup> The duty on flour may in some cases be increased by 3s. 1d. per barrel.

<sup>18</sup> With an additional charge of 10 per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>19</sup> With an additional charge of 15 per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>20</sup> Produce or manufactures of any other of the Leeward Islands, free.

<sup>21</sup> With an additional charge of 33½ per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>22</sup> See note 6, p. 1519.

RATES OF IMPORT DUTY LEVIED BY THE TARIFFS OF THE SEVERAL COLONIAL AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM,  
ACCORDING TO THE LATEST RETURNS, ETC.—Continued.

POSSESSIONS.	ARTICLES OF FOOD AND DRINK—continued.				
	Sugar.		Pickles and sauces.	Tea.	Beer and ale, in wood.
	Raw.	Refined.			
	Per cwt.	Per cwt.	Ad val.	Per pound.	Per gallon.
India .....	5 per cent ad val. <sup>1, 2</sup> .....	5 per cent ad val. <sup>1, 2</sup> .....	5 per cent .....	5 per cent ad val. <sup>2</sup> .....	1 anna .....
Straits Settlements .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....	Free .....	18 cents <sup>4</sup> .....
Ceylon .....	Palm and jaggery, 75 cents; other, Rs. 1½ .....	Rs. 3 .....	5½ per cent .....	25 cents .....	13 cents .....
Australasia:					
New South Wales .....	3s .....	4s .....	Free .....	1d .....	6d .....
Victoria .....	Cane sugar, refined, in bond, 5s. 9d.; otherwise, 6s.; beet and other sugar, 12s. <sup>6</sup> .....	Cane sugar, 6s; beet and other sugar, 12s. <sup>6</sup> .....	In bottles, etc., not above 1 gallon, 6d. to 12s. per dozen. Above 1 gallon: Pickles, 20 per cent; sauces, 10 per cent. .....	3d .....	10d .....
South Australia .....	3s .....	3s .....	In bottles, not above 1 quart, 1s. 6d. to 4s. per dozen. .....	3d .....	1s. 2d .....
Tasmania .....	6s .....	Crushed, ground, cube, loaf, tablet, icing, and castor, 9s. 4d.; other, 6s. .....	In bottles, not above 1 quart: Pickles, 1s. 4d. to 3s. per dozen; sauces, 1s. 6d. to 4s. per dozen. .....	3d .....	1s. ....
New Zealand .....	4s. 8d. ....	4s. 8d. ....	Pickles, 3s. per gallon; sauces, 4s. per gallon. .....	2d .....	2s. ....
Queensland .....	5s .....	6s. 8d. ....	In bottles, etc., not above 1 gallon, 6d., to 12s. per dozen. .....	3d <sup>11</sup> .....	1s. 3d .....
Natal <sup>12</sup> and Cape of Good Hope. <sup>12</sup> .....	Cane, 3s. 6d. per 100 pounds; other, 5s. per 100 pounds. .....	5s. per 100 pounds .....	2d. per pound .....	6d .....	1s. 3d .....
North America:					
Dominion of Canada <sup>12, 16</sup> .....	Not above No. 16 Dutch standard in color, testing not more than 75° by the polariscope, 1s. 7½d. per 100 pounds (with ½d. per 100 pounds for each addi- tional degree. .....	Sugar above No. 16 Dutch standard in color, and all refined sugar testing not more than 88° by the po- lariscope, 4s. 5½d. per 100 pounds (with ½d. per 100 pounds for each addi- tional degree); glucose, ½d. per pound; maple, 20 per cent ad val. .....	35 per cent .....	From country of pro- duction, <sup>17</sup> free; other- wise, 10 per cent ad val. .....	7½d .....
Newfoundland <sup>16, 19</sup> .....	9s. 2½d. ....	Loaf, cut loaf, cube, castor, and icing sugar, 18s. 4½d.; glucose, 30 per cent ad val.; maple, 35 per cent ad val. .....	30 per cent .....	30 per cent ad val. ....	1s. 5½d .....
Bermuda .....	5 per cent ad val. ....	5 per cent ad val. ....	5 per cent .....	5 per cent ad val. ....	4½d .....
Honduras <sup>16</sup> .....	6s. 1½d. ....	9s. 2½d. ....	12½ per cent .....	2½d .....	1s. ½d .....
West India Islands:					
Bahamas .....	3s. per 100 pounds .....	8s. per 100 pounds .....	20 per cent .....	6d .....	1s. ....
Turks Islands .....	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds .....	Free .....	6d .....	2d .....
Jamaica .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds .....	16½ per cent .....	1s. ....	9d .....
St. Lucia <sup>24</sup> .....	4s. 8d. ....	9s. 4d. ....	15 per cent .....	6d .....	6d .....
St. Vincent <sup>19</sup> .....	1s. 6d. per 100 pounds .....	Crystallized, 3s. per 100 pounds; other, 4s. per 100 pounds. .....	10 per cent .....	6d .....	3½d .....
Barbados <sup>25</sup> .....	15s. per 100 pounds .....	15s. per 100 pounds .....	15 per cent .....	6d .....	18s. 9d. per cask of 64 gallons (old wine gallon). .....
Grenada .....	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds .....	5s. per 100 pounds .....	7½ per cent .....	6d .....	6d .....
Virgin Islands <sup>26</sup> .....	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds .....	6s. 3d. per 100 pounds .....	10 per cent .....	3d .....	6d .....
St. Christopher <sup>26</sup> and Nevis. <sup>26</sup> .....	10 per cent ad val. <sup>19</sup> .....	10 per cent ad val. <sup>19</sup> .....	10 per cent <sup>19</sup> .....	4d. <sup>19</sup> .....	6d. <sup>27</sup> .....
Antigua <sup>26, 28</sup> .....	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds .....	10 per cent .....	6d .....	6d .....
Montserrat <sup>26, 28</sup> .....	4s. 2d. per 100 pounds .....	8s. 4d. per 100 pounds .....	10 per cent .....	6d .....	6d .....
Dominica <sup>26</sup> .....	5s. per 100 pounds .....	10s. per 100 pounds .....	12½ per cent .....	8d .....	9d .....
Trinidad and Tobago .....	10s. per 100 pounds .....	10s. per 100 pounds .....	5 per cent .....	6d .....	10d. <sup>30</sup> .....
British Guiana <sup>16, 22</sup> .....	4s. 8d. ....	14s. ....	3d. per quart. ....	8d .....	8d .....

<sup>1</sup> For additional rates of duty on sugar from countries giving bounties on its exportation, see table on p. 1564.

<sup>2</sup> For value on which percentage is to be reckoned, see table on p. 1563.

<sup>3</sup> If containing more than 42 per cent of spirit, rated as spirit.

<sup>4</sup> The right of levying duties on spirituous and fermented liquors "used or consumed" in the Straits Settlements is farmed.

<sup>5</sup> In no case is the duty to be less than at the rate of Rs. 5 per gallon.

<sup>6</sup> A rebate of 3s. per hundredweight is allowed on all sugar used in the manufacture of ale, beer, cordials, sirups, jams, jellies, preserves, and confectionery.

<sup>7</sup> No allowance for underproof.

<sup>8</sup> If containing more than 25 per cent of spirit, rated as spirit.

<sup>9</sup> If containing more than 35 per cent of spirit, rated as spirit.

<sup>10</sup> If containing more than 40 per cent of spirit, rated as spirit.

<sup>11</sup> But if in packets for retail sale of half pound and under, 4d. per packet; over half pound, 8d. per pound.

<sup>12</sup> See note 13, p. 1546.

<sup>13</sup> Spirits distilled from the produce of and within the South African customs union pay the excise duty leviable in Natal or Cape Colony on spirits, unless a like duty of not less amount has been paid elsewhere in the union. Should a less amount have been paid, a duty equal to the difference is leviable.

<sup>14</sup> If containing more than 50 per cent of spirit, rated as spirit.

<sup>15</sup> See note 16, p. 1547.

<sup>16</sup> For rates of conversion into sterling, see note 15, p. 1547.

<sup>17</sup> Or if purchased in bond in the United Kingdom and the tea so purchased is such as might be entered there for home consumption.

<sup>18</sup> By the commercial treaty between France and Canada, nonsparkling wines containing 26 per cent or less of alcohol and all sparkling wines of French origin are exempt from the additional duty of 30 per cent ad val. The advantages granted to France also extend to Great Britain, the British possessions, and any foreign country which is entitled by treaty with Great Britain to like advantages.

RATES OF IMPORT DUTY LEVIED BY THE TARIFFS OF THE SEVERAL COLONIAL AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM,  
ACCORDING TO THE LATEST RETURNS, ETC.—Continued.

ARTICLES OF FOOD AND DRINK—continued.			
Beer and ale, in bottle.	Spirits.	Wines.	
		Sparkling.	Other kinds (in wood or bottle).
<i>Per dozen qts.</i>	<i>Per proof gall.</i>	<i>Per gallon, or 6 reputed quarts.</i>	<i>Per gallon, or 6 reputed quarts.</i>
2 annas	Perfumed, Rs. 8; potable, Rs. 6	Sparkling, Rs. 2 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> ; other, R. 1 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	50 cents. <sup>4</sup>
18 cents per gallon <sup>4</sup>	Brandy, geneva, gin, rum, and whisky, Rs. 6; other, Rs. 7. <sup>5</sup>	Rs. 2 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	50 cents to Rs. 1 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> .
17 cents per gallon			
1s. 6d.	14s.	10s.	5s.
Lager, 3s.; other, 2s. 6d.	12s. <sup>7</sup>	12s.	8s. <sup>8</sup>
3s.	15s.	15s.	12s. <sup>9</sup>
1s. 6d. per gallon	15s. <sup>7</sup>	10s.	In wood, 6s.; <sup>10</sup> in bottle, 8s. <sup>10</sup>
4s.	16s.	9s.	Australian, 5s.; <sup>9</sup> other, 6s. <sup>10</sup>
3s.	14s. <sup>7</sup>	10s.	6s. <sup>9</sup>
1s. 6d. per gallon	15s. <sup>7</sup> <sup>11</sup> / <sub>2</sub>	Claret, not exceeding 20 per cent of proof spirit, 6s.; other, 9s. <sup>14</sup> (and, in addition, 7 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> per cent ad val. on all wines when imported not in wood).	
1s. 11 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d.	9s. 10 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d.	Per dozen quart bottles (old wine measure), 13s. 6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d., and so in proportion with 30 per cent ad val. <sup>15</sup>	1s. 1 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d. 26 per cent strength, or less, and 1 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d. additional for each further degree up to 40 per cent, with 30 per cent ad val. <sup>15</sup> <sup>16</sup> / <sub>10</sub>
3s. 3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d.	Rum, 9s. 4 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d.; <sup>7</sup> whisky, 11s. 6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d.; <sup>7</sup> brandy, 13s. 1 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d.; <sup>7</sup> gin and other, 8s. 10 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d. <sup>7</sup>	Spanish, Red, Cape, and Sicilian, 1s. 5 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d. per gallon; claret, 2s. 3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d.; Hock, Burgundy, and light Rhenish, 4s. 1 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d.; port and Madeira, 6s. 9 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d.; champagne, 17s. 3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d.; other, 12 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> per cent ad val., with 4s. 1 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d. per gallon, or 15 per cent ad val., with 4s. 6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d. per gallon. <sup>20</sup>	
1s.	5s. <sup>12</sup> / <sub>12</sub> with 3d. per cask or package additional.	20 per cent ad val.	20 per cent ad val.
2s. 0 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d.	10s. 3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d. <sup>7</sup>	6s. 2 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d.	2s. 1 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d.
2s.	Whisky, 6s. (in bottle, 12s. per doz. qts.); <sup>21</sup> brandy, 10s.; <sup>22</sup> other, 6s. <sup>23</sup>	2s. 6d., with 25 per cent ad val.	
4d.	4s. 6 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d. <sup>23</sup>		
9d. per gallon	16s. <sup>23</sup>	1s., with 10 per cent ad val.	
1s. 3d.	8s.	If of value of 12s. per gallon or upwards, 5s.; of less value, 3s. 6d. <sup>10</sup>	
1s.	Brandy and whisky, 7s. 6d.; <sup>7</sup> rum, 5s. 6d.; <sup>7</sup> other, 6s. 6d. <sup>7</sup>	20 per cent ad val.	
		Champagne, 6s.; other, 25 per cent ad val.	
1s. 3d.	Rum and gin, 5s.; <sup>7</sup> other, 10s. <sup>22</sup>	5s.	2s.
1s.	Rum and gin, 5s.; other, 6s.	25 per cent ad val.	25 per cent ad val.
1s. 6d.	Rum and gin, 1s. 3d.; <sup>7</sup> other, 2s. <sup>7</sup>	10 per cent ad val.	10 per cent ad val.
1s. 6d.	Rum, 4s.; <sup>7</sup> whisky, 4s. 6d.; <sup>7</sup> brandy, 5s.; <sup>7</sup> other, 4s. 2d. <sup>7</sup>	25 per cent ad val.	25 per cent ad val.
1s. 6d.	Rum, 3s. 3d.; <sup>7</sup> other, 7s. 6d. <sup>7</sup>	25 per cent ad val.	25 per cent ad val.
1s. 6d.	Rum, 3s. 3d.; <sup>7</sup> whisky, 4s. 6d.; <sup>7</sup> brandy, 5s.; <sup>7</sup> other, 4s. 2d. <sup>7</sup>	25 per cent ad val.	25 per cent ad val.
2s.	Whisky, 4s. 6d.; <sup>7</sup> brandy, 5s.; <sup>7</sup> other, 4s. 2d. <sup>7</sup>	25 per cent ad val.	25 per cent ad val. <sup>29</sup>
1s. 6d.	10s. 6d.; <sup>7</sup> with 1d. additional for every degree above proof.	6s.	In bottle, up to 42° strength of proof spirit, and in wood, from 32° to 42°, 3s. 3d.; <sup>31</sup> in wood, less than 23°, 1s. 3d., and from 23° to 32°, 1s. 9d.
2s. 6d. <sup>32</sup> / <sub>32</sub>	14s. 7d. <sup>34</sup> / <sub>34</sub>	If of value not exceeding 8s. 4d. per gallon, and less than 26 per cent strength of proof spirit, in wood, 2s. 3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>2</sub> d.; in bottle, 2s. 6d.; other sorts, in wood, 4s. 2d.; in bottle, 6s. 3d. <sup>35</sup> <sup>36</sup> / <sub>36</sub>	

<sup>19</sup> With an additional charge of 10 per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>20</sup> Malaga and Montilla, costing under 3<sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub>s. 3d. per gallon at port of shipment, 1s. 5<sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub>d. per gallon.

<sup>21</sup> With 1<sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub>d. additional per gallon for each degree overproof.

<sup>22</sup> Irrespective of strength.

<sup>23</sup> The duty is not to be less than 13s. 6d. per liquid gallon.

<sup>24</sup> With an additional charge of 15 per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>25</sup> The measure in use is the old wine gallon, about five-sixths of the imperial gallon.

<sup>26</sup> Produce or manufactures of any other of the Leeward Islands, free.

<sup>27</sup> With an additional charge of 20 per cent on the duty leviable at the rate given.

<sup>28</sup> With an additional charge of 33<sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub> per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>29</sup> Claret in vessels containing more than 1 quart and value not exceeding 5l. per 45 gallons, 6d. per gallon.

<sup>30</sup> Of an original gravity of 1,065 degrees or less, and so in proportion for every degree in excess of 1,065.

<sup>31</sup> With 8d. additional per gallon for each higher degree.

<sup>32</sup> See note 6, p. 1549.

<sup>33</sup> The quantity is subject to a maximum allowance of 5 per cent for breakage.

<sup>34</sup> No spirits (except liquors) may be imported into the Colony of a lower strength than 25° under proof.

<sup>35</sup> If containing more than 42 per cent of proof spirit, rated as spirit.



RATES OF IMPORT DUTY LEVIED BY THE TARIFFS OF THE SEVERAL COLONIAL AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, ACCORDING TO THE LATEST RETURNS, ETC.—Continued.

POSSESSIONS.	MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES.				
	Tobacco.			Paper and stationery.	Books. <sup>1</sup>
	Unmanufactured.	Manufactured.	Cigars.		
	<i>Per pound.</i>	<i>Per pound.</i>	<i>Per pound.</i>	<i>Ad val.</i>	<i>Ad val.</i>
India.....	Free.....	5 per cent ad val.....	5 per cent ad val.....	Printing ink, free; other, 5 per cent.....	Free.
Straits Settlements.....	Free.....	Free.....	Free.....	Free.....	Free.
Ceylon.....	25 cents.....	40 cents.....	Rs. 1½.....	Christmas, wedding, birthday, and blank cards, music and maps, printed, exercise and manuscript notebooks, and printed labels, free; other stationery, 5½ per cent; paper (including paper for lining tea boxes) and envelopes, free.	Free.
Australasia, New South Wales.....	For manufacture in the colony, 1s.; otherwise, 3s.	3s.....	6s.....	Free.....	Free.
Victoria.....	1s.....	3s.....	6s.....	Stationery—part free; part 20 per cent; part 35 per cent. Ink, 10 per cent; paper—cut, 2d. per pound; writing and printing paper, uncut, free; other paper, 6s. per hundredweight. <sup>2</sup>	Free.
South Australia.....	1s. 7½d.....	2s. 9d.....	6s. 8d.....	Writing (except faint-lined), blotting, and printing paper, and ink, free; wrapping and tissue paper, 3s. 4d. per hundredweight. Pens and penholders (not fancy), free; other stationery—part free; part 10 per cent; part 25 per cent.	Free.
Tasmania.....	3s.....	3s.....	7s.....	Paper, uncut: For newspapers, 5 per cent; other uncut, not smaller than 18½ by 14½ inches, 7½ per cent; for wrapping fruit (not exceeding 10 inches by 10 inches) and butter, and bookbinders' and and marble paper, free; atlases, charts, maps, school slates, slate pencils, music, and printing ink, free; other paper and stationery, 20 per cent.	Free.
New Zealand.....	For manufacture in the colony, 2s.; otherwise, 3s. 6d.	3s. 6d.....	7s.....	Paper, printing and writing (uncut, not less than demy), and printing ink, free; wrapping, 6s. per hundredweight; other and stationery, free, 20 per cent or 25 per cent.	Free.
Queensland.....	For manufacture in the colony, 2s.; otherwise, 4s.	4s.....	6s.....	Paper, uncut (not less than demy size), printing paper, free; writing, cut, 2d. per pound; other sorts, 5 per cent. Printing and ruling ink, free. (Pens, 15 per cent.)	Free.
British New Guinea.....	1s.....	3s.....	4s.....	Other stationery, 25 per cent.	Free.
Natal <sup>3</sup> .....	Stemmed, 3s. 6d.; unstemmed, 2s. <sup>4</sup>	Cut, 3s. 6d.; uncut, 3s. <sup>4</sup>	6s. with 7½ per cent ad val. additional. <sup>5</sup>	Plain and medicated for lining chests to export produce, and printing paper, free; brown and wrapping and paper bags, 2s. per hundredweight; writing and fancy paper and stationery and ink, 10 per cent.	Free.
Cape of Good Hope <sup>6</sup> .....	Stemmed, 3s. 6d.; unstemmed, 2s. <sup>4</sup>	Cut, 3s. 6d.; uncut, 3s. <sup>4</sup>	6s. with 7½ per cent ad val. additional. <sup>5</sup>	Printing and lithographic paper and ink, marble paper, atlases, charts, maps, and music, free; other, 7½ per cent.	Free.
North America: Dominion of Canada <sup>7</sup> Newfoundland <sup>8</sup> .....	Free..... Stems, for manufacturing snuff, 2s. ½d. per 100 pounds; other, 1s. 7½d. <sup>9</sup>	Cut, 2s. 3½d.; other, 2s. ½d. Stripped or partly manufactured, 1s. 7½d. per pound, with 5 per cent ad val.; other, 1s. 2½d. per pound, with 5 per cent ad val. <sup>9</sup>	12s. 4d. with 25 per cent ad val. 2s. 11½d. per 1,000, with 20 per cent ad val. <sup>9</sup>	Various rates, from 10 per cent to 35 per cent.	Part free; part 10 per cent and 20 per cent.
Bermuda.....	6d.....	6d.....	1s. 6d., or per 1,000, 15s.	Printing paper and ink, when imported by printers for their business, and parchment or wax paper for wrapping boneless fish, or lobster packing, school maps and charts, free; other, various rates, from 10 per cent to 50 per cent. <sup>9</sup>	Part free; part 10 per cent and 35 per cent.
Honduras <sup>9</sup> .....	4d.....	2s. ½d.....	Per 1,000, 3s. 8½d.....	5 per cent.....	Free.
West India Islands:				12½ per cent.....	Free.
Bahamas.....	3d.....	Fine cut, 40 per cent ad val.; other, 6d.	Per 100, 4s. 2d.....	20 per cent.....	Free.
Turks Islands.....	½d.....	1d.....	Per 1,000, 10s.....	Free.....	Free.
Jamaica.....	1s.....	3s.....	6s.....	Printing paper and school slates and pencils, free; other paper and stationery, 10 per cent	Free.
St. Lucia <sup>10</sup> .....	1s.....	1s.....	5s.....	Receipt books, billheads, and forms, imported by the West India and Panama Telegraph Co., Ltd., and printing ink, free; other, 15 per cent.	Free.
St. Vincent <sup>7</sup> .....	9d.....	2s.....	Long cigars, 1s.; other, 8s.	10 per cent.....	Free.
Barbados.....	If in packages less than 50 pounds net weight, 1s. 6d. per pound; other, 1s.	If in packages less than 50 pounds net weight, 2s. per pound; other 1s. 6d.	6s.....	Printing paper and ink, maps, charts, music, and cards (except playing cards), free; other, 15 per cent.	Free.
Grenada.....	9d.....	9d.....	Long cigars, 1s.; other, 8s.	Printing paper and ink, free; other, 7½ per cent.	Free.

<sup>1</sup> Not being British copyright works.

<sup>2</sup> Paperhangings, vegetable parchment for wrapping butter, transfer paper used for transferring designs on woollen fabrics or other material, and paper specially prepared for making gun or blasting cartridges, free.

<sup>3</sup> See note 13, p. 1546.

<sup>4</sup> If the produce of South Africa and imported overland, free.

<sup>5</sup> See note 16, p. 1548.

<sup>6</sup> For rates of conversion into sterling see note 15, p. 1547.

<sup>7</sup> With an additional charge of 10 per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>8</sup> The duty on tobacco may, in some cases, be increased 20s. 6½d. per 100 pounds. All packages containing tobacco are to be stamped or marked on importation by a Customs officer with the name of the article or some distinguishing mark.

<sup>9</sup> A drawback is allowed to any printer to the amount of any duties that may have been paid on any paper actually printed upon in the colony.

<sup>10</sup> With an additional charge of 15 per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

RATES OF IMPORT DUTY LEVIED BY THE TARIFFS OF THE SEVERAL COLONIAL AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM,  
ACCORDING TO THE LATEST RETURNS, ETC.—Continued.

POSSESSIONS.	MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES.				
	Tobacco.			Paper and stationery.	Books. <sup>1</sup>
	Unmanufactured.	Manufactured.	Cigars.		
West India Islands— Continued:	<i>Per pound.</i>	<i>Per pound.</i>	<i>Per pound.</i>	<i>Ad val.</i>	<i>Ad val.</i>
Virgin Islands <sup>2</sup> .....	8d.....	1s.....	"Long Toms," 2d.; other, 1s.	Printing paper and ink, free; other 10 per cent.	Free.
St. Christopher <sup>3</sup> .....	9d. <sup>4</sup> .....	2s. 6d.....	"Long Toms," 2s. 6d. per 100; other, 5s. per 100.	10 per cent .....	Free.
Nevis <sup>3</sup> .....	9d. <sup>4</sup> .....	2s. 6d.....	"Long Toms," 2s. 6d. per 100; other, 5s. per 100.	10 per cent .....	Free.
Antigua <sup>3</sup> .....	9d. <sup>4</sup> .....	2s. 6d.....	"Long Toms," 2s. 6d.; other, 5s.	10 per cent .....	Free.
Montserrat <sup>3</sup> .....	9d. <sup>4</sup> .....	2s. 6d.....	"Long Toms," 2s. 6d.; other, 5s.	10 per cent .....	Free.
Dominica <sup>3</sup> .....	9d. <sup>4</sup> .....	2s. 6d.....	"Long Toms," 1s. 6d.; other, 5s.	12½ per cent .....	Free.
Trinidad .....	1s. 3d.....	3s.....	5s.....	Maps and charts, free; other, 5 per cent .....	Free.
Tobago .....	1s. 3d.....	3s.....	5s.....	Maps and charts, free; other, 5 per cent .....	Free.
British Guiana <sup>6</sup> .....	If in packages not less than 500 pounds, 2s. 6d. <sup>7</sup> ; otherwise, 8s. 4d. <sup>8</sup>	4s. 2d.....	6s. 3d.....	Printing paper and ink <sup>9</sup> , maps and copy- books for educational purposes, and show cards, free; other, 15 per cent. <sup>10</sup>	Free.

<sup>1</sup> Not being British copyright works.

<sup>2</sup> Produce or manufactures of any other of the Leeward Islands, free.

<sup>3</sup> With an additional charge of 10 per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>4</sup> But if imported in packages of less than 500 pounds, 2s. per pound.

<sup>5</sup> With an additional charge of 33½ per cent on the duty leviable at the rates given.

<sup>6</sup> For rates of conversion into sterling see note 15, p. 1547.

<sup>7</sup> If containing less than 10 pounds of moisture per 100 pounds; otherwise, 2s. 1d.

<sup>8</sup> If containing less than 10 pounds of moisture per 100 pounds; otherwise, 2s. 6d.

<sup>9</sup> When imported by or directly for the conductor of any newspaper or printing establishment.

<sup>10</sup> See note 6, p. 1549.

RATES OF EXPORT DUTY LEVIED BY THE TARIFFS OF THE SEVERAL COLONIAL AND OTHER POSSESSIONS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, ACCORDING TO THE LATEST RETURNS RECEIVED UP TO THE DATE OF THE PUBLICATION OF THE PRESENT NUMBER OF THE COLONIAL ABSTRACT.

[NOTE.—In colonies other than those specified no export duties are levied.]

POSSESSIONS.	Articles.	Rates of export duty.	POSSESSIONS.	Articles.	Rates of export duty.
India .....	Rice, husked or unhusked, including rice flour, but not rice bran and rice dust, per cwt. ....	4½ annas.	West Indies—Cont'd.	Hogs and pigs (other than sucking pigs), each. ....	1s.
Ceylon .....	Plumbago, per cwt. ....	25 cents.	Virgin Islands—Continued.	Charcoal, per barrel. ....	1d.
	Elephants, <sup>1</sup> each. ....	Rs. 200.		Building lime, per barrel. ....	2d.
	Coffee, tea, <sup>2</sup> cocoa, per cwt. ....	10 cents.		Sweet potatoes, yams, and tanniers, per 100 pounds. ....	6d.
	Cinchona, per cwt. ....	5 cents.		Wreck goods, ad val. ....	10 per cent.
	Horns of spotted deer and sambur, per cwt. ....	Rs. 14.		Sugar, per hogshead, not exceeding 42-inch truss. ....	4s 6d.
	Chanks, alive and dead, per 1,000. ....	Rs. 2.	St. Kitts-Nevis. ....	Sugar, per tierce, not exceeding 30-inch truss. ....	3s 2d.
Australasia:	Arrack, per proof gallon. ....	R. 1.25 cents.		Sugar, per barrel. ....	6½d.
Victoria .....	Scrap iron, per ton. ....	£3.		Sugar, other packages, per ton. ....	4s 8d.
New Zealand. ....	Gold exported from the North Island, per ounce troy (20 carats and upward fineness). ....	2s.		Rum, per 100 gallons. ....	3s 6d.
	Oysters exported from the North Island, per cwt. ....	6d.		Animals: Horned cattle, each. ....	6s.
Queensland .....	Cedar timber, log, per 100 superficial feet an inch thick. ....	2s.	Dominica. ....	Bay leaves, per 100 pounds. ....	1s 3d.
	Cedar timber, sawed, if more than 4 inches thick, per 100 superficial feet. ....	2s.		Canoe shells, each. ....	1s.
	Station produce exported across the border, other than by Queensland railways, viz: Wool, sheepskins, and hides, per ton. ....	£2 10s.		Cocoa, per 100 pounds. ....	1s.
Fiji .....	Bêche-de-mer, per ton. ....	£2.		Coffee, per 100 pounds. ....	1s 6d.
Cape of Good Hope. ....	Ostriches, each. ....	£100.		Essential oils:	
	Ostrich eggs, each. ....	£5.		Bay, per gallon. ....	6s.
	Diamonds, ad val. ....	½ per cent. <sup>3</sup>		Other kinds if expressed or equalled, per gallon. ....	3s.
Honduras <sup>4</sup> .....	Logwood, per ton. ....	2s 0½d.		Other kinds if otherwise extracted, per gallon. ....	1s.
	Mahogany, per 1,000 superficial feet. ....	6s 2½d.		Farine manioc, per bushel. ....	3d.
West Indies:				Fruit, fresh:	
Bahamas <sup>5</sup> .....	Guano, cave or other earths, per ton. ....	2s.		Bananas, per 100 bunches. ....	2s 1d.
Turks Islands. ....	Salt, ad val. ....	10 per cent. <sup>6</sup>		Limes, per barrel. ....	1d.
St. Vincent. ....	Arrowroot or other starches, per 200 pounds. ....	3d.		Limes, per box, not exceeding one-half barrel. ....	1d.
	Cocoa, per cwt. ....	3d.		Oranges, per barrel. ....	3d.
	Coffee, per cwt. ....	3d.		Oranges, per box, not exceeding one-half barrel. ....	1½d.
	Cotton, per cwt. ....	3d.		Fruit, preserved:	
	Molasses, per cask of 60 gallons or more. ....	6d.		Limes, pickled, per barrel. ....	6d.
	Molasses, per cask of less than 60 gallons. ....	3d.		Tamarinds, per barrel. ....	1s.
	Rum, per cask of more than 60 gallons. ....	6d.		Fruit jams and fruit jellies, per 100 pounds. ....	4s 2d.
	Rum, per cask not exceeding 60 gallons. ....	3d.		Ginger, per barrel. ....	6d.
	Sugar, per cask or package under 672 pounds gross weight. ....	2d.		Hides and skins:	
	Sugar, per cask under 34-inch truss and above 672 pounds gross weight. ....	10d.		Cattle hides, each. ....	3d.
	Sugar, per hogshead, from 34-inch to 40-inch truss. ....	1s 3d.		All other skins, per dozen. ....	3d.
	Sugar, per hogshead above 40-inch truss. ....	1s 6d.		Lime juice:	
	Spices, per 8 pounds. ....	1d.		Concentrated, per gallon. ....	1½d.
Grenada. ....	Domestic produce:			Raw, for every 10 gallons. ....	1½d.
	Cocoa, per cwt. ....	5d.		Starches, per 100 pounds. ....	1s.
	Cotton, per cwt. ....	4d.		Turtle shell, per pound. ....	6d.
	Cotton seed, per cwt. ....	2d.		Wood:	
	Logwood, per cwt. ....	2d.		Firewood, per cord. ....	1s.
	Spices, per cwt. ....	1s.		Logwood, per cord. ....	2s.
Virgin Islands. ....	Bulls, cows, and oxen, each. ....	8s.	Trinidad .....	Asphalt or pitch, raw, per ton or per 240 gallons. ....	5s.
	Horses and mules, each. ....	6s.		Asphalt or pitch, boiled, per ton. ....	7s 6d.
	Asses, each. ....	2s.		Petroleum:	
	Calves (not more than 9 months old), each. ....	4s.		Raw, per 240 gallons. ....	8s.
	Sheep, lambs, and sucking pigs, each. ....	6d.		Distilled, per 240 gallons. ....	14s 8d.
	Goats and kids, each. ....	3d.		Distilled and refined, per 240 gallons. ....	16s.
				Cocoa, per 100 pounds. ....	9d.
				Coffee, per 100 pounds. ....	9d.
				Molasses, per 100 gallons. ....	2s 6d.
				Rum, per 100 gallons. ....	4s 4d.
				Sugar, per 1,000 pounds. ....	2s 6d.
				Cocoanuts, per 1,000. ....	9d.

<sup>1</sup> No elephants can be shipped for export without the production of a permit for their removal from the district in which the elephants have been captured.

<sup>2</sup> An additional export duty, at the rate of 20 cents per 100 pounds, is also levied on tea.

<sup>3</sup> Fee payable upon the registration of diamonds for exportation.

<sup>4</sup> For rate of conversion into pounds sterling, see note 15, p. 1547.

<sup>5</sup> A duty of 1½ per cent ad valorem is levied on the reexport of all articles (with a few exceptions) that have not paid import duty.

<sup>6</sup> For this duty the value of the salt is fixed by ordinance at 3½d. per bushel.

TARIFF VALUATION, ACCORDING TO THE INDIAN TARIFF, OF THE UNDER-MENTIONED ARTICLES ON WHICH PERCENTAGE DUTIES ARE LEVIABLE ON IMPORTATION INTO BRITISH INDIA.

[For the rates of duty leviable on the articles, see pp. 1546-1560.]

ARTICLES.	Tariff valuation.
Yarns, silk, sewing thread, China.....per pound..	<sup>1</sup> R. A. P. 8 0 0
Cordage, etc.:	
Coir yarn.....per cwt..	6 8 0
Coir cables, tarred.....do..	17 0 0
Coir rope.....do..	10 0 0
Cordage, hemp, European.....do..	25 0 0
Cordage, hemp, Manila.....do..	28 0 0
All other sorts.....do..	Ad val.
Metals:	
Iron and iron wares—	
Anchors and cables.....per ton..	Ad val.
Angle, T, and channel, other than Lowmoor or Swedish.....do..	130 0 0
Angle and T, other than Lowmoor or Swedish (if galvanized).....do..	190 0 0
Channel (if galvanized).....do..	Ad val.
Bar, Lowmoor.....per ton..	375 0 0
Bar, Swedish.....do..	165 0 0
Bar, Swedish, nail rod, also round rod, under half an inch in diameter.....do..	170 0 0
Bar, other kinds.....do..	115 0 0
Bar, other, nail rod and round rod under half an inch in diameter.....do..	120 0 0
Bar, other (if galvanized).....do..	170 0 0
Beams, joists, pillars, girders, bridge works, and other such descriptions of iron imported exclusively for building purposes.....per ton..	Ad val.
Plate and sheet, Lowmoor.....do..	500 0 0
Plate and sheet, Swedish.....do..	Ad val.
Plate and sheet and hoops, other kinds.....per ton..	140 0 0
Hoops, other kinds (if galvanized).....do..	Ad val.
Plate, other kinds (if galvanized).....per ton..	210 0 0
Plate, other kinds (if tinned).....do..	Ad val.
Sheets, other kinds (if galvanized).....per cwt..	10 8 0
Sheets, other kinds (lead coated).....do..	Ad val.
Bar, hoop, plate, and sheet, Lowmoor and Swedish (if galvanized).....do..	Ad val.
Bar (including angle, T, and channel) hoop, plate, and sheet (tinned).....do..	Ad val.
Nails, rose, wire, and flat headed.....per cwt..	10 0 0
Nails, clasp.....do..	17 0 0
Nails, other sorts, including galvanized or tinned.....do..	Ad val.
Rivets and washers, Lowmoor.....per cwt..	20 0 0
Rivets and washers, Lowmoor (if galvanized).....do..	Ad val.
Rivets and washers, other kinds.....per cwt..	10 0 0
Rivets and washers, other kinds (if galvanized or tinned).....do..	Ad val.
Nuts and bolts.....do..	Ad val.
Old.....per cwt..	2 8 0
Fig.....per ton..	60 0 0
Pipes and tubes, including fittings therefor, such as bends, boots, elbows, tees, sockets, flanges, and the like.....do..	Ad val.
Rails, chairs, sleepers, lever boxes, switches, crossings, clips, dog spikes, tiebars, and fish plates other than for such railways as are subject to the provisions of the Indian railways act, 1890, and such railways as are constructed in a native State under the suzerainty of Her Majesty, and such tramways as the governor-general in council may have, by notification in the Gazette of India, specifically included therewith.....do..	Ad val.
Rice bowls.....do..	Ad val.
Ridging, galvanized.....per cwt..	12 0 0
Wire, including fencing wire and wire rope, but excluding wire netting.....do..	Ad val.
All other sorts, including wire netting.....do..	Ad val.
Steel—	
Basic, all sorts (other than galvanized or tinned basic steel sheets).....do..	Ad val.
Basic sheets (if galvanized).....do..	Ad val.
Basic sheets (if tinned).....do..	Ad val.
Beams, joists, pillars, girders, bridge works, and other descriptions of steel imported exclusively for building purposes.....do..	Ad val.
Bars and blooms.....do..	Ad val.
Angle, channel and spring.....do..	Ad val.
Hoops (except galvanized hoop).....per ton..	155 0 0
Hoop (if galvanized).....do..	Ad val.
Nails.....do..	Ad val.
Nuts and bolts and nail rods.....do..	Ad val.
Old.....per ton..	130 0 0
Pipes and tubes, including fittings therefor, such as bends, boots, elbows, tees, sockets, flanges, and the like.....do..	Ad val.
Plates and sheets.....per ton..	145 0 0
Plates and sheets, planished.....do..	Ad val.
Plates and sheets other than basic (if galvanized).....per ton..	210 0 0
Plates and sheets other than basic (if tinned).....do..	Ad val.
Rails, chairs, sleepers, dog spikes, switches, crossings, lever boxes, clips, tiebars, and fish plates, other than for such railways as are subject to the provisions of the Indian railways act, 1890, and such railways as are constructed in a native State under the suzerainty of Her Majesty, and such tramways as the governor-general in council may have, by notification in the Gazette of India, specifically included therewith.....do..	Ad val.
Rivets and washers.....per ton..	210 0 0
Rivets and washers (if galvanized).....do..	310 0 0
Rivets and washers (if tinned).....do..	Ad val.
T bars.....per ton..	135 0 0
T bars (if galvanized).....do..	200 0 0
T bars (if tinned).....do..	Ad val.
Cast and blistered, of any kind not specified.....do..	Ad val.
Wire, excluding wire netting.....do..	Ad val.
Wire rope.....do..	Ad val.
All other sorts, including wire netting.....do..	Ad val.
Glass, glassware, and false pearls:	
Glass, China, all colors.....per 133½ pounds..	38 0 0
False pearls, bājria.....per lakh..	8 0 0
False pearls, boria.....per thousand..	0 10 0
False pearls, jauria.....per lakh..	6 0 0
False pearls, lolakh.....per thousand..	0 8 0
False pearls, nathia.....do..	0 3 0
False pearls, tuchia.....do..	0 8 0
False pearls, wattanah.....per lakh..	10 0 0
All other sorts.....do..	Ad val.
Oils, etc.:	
Oil:	
Cajeputi.....per quart..	1 12 0
Cassia.....per pound..	3 4 0
Cocanut.....per cwt..	16 0 0
Linseed.....per gallon..	1 12 0
Otto of sorts.....per ounce..	15 0 0
Whale (except spermaceti) and fish.....per cwt..	15 0 0
Wood.....do..	25 0 0
Other, including paraffin wax.....do..	Ad val.

<sup>1</sup> Exchange value of rupee about 33 cents; anna, one-sixteenth of rupee; pice, one-fourth of anna.

TARIEF VALUATION, ACCORDING TO THE INDIAN TARIFF, OF THE UNDER-MENTIONED ARTICLES ON WHICH PERCENTAGE DUTIES ARE LEVIABLE ON IMPORTATION INTO BRITISH INDIA—Continued.

ARTICLES.	Tariff valuation.
Oils, etc.—Continued.	
Candles:	
Paraffin.....per pound..	R. A. P. 0 6 0
Spermaceti.....do....	0 7 0
Wax.....do....	1 0 0
Other.....do....	Ad val.
Articles of food and drink:	
Bacon.....per pound..	0 11 0
Hams.....do....	0 11 0
Beef and pork.....per tierce of 3 cwt..	100 0 0
Butter and margarin.....per barrel of 2 cwt..	75 0 0
Coffee.....per pound..	1 0 0
Sugar:	
China, candy.....do....	80 0 0
Loaf.....do....	18 0 0
Crystallized, beet.....do....	15 0 0
Crystallized and soft, from China.....do....	12 0 0
Crystallized and soft, from Mauritius.....do....	12 0 0
Soft or raw, other than from China and Mauritius.....do....	11 8 0
Other.....do....	10 8 0
Tea:	
Black.....per pound..	Ad val.
Green.....do....	0 8 0
	0 10 0

TARIFF VALUATION, ACCORDING TO THE CEYLON TARIFF, OF THE UNDERMENTIONED ARTICLES ON WHICH PERCENTAGE DUTIES ARE LEVIABLE ON IMPORTATION INTO CEYLON.

[For the rates of duty leviable on the articles, see pp. 1546-1547.]

ARTICLES.	Tariff valuation.
Cotton goods:	
Gray shirtings.....per pound..	R. c. 0 55
Gray cambrics.....do....	
Gray jaconets.....do....	
Gray domestics.....do....	
Gray long cloths.....do....	
Gray sheetings.....do....	0 45
Gray tea cloths.....do....	
Gray mule twist, Nos. 30 to 60.....per pound gray weight..	0 90
Yarn, turkey red.....per pound..	0 55
Yarn, other colors.....per pound..	

RATES OF ADDITIONAL DUTY LEVIABLE ON SUGAR IMPORTED INTO INDIA FROM COUNTRIES GIVING BOUNTIES ON THE EXPORTATION OF SUGAR.

COUNTRIES.	Kinds of sugar.	Additional duties to be levied.
		Per cwt.
Argentine Republic.	All kinds.....	R. a. p. 9 2 0
Austria-Hungary.....	Sugar under 99.3 per cent and of at least 90 per cent polarization.....	0 15 0
	Sugar of at least 99.3 per cent polarization.....	1 5 0
Belgium.....	Raw sugar.....	1 4 0
	Refined sugar.....	1 6 0
Denmark.....	do.....	0 8 0
France.....	Raw sugars from 65 to 98 per cent polarization for beetroot sugars, or 65 to 97 per cent for French colonial sugar.....	3 8 4
	Sugar candies.....	3 6 5
	Refined sugars in loaf or crushed, clear, hard, and dry.....	3 6 5
	Raw and refined sugars in grains or crystals of a minimum standard of 98 per cent polarization.....	3 4 10
Germany.....	Raw sugar of at least 90 per cent polarization.....	0 14 4
	Refined sugar under 98 per cent and of at least 90 per cent polarization.....	
	Candy and sugar in white hard loaves, blocks, crystals, etc., of at least 99½ per cent polarization.....	1 4 7
	All other sugar of at least 88 per cent polarization.....	1 1 8
Holland.....	Raw beet sugar of less than 98 per cent polarization.....	1 7 0
	Raw beet sugars of at least 98 per cent polarization.....	1 2 0
	Refined beetroot sugars.....	0 3 0
	Refined sugar from materials other than raw beetroot sugar.....	In addition to above rate.
Russia.....	Sugar of at least 99 per cent polarization.....	2 7 4
	Sugar of less than 99 per cent polarization, but not less than 88 per cent.....	2 2 7
Chile.....	Sugar of less than 88 per cent, but not less than 75 per cent.....	1 13 10
	Raw sugar.....	0 9 2

RATES OF INTEREST, PRICE OF ISSUE, AND CURRENT MARKET PRICES OF LEADING BONDS, STOCKS, AND SECURITIES OF THE PRINCIPAL  
BRITISH COLONIES IN THE LONDON MARKETS, 1896-1900.

STOCK.	Issue price.	Original issue.	SINKING FUND.			Amount of loan unredeemed.	Par.	MARKET PRICES IN—										PRICES OF DECEMBER, 1900.		
			Original annual.	When applied.	Final redemption.			1896	1897	1898	1899	1900		Highest.	Lowest.	Latest.				
												Highest.	Lowest.							
AUSTRALASIA.																				
N. S. Wales, 5%.....	90-2	774,200			1901-1902	774,200	100	111	99	109	100	107	101	108	101	104	100	103	102	103
Do. 4% bonds.....	103	8,239,600			1903-1910	8,239,600	100	111	102	110	101	108	101	108	101	105	100	104	102	102
Do. 4% insc., 1885.....	95	9,686,300			1903	9,686,300	100	123	113	123	117	122	112	120	100	117	110	116	111	113
Do. 3% insc., 1885.....	103	16,500,000			1924	16,500,000	100	112	103	111	107	110	102	110	100	107	101	105	103	104
Do. 3% insc., 1888.....	103				1918	12,826,200	100	110	103	110	106	108	102	107	100	105	101	104	102	103
Do. 3% insc.....		5,500,000			1935	5,500,000	100	104	94	104	100	103	95	101	95	101	98	100	99	100
New Zealand, 5% 1864.....	81	1,000,000			1914	266,300	100	124	113	121	118	120	115	116	112	114	110	113	112	112
Do. 5% cons., 1868-72.....	99	7,283,100	1		1908	339,800	100	111	107	109	104	105	101	104	101	103	100	101	101	101
Do. 4% insc.....	Vars.	29,150,302			1929	29,150,302	100	118	106	117	112	116	108	116	105	113	106	112	110	112
Do. 3% insc.....		6,161,167			1940	6,161,167	100	110	101	111	104	109	107	109	102	106	103	106	103	105
Do. 3% insc.....		5,890,810			1945	5,890,810	100	103	90	102	99	101	96	99	94	98	95	98	96	98
Queensland, 4% bonds.....	Vars.	10,267,400			1913-1915	10,267,400	100	112	104	110	105	108	103	107	103	106	101	106	104	105
Do. 4% insc.....	Vars.	10,866,900			1915-1924	10,866,900	100	117	105	116	111	114	104	115	103	113	103	110	105	107
Do. 3% insc.....		8,516,734			1924-1930	8,516,734	100	111	101	108	104	106	101	107	100	106	101	104	101	102
Do. 3% insc.....	102	2,000,000			1945	1,250,000	100	.....	.....	111	108	109	104	109	102	108	103	106	104	104
Do. 3% insc.....					1922-1947	1,500,000	100	.....	.....	101	97	100	95	99	94	99	92	94	92	93
S. Australia, 6%.....	102-105	604,700			1901-1918	604,700	100	112	101	101	101	106	103	103	100	118	101	113	108	113
Do. 5% 1871-73.....	80	278,500			1911-1920	240,000	100	120	111	120	111	115	113	118	112	112	110	110	110	110
Do. 4% 1874-78.....	93	6,586,700			1907-1916	6,586,700	100	111	101	111	100	111	100	107	100	105	100	102	102	103
Do. 4%.....	93	200,000			1929	200,000	100	114	107	112	109	111	104	111	107	109	105	106	106	106
S. Australia, 4% bonds.....	103	1,365,300			1916	1,365,300	100	113	103	112	106	111	104	109	104	105	101	105	104	105
Do. 4% bonds.....	Vars.	373,500			1917-1924	373,500	100	116	109	114	110	114	107	112	107	109	107	108	108	108
Do. 4% insc.....	Vars.	7,773,300			1916-1935	7,773,300	100	116	107	114	111	114	106	111	105	111	106	108	107	108
Do. 3% insc., 1889.....	Vars.	2,850,713			1939	2,517,800	100	112	104	113	109	110	105	108	104	107	103	107	105	106
Do. 3% insc.....		839,500			1916-1926	839,500	100	99	97	102	97	102	98	98	93	97	92	95	93	93
Do. 3% insc.....		2,750,100			1916	2,750,100	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	95	92	95	93	93
Tasmania, 6% 1868.....	102-105	700,000			1901	100,000	100	114	101	111	101	106	101	103	103	105	101	103	102	103
Do. 4% 1881-83.....	98-99	2,946,650			1913-1920	2,923,750	100	112	101	110	105	110	103	109	102	106	104	105	101	104
Do. 4% insc.....		1,000,000			1920-1940	1,000,000	100	118	107	117	113	116	112	115	108	112	108	110	108	108
Victoria 4% 1876.....	91-92	3,000,000			1901	3,000,000	100	105	100	104	100	103	100	103	99	101	101	100	101	101
Do. 4% 1878.....	99	5,000,000			1904	5,000,000	100	111	103	110	105	107	101	107	100	104	100	103	102	103
Do. 4% fly, 1881.....		590,700			1907	590,700	100	110	105	108	105	107	103	106	103	104	100	104	104	104
Do. 4% 1882-83.....		597,100			1908-1913	597,100	100	112	105	111	106	110	108	108	102	106	102	103	103	103
Do. 4% insc., 1881.....	100	4,000,000			1907	3,409,800	100	111	103	107	105	107	102	106	101	104	100	104	101	102
Do. 4% insc., 1882-84.....	99-100	10,000,000			1913	9,402,900	100	114	104	115	105	113	103	112	101	110	101	108	101	105
Do. 4% 1885.....		6,000,000			1920	6,000,000	100	116	106	115	111	113	109	114	106	112	109	110	108	108
Do. 3% insc., 1889.....	103	12,000,000			1923	12,000,000	100	109	99	110	104	107	101	107	99	105	100	104	101	102
Do. 4% insc.....		2,107,000			1911-1926	2,107,000	100	113	104	112	107	110	106	109	102	108	103	107	104	105
Do. 3% insc.....		1,000,000			1929-1949	1,000,000	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	98	95	98	96	96
W. Australian 4% 1879.....	97	200,000	1		1922	77,800	100	114	111	112	108	109	106	108	103	109	101	103	101	103
Do. 4% 1881.....	96	401,000			1927	110,200	100	110	108	109	105	108	104	104	102	103	100	101	103	101
Do. 4% insc.....		975,230			1934	975,230	100	128	120	123	120	120	114	118	115	117	114	116	114	114
Do. 4% insc.....		1,876,000			1911-1931	1,876,000	100	118	111	113	109	113	106	109	105	107	103	107	105	106
Do. 3% insc.....		750,000			1915-1935	750,000	100	113	103	111	105	107	103	105	103	104	100	101	100	101
Do. 3% insc.....		5,250,000			1915-1935	3,750,000	100	102	98	100	95	99	91	97	93	96	91	93	91	92
Do. 3% insc.....		1,100,000			1916-1936	1,100,000	100	.....	.....	100	95	99	93	98	94	95	91	93	91	92
Do. 3% insc.....		2,500,000			1927	1,000,000	100	.....	.....	.....	98	94	95	93	96	91	94	91	91	92
CANADIAN DOMINION.																				
5% guar. Intero. Rwy.....	105	500,000	1		1903	500,000	100	115	110	113	109	111	106	108	104	107	101	102	101	102
4% 1874-78, bonds.....	90-1	12,000,000			1904-1908	4,216,200	100	112	103	111	105	109	102	106	101	100	103	101	101	102
Do. 2% inscribed.....						7,783,500	100	112	103	111	103	112	102	108	102	107	100	104	100	103
4% reduced.....		6,443,136			1910	2,289,822	100	115	105	113	108	111	105	110	105	108	104	107	106	106
Do. inscribed.....						4,153,314	100	115	105	113	109	111	103	110	103	108	102	107	104	106
3% 1884.....		5,000,000			1909-34	498,600	100	111	102	111	107	109	103	107	104	106	102	103	102	102
Do. inscribed.....						4,501,400	100	111	101	111	106	109	102	108	103	107	101	102	101	102
4% loan, 1885.....		4,000,000			1910-35	628,400	100	116	107	114	109	112	104	110	107	109	104	108	107	108
Do. inscribed.....						3,471,600	100	116	106	114	110	112	105	110	104	109	105	107	105	106
2% loan.....		10,989,834			1938	345,400	100	107	98	108	102	107	100	104	99	103	99	101	100	101
Do. inscribed.....	95					10,682,321	100	107	98	108	102	107	99	104	96	103	97	101	99	100
2% inscribed.....		2,000,000			1947	2,000,000	100	.....	.....	.....	94	89	92	88	93	90	91	90	90	90
B. Columbia (Prov. of) 6%.....	102	95,400	2		1907	95,400	100	131	122	122	115	119	116	118						

RATES OF INTEREST, PRICE OF ISSUE, AND CURRENT MARKET PRICES OF LEADING BONDS, STOCKS, AND SECURITIES OF THE PRINCIPAL BRITISH COLONIES IN THE LONDON MARKETS, 1896-1900—Continued.

STOCK.	Issue price.	Original issue.	SINKING FUND.			Amount of loan unredeemed.	Par.	MARKET PRICES IN—										PRICES OF DECEMBER, 1900.			
			Original annual.	When applied.	Final redemption.			1896		1897		1898		1899		1900		Highest.	Lowest.	Latest.	
								Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.				
CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.																					
4½, 1873-80.....	91½	7,407,700	1	.....	1915-19	1,081,500	100	114	107½	113	108	111½	103½	108½	103	106½	103	104	103	104	
4½, 1879.....	98½	2,615,600	1	.....	1917	444,500	100	114½	109	113½	109	111½	105½	111	105	106	103½	105	104	104	
4½, 1881.....	98½	2,000,000	1	.....	1922	418,400	100	108½	105½	110½	107	109	104½	105½	102	104	100	101½	100	100	
4½, 1882.....	95½	3,000,000	.....	.....	1923	561,600	100	122	111½	119	115	118	112½	114	106	110½	104½	110	108	108	
4½, 1882 inscribed.....			.....	.....	.....	1923	2,091,552	100	122½	111½	119½	116	119	110	113½	101	110½	103	108	107	108
4½, 1883 inscribed.....		3,791,895	.....	.....	1923	3,733,195	100	122½	110	121½	117½	119½	112	114½	102	112	102½	111½	110½	111	
4½ cons., '86 inscribed.....		9,997,566	1	.....	1916-36	9,997,566	100	120½	108½	117½	114½	117	107½	113½	101	110	10	108½	107	108	
3½ cons., inscribed.....			.....	.....	1929-49	5,656,780	100	120	108	116½	113½	115½	105½	109½	99	108½	100	107½	104½	105½	
3½ scrip.....		4,357,400	.....	.....	1933-43	4,357,400	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	101	60	98½	92½	98½	92	98	96½	97	
India, 3½ stock.....		63,442,192	.....	.....	1931	63,442,192	100	122½	114½	119½	116½	117½	111	117½	104½	112½	105	110	107½	108	
Do. 3½ stock.....		45,125,884	.....	.....	1918	45,125,884	100	115½	105	112½	107½	109½	103½	109½	98½	105½	95	102½	100½	101	
Do. 2½ inc.....	103½	11,900,000	.....	.....	1926	11,892,207	100	103	95½	99½	94	96½	84½	94½	85	90½	85	87½	86½	86½	
Rupce paper, 3½.....			.....	.....		Rx. 6,395,060	100	65	58½	63½	59	63½	60	67½	61	64½	61	64½	63	63½	
Do. 3½, 1854-55.....			.....	.....		Rx. 13,745,680		66½	59½	64½	60½	64½	61½	67½	61½	65	62	64½	64	64	
Do. 3½, 1896-97.....			.....	.....	1916	Rx. 1,574,190		.....	.....	.....	.....	67½	53½	63½	55	60½	55	58	56½	58	
JAMAICA.																					
4½, 1881-82.....	99		1	.....	1927	71,600	100	108½	105½	107½	103	104	101	102	100½	102	100	101½	101½	101½	
4½ inscribed.....			1	.....	1934	1,098,139	100	126½	116	123½	120	122	112	119½	110	112	108	110½	110	110	
3½ inscribed.....		200,000	.....	.....	1922-44	200,000	100	.....	.....	100½	99	99½	97	100	97	97	93	95	93	93	
3½ inscribed.....		1,275,000	.....	.....		1,275,100	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	102½	99½	102½	100	100		
MAURITIUS.																					
4½ inscribed.....		483,190	.....	.....	1937	482,390	100	126	118	123	120	120½	118	120½	115½	116½	113	115½	113½	114½	
NATAL.																					
4½, 1876.....	95½	1,300,000	1	.....	1919	758,700	100	126	117½	123	119	121	115½	119	112	115	110½	112	112	112	
4½, 1882.....		700,000	.....	.....	1926	75,400	100	121	117	121	116½	118	113½	119½	112	112	108	108	108	108	
4½ con. inscribed.....			.....	.....	1927	296,181	100	122½	117½	121	116½	118	113	117½	104	112½	104	111½	111	111	
4½ inscribed.....		3,026,444	.....	.....	1937	3,026,444	100	125½	117½	124½	120	122½	117½	121½	102½	116½	104	115½	114½	115	
3½ inscribed.....		3,714,917	.....	.....	1939	3,714,917	100	113½	102½	109½	106½	107½	103	108½	95	105	99	103½	102	103	
3½ con. inscribed.....		1,000,000	.....	.....	1929-49	1,000,000	100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	104	92	98½	94	98	96	96	



# LIST OF BOOKS

(WITH REFERENCES TO PERIODICALS)

RELATING TO THE

THEORY OF COLONIZATION, GOVERNMENT OF DEPENDENCIES, PROTECTÓRATES, AND  
RELATED TOPICS.

BY

A. P. C. GRIFFIN,  
*Chief, Division of Bibliography, Library of Congress.*

1567

## INTRODUCTION.

This list was sent to the Hon. Henry Cabot Lodge, chairman of the Senate Committee of the Philippines, in response to a request received from him for a report on the resources of the Library upon the subject of colonization.

The Senate, by resolutions May 3 and 8, 1900, respectively, authorized the printing of 500 copies each for the Senate and the Library of Congress.

The scope of the list is indicated by the table of contents. The theory of colonization and the government of dependencies form the basis of the compilation. To this has been added significant literature upon the corollaries of colonization, viz, expansion, imperialism, Anglo-Saxon interests, the Far Eastern question.

Works upon the political history and geography of the dependencies of the European nations have been made a special feature of the compilation.

For a preliminary study of the subject of colonies, Payne's *History of European Colonies* affords a convenient manual. Egerton's *Short History of British Colonial Policy* traces the history of the growth of the British colonial empire from the beginnings of colonization down to 1885.

Ireland's *Tropical Colonization* is a study of the government of tropical colonies, the material requirements for their successful development, with a discussion of the value of these dependencies to the sovereign State. The work is the result of long study of the subject and is provided with a useful bibliography.

Seeley's *Expansion of England* is a scientific study of the problem of English history as illustrated in the growth of the Empire in the eighteenth century. Woodward's *A Short History of the Expansion of the British Empire, 1500-1870*, is a more detailed narration of the acquisition and settlement of the British colonies.

Professor Seeley, in his *Growth of the British Policy*, studies the history of the transformation of England from an insular nation into a "great power."

Cotton and Payne's "Colonies and dependencies," in the *English Citizen Series*, is a compact account of the administration of the English colonies.

Lucas's *Historical Geography of the British Colonies* is a most valuable guide upon the political, social, and geographical features of the various British dependencies. It is of the first importance as a general treatise upon the colonies collectively, constituting a most reliable introduction to a study of colonial history.

Leroy-Beaulieu's *De la Colonisation Chez les Peuples Modernes* is an elaborate survey of colonies and colonial systems of the world by a political economist of high repute.

Merivale's *Lectures* is a study of the economic features of colonization and colonies.

Sir G. C. Lewis's *Essay on the Government of Dependencies* is a discussion of the historical and political principles of colonization.

Heeron's *Political System of Europe and its Colonies* is one of the earlier scientific studies of colonization, with copious bibliographical references.

The chapter on colonies in Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations* is a scientific study of the economic value of dependencies.

The handbooks or annals of various colonial governments are useful works of reference for statistical information.

The Diplomatic and Consular Reports issued at intervals by the foreign office of Great Britain embody information upon the history, the administration, and the commercial interests of British and foreign colonies. The Consular Reports of this country also contain similar material.

The current statistics of the colonies are set forth in *Statistical Abstracts for the Several Colonial and other Possessions of the United Kingdom*, published by the British Government. These Abstracts are incorporated in the Parliamentary sessional papers.

The Board of Trade Journal, published by the Government Board of Trade, London, and The Imperial Institute Journal are current sources of information upon the trade, resources, and administration of the English colonies.

The Proceedings of the Royal Colonial Institute is a repository of many valuable papers upon the colonial interests of Great Britain.

The Imperial and Asiatic Quarterly deals with the literature as well as the politics of the colonies.

The periodicals, *Questions Diplomatiques et Coloniales*, the *Revue Maritime et Coloniale*, and the *Bulletin de la Société des Études Coloniales*, are mainly devoted to French colonial interests.

The following German periodicals deal with colonial subjects, particularly with German colonies: *Deutsches Kolonialblatt*, *Deutsche Kolonialzeitung*, *Organ der Deutschen Kolonialgesellschaft*, *Deutscher Kolonial-Kalendar*, *Jahresbericht der Deutschen Kolonialgesellschaft*, and the *Koloniales Jahrbuch*.

A. P. C. GRIFFIN,  
*Chief Division of Bibliography.*

HERBERT PUTNAM,  
*Librarian of Congress.*

## PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO THE THEORY OF COLONIZATION AND RELATED TOPICS.

### COLONIES.

#### THEORY OF COLONIZATION, GOVERNMENT OF DEPENDENCIES, PROTECTORATES, ETC.

##### BOOKS.

- Austin, O. P. Colonial systems of the world. The colonies, protectorates, dependencies, and spheres of influence of all nations exercising authority outside their immediate territory, showing form of government, area, population, revenue, etc. (In United States. Bureau of Statistics. Monthly Summary of Commerce and Finance. December, 1898, pp. 1463-1498. Washington, 1899.)
- Bacon, Sir Francis. An essay on plantations. (In Select tracts relating to colonies, pp. 1-4, London [1733].) Also in the various editions of his works.
- Barré de Saint-Venant, Adhémar Jean Claude. Des colonies modernes sous la zone torride, et particulièrement de celle de Saint-Domingue. Paris: Brochut, 1802. xvi, 512 pp. 8°.
- Billiard, A. Politique et organisation coloniales. (Principes généraux.) Paris: Giard et Brière, 1898. 300 pp. 8°.
- Bonnassieux, Pierre. Les grandes compagnies de commerce. Étude pour servir à l'histoire de la colonisation. Paris: Plon, 1892. 562 (1) pp. 8°.
- Bordier, A. La colonisation scientifique et les colonies françaises. Paris: Reinwald, 1884. xvi, 506 pp. 8°.
- Bradford, Gamaliel. The lesson of popular government. New York: Macmillan Company, 1899. 2 vols. 8°. The lesson of colonization, vol. 2, pp. 282-319.
- Brougham, Henry, Baron. An inquiry into the colonial policy of the European powers. Edinburgh: Printed by D. Willison, 1803. 2 vols. 8°. Contents: Volume I. Of the political relations between a State and its colonies; of the commercial relations between a State and its colonies; of the relation of a free colonial trade; of the commercial relation between a State and its colonies, as modified by the policy of modern Europe; of the particular relations of the colonies of the European powers to their mother countries; of the colonial policy of the United Provinces; of the colonial policy of Spain; of the colonial policy of Portugal, Denmark, and Sweden; of the colonial policy of England and France. Notes and illustrations to the first volume of the foreign relations of colonies. Volume II. Of the mutual relations of colonies with respect to their dependence on the mother countries; of the interests of the European colonies as connected with the reestablishment of the French power in the West Indies; of the consequences of the establishment of a negro commonwealth in the West Indies to the interest of the colonies which remain under the dominion of the mother country; of the foreign relations of States as influenced by their colonial relations; of the foreign policy of States in general, and as influenced by their colonial relations; of the relative interests of the different European powers, as well in their colonies as in other quarters, on account of their colonial relations; of the intercolonial relations of the European powers as influenced by the position of affairs in America; of the external relations of the European powers in different quarters as influenced by their colonial interests; of the domestic policy of the European powers in their colonial establishments; of the free-negro system, or the policy of cultivating the colonies by means of free negroes; of the negro-slave system, or the present state of society in the slave colonies and the means of improving it.
- Buller, Charles. Speech in the House of Commons, April 6, 1843, on systematic colonization. (In Wakefield, E. G.: A view of the art of colonization, pp. 457-500. London, 1849.)
- Cairnes, J. E. Colonization and colonial government. (In his Political essays, pp. 1-58. London, 1873.)
- Cerisier, Charles. Impressions coloniales (1868-1892). Étude comparative de colonisation. Paris: Berger-Levrault et cie., 1893. Avec une carte. viii, 357 (2) pp. 8°.
- Chailley-Bert, J. Les compagnies de colonisation sous l'ancien régime. Paris: Colin, 1898. (2), 192 pp. 12°.
- Child, Sir Josiah. A discourse concerning plantations. (In Select tracts relating to colonies, pp. 31-40. London [1733].)
- Deckert, E. Die Kolonialreiche und Kolonisationsobjecte der Gegenwart. Kolonialpolitische und kolonialgeographische Skizzen. Leipzig: Froberg, 1885. iv, 240 pp. 8°.
- Denancy, E. De la colonisation dans ses rapports avec la production et la consommation. Épernay: Dubreuil, 1894. 131 pp. 16°.
- Despagnet, F. Essai sur les protectorats. Paris: Larose, 1896. 442 pp. 8°.
- Dubois, Marcel. Systèmes coloniaux et peuples colonisateurs. Paris: Plon, 1895. xv, 287 pp. 8°.
- Engelhardt, E. Les protectorats anciens et modernes. Étude historique et juridique. Paris: Pedone-Lauriel, 1896. 232 pp. 8°.
- Étienne, Eugène. Les compagnies de colonisation. Paris: Challamel, 1897. 76 pp. 8°.
- Finch, John. The natural boundaries of empires, and a new view of colonization. London: Longman, Brown [etc.], 1844. viii, 279 pp. 16°.
- Gairal, François. Le protectorat international. Paris: Pedone-Lauriel. [1896.] 313 pp. 8°.
- Girault, A. Principes de colonisation et de législation coloniale. Paris: Larose, 1895. 637 pp. 12°.
- Le problème colonial. Paris: Marescq, 1894. 52 pp. 8°.

- Heeren, A. H. L. A manual of the history of the political system of Europe and its colonies, from its formation at the close of the fifteenth century to its reestablishment upon the fall of Napoleon. Translated from the fifth German edition. Oxford: D. A. Talboys, 1834. 2 vols. 8°.
- Same. London: Henry G. Bohn, 1857. xxxii, 540 pp. 8°.
- Hinds, Samuel. Essay on colonization. (In Wakefield, E. G.: A view of the art of colonization, pp. 107-119. London, 1849.) This essay was first printed in Whately's Thoughts on Secondary Punishments, London, 1832.
- Howison, John. European colonies in various parts of the world, viewed in their social, moral, and physical condition. London: Richard Bentley, 1834. 2 vols. 8°.
- Institut Colonial International. Comptes rendus de la session tenue à La Haye, Sept., 1895. Paris: Colin, 1895. (2), 427 pp. 8°.
- ✓ — Bibliothèque coloniale internationale. 1<sup>re</sup> sér. La main-d'œuvre aux colonies. 3 vols. 2<sup>e</sup> sér. Les fonctionnaires coloniaux. 2 vols. 3<sup>e</sup> sér. Le régime foncier aux colonies. 4 vols. 4<sup>e</sup> sér. Le régime des protectorats. 4 vols. Bruxelles: 1895-1899. 13 vols. 8°.
- Ireland, Alleyne. Tropical colonization: an introduction to the study of the subject. London: Macmillan, 1899. xii, 282 pp. 8°.
- Jèze, Gaston. Étude théorique et pratique sur l'occupation comme mode d'acquérir les territoires en droit international. Paris: Giard et Brière, 1896. iii, 393 pp. 8°.
- Kidd, Benjamin. The control of the tropics. London: Macmillan, 1898. vi (1), 101 (1) pp. 8°.
- Lanessan, J. M. A. de. Principes de colonisation. Paris: Alcan, 1897. iv, 283 pp. 8°. (Bibliothèque scientifique internationale.)
- Lehmann, K. Kolonialgesellschaftsrecht in Vergangenheit und Gegenwart. Berlin: K. Hoffmann, 1896. 35 pp. 8°.
- Leroy-Beaulieu, Pierre Paul. De la colonisation chez les peuples modernes. Paris: Guillaumin et cie., 1874. vii (1), 616 pp. 8°.
- Same. 4<sup>e</sup> édition, révisée, corrigée, et augmentée. Paris: Librairie Guillaumin et cie., 1898. (2), xix (1), 868 pp. 8°. Contents: De la colonisation antérieure au XIX<sup>e</sup> siècle; De la colonisation espagnole, portugaise, hollandaise, anglaise, française, danoise, et suédoise; Résumé de la colonisation antérieure au XIX<sup>e</sup> siècle; De la colonisation au XIX<sup>e</sup> siècle; Les colonies d'exploration ou de plantations; Colonies françaises, espagnoles, hollandaises; Les anciennes îles danoises et suédoises; La colonisation allemande; La colonisation italienne; Un mode spécial de colonisation anonyme; L'Etat indépendant du Congo; Conditions générales de la colonisation dans l'Afrique tropicale et équatoriale; L'Algérie et la colonisation française au XIX<sup>e</sup> siècle; La Tunisie; Les colonies de la France; De la colonisation anglaise au XIX<sup>e</sup> siècle; De la colonisation russe; De l'influence des colonies sur les métropoles; De l'émigration humaine; De l'émigration des capitaux; De commerce colonial et de son utilité pour la métropole; De l'entretien des colonies.
- Lewis, Sir George Cornewall. Essay on the government of dependencies. London: John Murray, 1841. xii, 382 (1) pp. 8°.
- Same. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1891. 392 pp. 8°.
- Lord, Walter Frewen. The lost empires of the modern world. Essays in imperial history. London: Richard Bentley & Son, 1897. (4), 362 pp. 12°.
- ✓ Lowell, A. Lawrence. Colonial civil service. Selection and training of colonial officials in Holland, England, and France. New York: Macmillan Company, 1900. xiv, 346 pp. 8°.
- Macdonnell, Alexander. Colonial commerce; comprising an inquiry into the principles upon which discriminating duties should be levied on sugar, the growth respectively of the West India British possessions, of the East Indies, and of foreign countries. London: John Murray, 1828. xix (1), 302 pp. 8°.
- Malouet, V. P. Collection de mémoires et correspondances officielles sur l'administration des colonies, et notamment sur la Guiane française hollandaise. Paris: Baudouin. an. x [1799]. 5 vols. 8°.
- Martel, Henri. Étude pratique sur les colonies anciennes et modernes et sur leurs grandes compagnies commerciales. Gand: Imprimerie V. van Dooselaere, 1898. 395 pp. 8°.
- Merivale, Herman. Lectures on colonization and colonies. Delivered before the University of Oxford in 1839, 1840, and 1841. London: Longmans, Orme [etc.], 1841, 1842. 2 vols. in 1. 8°. Contents: I. Historical account of the progress of the colonies of modern Europe; Colonies of Spain in continental America up to the period of their independence; Spanish colonies in the West Indies; Portuguese, Dutch, and French colonies; Brief historical sketch of British colonization; British colonies in the West Indies; North American colonies down to the period of their independence; Account of the present British colonies in North America, South Africa, and Australia; Economical effects of colonization on the parent state; Progress of wealth and society in colonies. II (continued). Employment of convict labor; Methods of obtaining labor in the colonies without slaves or convicts; Disposal of land in new colonies; Sketch of the history of South Australia.
- Milburn, William. Oriental commerce; or, the East India trader's complete guide; containing a geographical and nautical description of the maritime parts of India, China, Japan, and neighboring countries, including the eastern islands. London: Printed for Kingsbury, Parbury & Allen, 1825. (6), 586 pp. Folded maps. 8°. Sooloo Islands, pp. 423-426; Philippine Islands, pp. 426-430.
- Money, James William B. Java, or how to manage a colony. Showing a practical solution of the questions now affecting British India. London: Hurst & Blackett, 1861. 2 vols. 12°.
- Niox, Gustave. L'expansion européenne. Empire Britannique. Asie-Afrique-Océanie. 3<sup>e</sup> édition. Avec cartes et croquis. Appendice mis au courant jusqu'à la fin de l'année 1897. Paris: Delagrave [1897]. 472, 59 pp. Folded maps. 8°. (Géographie, vol. 8.)
- Norman, H. The peoples and politics in the far East. Travels and studies in the British, French, Spanish, and Portuguese colonies, Siberia, China, Japan, Corea, Siam, and Malaya. London: T. Fisher Unwin, 1895. xvi, 608, pp. 8°.
- Payne, Edward John. History of European colonies. With maps. London: Macmillan & Co., 1889. xi (1), 408 pp. 16°. (Historical course for schools.)
- Pearson, Charles H. National life and character. A forecast. London: Macmillan & Co., 1894. vi, 381 pp. 12°.
- Penn, William. The benefit of plantations or colonies. (In select tracts relating to colonies, pp. 26-30. London [1733?].)
- Pillet, A. Des droits de la puissance protectrice sur l'administration intérieure de l'état protégé. (In Revue internationale du droit public, vol. 2, pp. 583-608.)
- Questions coloniales et diplomatiques. Paris, 1899-1900. 8°. Note.—Periodical now regularly received at the Library.
- Ricaud, J. A. L'expansion coloniale. Paris: V. Havard, 1891. xiv, 318 pp. 8°.
- ✓ Rogers, James E. Thorold. The colonial question. (In Cobden Club essays, 2d series, 1871-72, pp. 403-459. London, 1872.)
- Roscher, Wilhelm. Kolonien, kolonial Politik und Auswanderung. 3te verbesserte, vermehrte und zum Theil ganz neu bearbeitete Auflage von Roscher's Kolonien. Leipzig: C. F. Winter, 1885. (2), vi, 470 pp. 8°.
- Sacerdoti, V. Studi sulla colonizzazione. Bologna, 1890. 248 pp. 8°.
- Select tracts relating to colonies, consisting of: I. An essay on plantations. By Sir Francis Bacon. II. Some passages taken out of the history of Florence, etc. III. A treatise. By John De Witt. IV. The benefit of plantations or colonies. By William Penn. V. A discourse concerning plantations. By Sir Josiah Child. London: Printed for J. Roberts. [1733?] (8), 40 pp. 12°.

- Smith, Adam. Of colonies. Of the motives for establishing new colonies; causes of the prosperity of new colonies; of the advantages which Europe has derived from the discovery of America. . . . (In his *An inquiry into the nature and causes of the wealth of nations*. Reprinted from the 6th edition, with an introduction by E. B. Bax. v. 2, pp. 62-156. London, 1896.) Note.—Also to be found in other editions of Smith's works.
- The colonial policy of Europe. (In Rand, B.: *Selections illustrating economic history of the seven years' war*. 2d edition, pp. 1-30. Cambridge, 1892.)
- Société d'études coloniales, Bruxelles. Bulletin, 3e-5e année. 1896-98. Bruxelles, 1896-98. 3 vols. in 2. 8°. Note.—This periodical is currently received at the Library.
- Thierry, C. de. Imperialism. With an introduction by W. E. Henley. London: Duckworth & Co., 1898. xv, 110 pp. 8°.
- Van Octroy, F. Conventions internationales définissant les limites actuelles des possessions, protectorats et sphères d'influence en Afrique. Bruxelles: Schepens, 1898. 518 pp. 8°.
- Wakefield, Edward Gibbon. A view of the art of colonization, with present reference to the British empire; in letters between a statesman and a colonist. London: John W. Parker, 1849. xxiv, 513 pp. 8°. Note.—Inserted in the body of the work are Dr. Hind's "Essay on colonization;" Charles Buller's "Mr. Mothercountry of the colonial office;" and in the appendix "Speech of Charles Buller in the House of Commons, April 6, 1843, on systematic colonization."
- Wallis, J. P. Early colonial constitutions. (In Royal historical society. Transactions, new series, vol. 10, pp. 59-83. London, 1896.)
- Worsfold, W. B. South Africa; a study in colonial administration and development. London: Methuen & Co., 1895. xii, 266 pp. 12°.
- Same. 2d edition, revised. London: Methuen & Co., 1897. xii, 308 pp. Map. 12°.
- Zimmermann, Alfred. Die europäischen Kolonien. Berlin, 1896-1899. 3 vols. Maps. 8°. Contents: I. Die Kolonialpolitik Portugals und ihre Entwicklung von den Anfängen bis zur Gegenwart. II, III. Die Kolonialpolitik Grossbritanniens.

## ARTICLES IN PERIODICALS, 1898-1900.

1898. Does trade follow the flag? Lord Farrer. Contemporary Review, vol. 74 (December, 1898), 810.
1899. Colonial systems of the world. O. P. Austin. National Geographic Magazine, vol. 10 (January, 1899), 21.
1899. The spirit of conquest. J. Novicow. Appleton's Popular Science Monthly, vol. 54 (February, 1899), 518.
1899. Does trade follow the flag? Lord Masham. Contemporary Review, vol. 75 (February, 1899), 218.
1899. The commercial future: I. International struggle for life. Brooks Adams. II. The commercial sovereignty of the seas. B. Taylor. Fortnightly Review, vol. 65 (February, 1899), 274, 284.
1899. Imperialism. J. L. Walton. Contemporary Review, vol. 75 (March, 1899), 305.
1899. The evolution of colonies: Social evolution. J. Collier. Popular Science Monthly, vol. 54 (March, 1899), 577.
1899. The colonies of the world and how they are governed. O. P. Austin. Forum, vol. 27 (May, 1899), 303.
1899. The seamy side of imperialism. Robert Wallace. Contemporary Review, vol. 75 (June, 1899), 782.
1899. The flag and trade; a summary review of the trade of the chief colonial empires. A. W. Flux. Royal Statistical Society Journal, vol. 62 (September, 1899), 489.
1899. The imperial function of trade. H. Birchenough. Nineteenth Century, vol. 46 (September, 1899), 352.
1899. The value of the imperial idea. Spectator, vol. 83 (October 7, 1899), 485.
1899. The cooperation of colonial governments. J. Macdonnell. Journal of the Society of Comp. Legislation, new series, vol. 3 (December, 1899), 41.
1900. Radicalism and the imperial spirit. A. R. Carman. Contemporary Review, vol. 77 (January, 1900), 18.
1900. Does colonization pay? O. P. Austin. Forum, vol. 28 (January, 1900), 621.

## CLIMATE AND COLONIZATION.

## BOOKS.

- Annesley, James. Researches into the causes, nature, and treatment of the more prevalent diseases of India and of warm climates generally. Second edition. London: Longman, Brown, Green & Longmans, 1841. xii, 606 pp. Portrait. 8°.
- Sketches of the most prevalent diseases of India. Second edition, with corrections and large additions. Illustrated by tables and plates. London: S. Highly, 1831. xxiv, 501 (2) pp. 8°.
- Burg, C. L. van der. To what extent are tropical altitudes adapted for settlement by Europeans? (In international congress of hygiene and demography. Transactions, seventh session, v. 10, pp. 170-178. London, 1892.)
- Burnett, Sir William, and Alexander Bryson. Report on the climate and principal diseases of the African station. London: Clowes & Sons, 1847. xv (1), 266 pp. 8°.
- Burot, F., and M. A. Legrand. Les troubles coloniaux. Statistique de la mortalité. Paris: J. B. Baillière, 1897. 140 pp. 8°.
- Maladies du soldat aux pays chauds. Paris: J. B. Baillière, 1897. 184 pp. 8°.
- Hygiène du soldat sous les tropiques. Paris: J. B. Baillière, 1898. 218 pp. 8°.
- The hygiene of the soldier in the tropics. Translated by G. W. Read. Kansas City, Mo. [1899.] 8°. (International military series. 7.)
- Cantlie, James. The possibility of Europeans and their families becoming naturalized in the tropics. (In Journal of tropical medicine, November, December, 1898; January, February, 1899.)
- Climate and colonization. (In Quarterly Review, vol. 190, July, 1899, pp. 268-288.)
- Cohn, Emanuel. Zur Geschichte der deutschen Tropenhygiene. (In Deutsche Kolonialzeitung, neue Folge, vol. 13, February 8, 1900, pp. 53-58.)
- Dumont, Enrique. Ensayo de una historia médico-quirúrgica de la isla de Puerto Rico. T. 1, 2, entrega 1-4. Habana: Imp. "La Antilla" de N. Cacho-Negrete, 1875-1876. 2 vols. 8°. Volume 2 lacks all after p. 160.
- Felkin, Robert W. Tropical highlands; their suitability for European settlement. (In International congress of hygiene and demography. Transactions, seventh session, vol. 10, 155-164. London, 1892.)
- Giles, G. M. Growth and development of Anglo-Indian children. (In International congress of hygiene and demography. Transactions, seventh session, vol. 10, pp. 184-185. London, 1892.)

- Hillary, William. A treatise on such diseases as are the most frequent in or are peculiar to the West India Islands or the torrid zone. With notes by Benjamin Rush. Philadelphia: Jane Aitken, 1811. 166 pp. 8°.
- Horner, Gustavus R. B. Medical and topographical observations upon the Mediterranean, and upon Portugal, Spain, and other countries. With engravings. Philadelphia: Haswell, Barrington & Haswell, 1839. 212 (1) pp. 8°.
- Horton, James Africanus B. Physical and medical climate and meteorology of the west coast of Africa; with valuable hints to Europeans for the preservation of health in the tropics. London: John Churchill & Sons, 1847. xix (1), 321 pp. 8°.
- Johnson, James. The influence of tropical climates on European constitutions. Fifth edition, greatly enlarged. London: S. Highley, 1836. viii, 678 pp. 8°.
- Manson, Patrick. Tropical diseases. A manual of the diseases of warm climates. With 88 illustrations and 2 colored plates. London: Cassell & Co., 1898. xvi, 607 pp. 12°.
- . A school of tropical medicine. (In *Journal of the Royal Colonial Institute*, vol. 31, April, 1900, pp. 309-357.)
- Markham, Clements R. On the suitability of mountainous regions and of islands in the tropics for European settlement. (In *International congress of hygiene and demography*. Transactions, seventh session, vol. 10, pp. 178-183. London, 1892.)
- Martin, James Ranald. The influence of tropical climates on European constitutions. A new edition. London: John Churchill, 1856. xv (1), 599 pp. 8°.
- Moore, Sir William. The suitability of tropical highlands for European settlement. (In *International congress of hygiene and demography*. Transactions, seventh session, vol. 10, pp. 165-170. London, 1892.)
- Orgeas, J. La pathologie des races humaines et le problème de la colonisation. Paris: Doin, 1886. 8°.
- Rho, Filippo. Malattie predominanti nei paesi caldi e temperati. (Igiene e acclimatazione nei paesi caldi. Torino, Rosenberg e Sellier, 1897. 779 pp. Plates. 8°.)
- Rochard, Jules. Questions d'hygiène sociale (l'acclimatement dans les colonies françaises). Paris: Hachette et Cie., 1891. vi, 337 pp. 16°.
- Sambon, L. W. Acclimatization of Europeans in tropical lands. (In *Geographical journal*, vol. 12, pp. 589-606. London, 1898.)
- Stokvis, B. J. On the comparative pathology of human races, with reference to the vital resistance of Europeans in tropical climates. (In *The Practitioner*: vol. 46 (March, 1891), 223-240; (April, 1891), 301-320; (May, 1891), 385-398. London, 1891.)
- Towne, Richard. A treatise on the diseases most frequent in the West Indies, and herein more particularly of those which occur in Barbadoes. London: Printed for John Clarke, MDCCXXVI. (10), 192 pp. 8°.
- Townsend, P. S. Memoir on the topography, weather, and diseases of the Bahama Islands. New York: J. Seymour, 1826. 80 pp. 8°.
- Treille, Georges. Principes d'hygiène coloniale. Paris: Carré et Naud, 1899. (2), iv, 272 pp. 8°.
- Williamson, John. Medical and miscellaneous observations relative to the West India Islands. Edinburgh: Printed by Alexander Smellie, 1817. 2 vols. 8°.

## EXPANSION OF THE UNITED STATES. 77

### SELECTED LIST OF BOOKS TREATING OF TERRITORIAL ACQUISITIONS PRIOR TO THE ANNEXATION OF HAWAII AND OF THE ISLANDS ACQUIRED FROM SPAIN IN 1898.

- Baldwin, Simeon E. The historic policy of the United States as to annexation. (In *American Historical Association*. Annual report for 1893, pp. 369-390.)
- Bicknell, Edward. The territorial acquisitions of the United States. Boston: Small, 1899. xi, (1), 110 pp. 16°. Contents: The Northwestern territory, 1787; Louisiana, 1802; Florida, 1819; Oregon, 1846; Texas, 1845; The Mexican cessions, 1848, 1853; Alaska, 1867; Hawaii, 1898; The recent acquisitions in the West Indies and the East.
- Blanchard, R. The discovery and conquests of the Northwest. Chicago: Cushing, Thomas & Co., 1880. 484, (2), 30, iv pp. Plates (woodcuts). 8°.
- Burgess, John W. The middle period, 1817-1858. With maps. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1897. xvi, 544 pp. Maps. 12°. (American History series.)
- Carpenter, E. J. America in Hawaii. A history of the United States influence in the Hawaiian islands. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co., 1899. xi, (1), 275 pp. Portraits. 12°.
- Cooley, Thomas M. The acquisition of Louisiana. Indianapolis: The Bowen-Merrill Company, 1887. 93 pp. 8°. (Indiana Historical society: Publications, No. 3.) "Considers the constitutional questions involved in territorial acquisitions."
- Donaldson, Thomas. The public domain. Its history, with statistics, with references to the national domain, colonization, acquirement of territory, the survey, administration, and several methods of sale and disposition of the public domain of the United States, with sketch of legislative history of the land system of the colonies, and also that of several foreign governments. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1881. vi, 544 pp. Folded maps. 8°. (U. S. 46th Congress, 3d session. Executive Document 47, pt. 1.)
- Farrand, Max. The legislation of Congress for the government of the organized territories of the United States. 1789-1895. William A. Baker, printer, Newark, N. J., 1896. (4), 101 pp. 8°.
- Freeman, Edward Augustus. Greater Greece and Greater Britain, and George Washington the expander of England. Two lectures, with an appendix. London: Macmillan & Co., 1880. (4), 143 pp. 12°.
- Gannett, Henry. Boundaries of the United States and of the several states and territories, with a historical sketch of the territorial changes. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1885. 135 pp. 8°. (U. S. Geological Survey Bulletin, no. 13.)
- Griffis, William Elliot. The romance of American colonization: How the foundation stones of our history were laid. Boston and Chicago: W. A. Wilde & Co., [1898]. 295 pp. Plates (photogravures). Small 4°.
- Hermann, Binger. The Louisiana purchase, and our title west of the Rocky Mountains, with a review of annexation by the United States. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1898. 87 pp. Portrait. Maps. 4°.
- Hinsdale, B. A. The old Northwest, with a view of the thirteen colonies as constituted by the royal charters. New York: Townsend MacCoun, 1888. vi, (2), 440 pp. Maps. 8°.
- Jollivet, Adolphe. Documents américains. Troisième série. Les États-Unis d'Amérique. Annexion du Texas. L'Orégon. Paris: de l'imprimerie de Bruneau, Avril 1845. 74 pp. 8°.

- McConachie, Lauros G. National expansion. Chicago, 1899. 134 pp. Portraits. 8°. (Progress. Issued monthly by the University Association in the interests of university and world's congress extension. vol. 5, no. 2.) Contents: The national awakening; occupancy of the vacant continent; homogeneity, federation, and character building; isolation vs. intercourse; protection of the weak; aggression and co-operation; the lessons of history and politics; the expansion of Europe; spheres of influence and the open door; world politics; growth of American trade. Bibliography: Arguments for expansion, by Samuel Fallows; The present crisis, by Edwin D. Mead.
- Roosevelt, Theodore. The winning of the West. With maps. New York and London: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889-1896. Contents: Vol. 1. From the Alleghanies to the Mississippi, 1769-1776. Vol. 2. From the Alleghanies to the Mississippi, 1777-1783. Vol. 3. The founding of the trans-Alleghany commonwealths, 1784-1790. Vol. 4. Louisiana and the Northwest, 1791-1807.
- Winsor, J. The westward movement. The colonies and the republic west of the Alleghanies, 1763-1798. With full cartographical illustrations from contemporary sources. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1897. viii, 595 pp. Portraits. 8°.
- Winsor, J., and Edward Channing. Territorial acquisitions and divisions. 1783-1850. (In Winsor, J.: Narrative and critical history of America, vol. 7, pp. 528-562. Boston, 1888.)

## EXPANSION OF THE UNITED STATES, 1898-1900.

### HISTORY, DISCUSSION OF PRINCIPLES, ETC.

#### BOOKS.

- Adams, Charles Francis. "Imperialism" and "The tracks of our forefathers." A paper read before the Lexington, Mass., Historical society, December 20, 1898. Boston: Dana Estes & Co., 1899. 37 pp. 8°.
- Allen, William V. Necessary and natural territorial expansion. (In Bryan, W. J., and others: Republic or empire, pp. 287-304. Chicago, 1899.)
- American academy of political and social science. The foreign policy of the United States, political and commercial; addresses and discussions at the annual meeting, April 7-8, 1899. Philadelphia: American academy of political and social science, 1899. (4), 216 pp. 8°. Contents: The government of dependencies, by Theodore S. Woolsey. Constitutional aspect of the government of dependencies, by E. W. Huffcut. The government of dependencies, by A. Lawrence Lowell. The government of tropical colonies, by W. Alleyne Ireland; discussion by Dr. Talcott Williams, Prof. L. S. Rowe. Militarism and democracy, by Carl Schurz. The commercial relations of the United States with the far East, by Worthington Chauncey Ford. The commercial relations of the United States with the far East, by Robert T. Hill; discussion by John Ford, Dr. W. P. Wilson, Prof. E. R. Johnson. The political relations of the United States with the far East, by John Bassett Moore. China's relations with the West, by H. E. Wu Ting Fang. The political relations of the United States with the European powers in the far East, by Lindley Miller Keasbey. The real menace of Russian aggression, by Frederick Wells Williams.
- Anti-imperialistic league. Address adopted by the Anti-imperialistic league. (In Bryan, W. J., and others: Republic or empire, pp. 695-710. Chicago, 1899.)
- Bacon, Augustus O. Independence for the Philippines. (In Bryan, W. J., and others: Republic or empire, pp. 523-548. Chicago, 1899.)
- Bancroft, Hubert Howe. The new Pacific. New York: The Bancroft Company, 1900. iv, (2), 738 pp. Map. 8° "Imperialism; the policy of expansion," pp. 144-184. "Hawaii, the pearl of the Pacific," pp. 548-565. "Philippine archipelago and Asiatic isles," pp. 566-580.
- Blackman, William Fremont. The making of Hawaii; a study in evolution. New York: Macmillan Company, 1899. xii, 266 pp. 8°.
- Boutwell, George S. The crisis of the republic. Boston: Dana Estes & Co., 1900. (4), 215 pp. 8°.
- Bryan, William Jennings, and others. Republic or empire? The Philippine question. Chicago: The Independence Company, 1899. 762 pp. Portrait. 8°. Consists of speeches, etc., in opposition to expansion by W. J. Bryan, Andrew Carnegie, J. B. Weaver, B. R. Tillman, George G. Vest, George F. Hoar, S. M. White, Samuel Gompers, Charles Francis Adams, Arthur P. Gorman, Henry M. Teller, George F. Edmunds, Marion Butler, A. E. Stevenson, David Starr Jordan, W. V. Allen, Charles A. Towne, Carl Schurz, J. W. Daniel, Henry Van Dyke, H. D. Money, W. E. Mason, H. R. Chilton, A. O. Bacon, George W. Turner, J. L. McLaurin, A. S. Clay, H. W. Johnson, J. G. Carlisle, J. L. Spalding, G. C. Lorimer, J. L. Barton, H. C. Potter, George P. Fisher, T. J. Conaty, Daniel Merriman; also the following documents: McNery and Bacon resolutions; The gospel of force, poem, by Bertrand Shadwell. Appendix: Protocol of agreement; Treaty of peace; Letter of Admiral Dewey; Aguinaldo's proclamation—dictatorial; Aguinaldo's establishment of revolutionary government; Message of president of Philippine revolution; State correspondence; Aguinaldo to President; Aguinaldo to Mr. Williams.
- Bryan, William S., ed. Our islands and their people as seen with camera and pencil; introduced by J. Wheeler, with special descriptive matter and narratives by J. de Olivares \* \* \* Photographs by B. Townsend. St. Louis, New York: N. D. Thompson, 1900. 2 pts., illustrated. Plates. Folio.
- Carlisle, John Griffin. Our future policy. (In Bryan, W. J., and others: Republic or empire, pp. 649-673. Chicago, 1899.)
- Carpenter, E. J. America in Hawaii. A history of the United States influence in the Hawaiian islands. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co., 1899. xi, (1), 275 pp. Portrait. 12°.
- Chetwood, John. Manila, or Monroe doctrine? New York: Robert Lewis Wood Company, [1898]. 52 pp. 16°.
- Chilton, Horace. Annexation dangerous to labor. (In Bryan, W. J., and others: Republic or empire, pp. 501-522. Chicago, 1899.)
- Clay, Alexander S. Excessive taxation destructive to patriotism. (In Bryan, W. J., and others: Republic or empire, pp. 595-614. Chicago, 1899.)
- Copeland, Thomas Campbell. American colonial handbook. A ready reference book of facts and figures, historical, geographical, and commercial, about Cuba, Puerto Rico, the Philippines, Hawaii, and Guam. Funk & Wagnalls Company, New York and London: 1899. 180, (1) pp. Maps. 16°.
- Daniel, John W. The effect of annexation of the Philippines on American labor. (In Bryan, W. J., and others: Republic or empire, pp. 367-425. Chicago, 1899.)
- Draper, A. S. The rescue of Cuba; an episode in the growth of free government. London: Gay & Bird, 1899. 8°.
- Duffield, J. Davis. Address at the foreign policy conference, August, 1898. Philadelphia, 1898. (4) pp. 8°.



- Fernald, James C. *The imperial republic*. With five maps. Funk & Wagnalls Company, New York and London: 1898. 192 pp. 12°. Contents: The ghost of imperialism; Our traditional policy; "Entangling alliances;" The United States as a sea-power; Trade follows the flag; The highway to the Orient; The empire of the Pacific; The debt of humanity; Colonial policies contrasted; A true colonial policy; Possibilities of our new possessions.
- Fisher, Horace N. *Principles of colonial government adapted to the present needs of Cuba and Porto Rico and the Philippines*. Boston: L. C. Page & Co., 1899. 56 pp. 8°.
- Gardiner, Charles A. *Our right to acquire and hold foreign territory*. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York: 1899. (4), 56 pp. 12°. (Questions of the day, no. 93.)
- Giddings, Franklin Henry. *Democracy and empire*. With studies of their psychological, economic, and moral foundations. New York: Macmillan Company, 1900. x, 363 pp. 8°. Pp. 267-290 contain argument for Anglo-Saxon alliance; with discussion of commercial advantages of the East. "The consent of the governed," pp. 257-266. "Imperialism," pp. 267-290.
- Griffis, William Elliot. *America in the East*. A glance at our history, prospects, problems, and duties in the Pacific ocean. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1899. x, (2), 244 pp. Plates (photogravures). 12°.
- *The romance of conquest*. The story of American expansion through arms and diplomacy. Boston: W. A. Wilde Company, [1899]. 312 pp. Plates. 8°.
- Hoar, George Frisbie. "Before everything—liberty." *Our duty to the Philippines*. A letter reprinted from the *Springfield Republican*, January 11, 1900. Published by the New England Anti-imperialist league, 1900. 15 pp. 12°.
- *No constitutional power to conquer foreign nations and hold their people in subjection against their will*. Speech in the Senate, January 9, 1899. Washington, 1899. 28 pp. 8°.
- *A question of conscience*. Letter to the editor of the *Boston Herald*, January 2, 1900. [Washington, 1900.] 11 pp. 8°. No title-page. Caption title. Same as "Before everything—liberty." *Our duty to the Philippines*.
- *Letter*, March 29, 1899. [To citizens of Massachusetts on the Philippine policy.] [Boston:] Published by the Anti-imperialist league. 1899. 14 pp.
- *Our duty to the Philippines*. From the *Independent*, New York, November 9, 1899. [New York, 1899.] 8 pp. Small 4°.
- Johnson, Henry U. *Imperial splendor and imperial mistakes*. (In Bryan, W. J., and others: *Republic or empire*, pp. 649-673. Chicago, 1899.)
- Jordan, David Starr. *Imperial democracy*. A study of the relation of government by the people, equality before the law, and other tenets of democracy, to the demands of a vigorous foreign policy and other demands of imperial dominion. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1899. ix, (1), 293 pp. 8°.
- Levere, William C. *Imperial America*. The policy of national expansion. Chicago: Forbes & Co., 1898. 128 pp. 12°.
- Lindsay, William. *Power to acquire foreign territory*. (In *American Bar Association reports*, vol. 22, pp. 327-357. Philadelphia, 1899.)
- Lomax, Tennent. *An imperial colonial policy; opposition to it the supreme duty of patriotism*. Oration at the University of Alabama, June 20, 1898. N. P., [1898?] 21 pp. 8°.
- McLaurin, John L. *Our new colonial policy*. (In Bryan, W. J., and others: *Republic or empire*, pp. 577-594. Chicago, 1899.)
- Mahan, A. T. *Lessons of the war with Spain, and other articles*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1899. xvi, (2), 320 pp. Map. 12°.
- March, Alden. *The history and conquest of the Philippines and our other island possessions*. Embracing our war with the Filipinos in 1899 . . . an authentic history of the Spanish war . . . the history of Cuba, Porto Rico, the Ladrone, and the Hawaiian islands from their discovery to the present time. Embellished with over one hundred full page half-tone and other engravings. John C. Winston, Philadelphia, [1899]. 498 pp. 4°.
- Mason, William E. *Universal liberty*. (In Bryan, W. J., and others: *Republic or empire*, pp. 473-498. Chicago, 1899.)
- Money, Hernando D. *Let us not with our own hands stain the immaculate shield of American arms*. (In Bryan, W. J., and others: *Empire or republic*, pp. 449-470. Chicago, 1899.)
- Morris, Charles. *Our island empire*. A handbook of Cuba, Porto Rico, Hawaii, and the Philippine islands. J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia, 1899. xii, (7), 488 pp. Map. 8°.
- Peffer, William A. *Americanism and the Philippines*. Crane & Co., Topeka, 1900. 150 pp. 8°.
- Pepper, Charles M. *To-morrow in Cuba*. New York and London: Harper & Brothers, 1899. (8), 362 pp. Folded map. 8°.
- Powers, H. H. *The war as a suggestion of manifest destiny*. Philadelphia: American Academy of political and social science, 1898. 20 pp. (Publications of the Society, no. 235.) 8°. "Professor Powers shows the development of the policy of imperialism from the time of Jefferson, and the inevitableness of the war. He then sets forth the results which must follow from our appearance as a world power, and why the final struggle for world domination must be between the Anglo-Saxon and the Slav races. He also endeavors to forecast the result of this struggle."
- Randolph, Carman F. *Notes on the law of territorial expansion*. [New York: Privately printed. 1900.] 54 pp. 8°.
- Rayner, Isador. *Speeches and addresses*. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co., 1899. (6), 318 pp. 12°. *Imperialism*, pp. 280-291.
- Schurz, Carl. *American imperialism*. (In Bryan, W. J., and others: *Republic or empire*, pp. 329-363. Chicago, 1899.)
- Spalding, Bishop J. L. *Love of country*. (In Bryan, W. J., and others: *Republic or empire*, pp. 675-693. Chicago, 1899.)
- Swift, Morrison I. *Imperialism and liberty*. Los Angeles: The Rowbroke Press, 1899. ix, (1), 491 pp. 8°. "Opposed to expansion."
- Tompkins, D. A. *American commerce, its expansion*. A collection of addresses and pamphlets relating to the extension of foreign markets for American manufacturers. Charlotte, N. C.: Published by the author, 1900. 154 pp. 12°.
- Townsend, Luther Tracy. "Manifest destiny" from a religious point of view. An address delivered before the Boston music hall patriotic association, November 6, 1898. Baltimore: Baltimore Methodist, [1898]. 61 pp. 16°.
- Turner, George W. *Our ship of State*. (In Bryan, W. J., and others: *Republic or empire*, pp. 549-575. Chicago, 1899.)
- Valentine, John J. "Imperial democracy." *Dutch colonizers in Malaysia*. *Annexation of the Philippines*. San Francisco, 1899. 53 pp. 8°.
- Van Dyke, Henry. *The American birthright and the Philippine pottage*. (In Bryan, W. J., and others: *Republic or empire*, pp. 429-446. Chicago, 1899.)
- Visger, Jean A. Owen. *The story of Hawaii*. London and New York: Harper & Brothers, 1898. vii, (5), 219 pp. Plate. 8°.
- Vivian, Thomas J., and Ruel P. Smith. *Everything about our new possessions*. Being a handy book on Cuba, Porto Rico, Hawaii, and the Philippines. New York: R. F. Fenno & Co., 1899. 182 pp. 16°.
- Waldstein, Charles. *The expansion of Western ideals and the world's peace*. John Lane, New York and London, 1899. 194 pp. 16°.
- Whitney, Caspar. *Hawaiian America*. Something of its history, resources, and prospects. Profusely illustrated. New York and London: Harper & Brothers, 1899. xii, (2), 357 pp. Plates (photogravures). 8°.

## EXPANSION OF THE UNITED STATES, 1898-1900.

## ARTICLES IN PERIODICALS.

1898. The war as a suggestion of manifest destiny. H. H. Powers. *Annals of the Amer. Acad. of Pol. and Social Science*, vol. 12 (Sept., 1898), pp. 173-192.
1898. International isolation of the United States. Richard Olney. *Atlantic*, vol. 81 (May, 1898), p. 577.
1898. The United States and the control of the tropics. Benjamin Kidd. *Atlantic*, vol. 82 (Dec., 1898), p. 721.
1898. Our government of newly acquired territory. C. E. Boyd. *Atlantic*, vol. 82 (Dec., 1898), p. 738.
1898. Thoughts on American imperialism. C. Schurz. *Century*, vol. 56 (Sept., 1898), p. 781.
1898. The territory with which we are threatened. W. Reid. *Century*, vol. 56 (Sept., 1898), p. 788.
1898. American expansion and the inheritance of the race. W. L. Clowes. *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 64 (Dec., 1898), p. 884.
1898. Isolation or imperialism? J. R. Procter. *Forum*, vol. 26 (Sept., 1898), p. 14.
1898. The dangers of imperialism. W. McDonald. *Forum*, vol. 26 (Oct., 1898), p. 177.
1898. Annexation and universal suffrage. J. B. McMaster. *Forum*, vol. 26 (Dec., 1898), p. 393.
1898. Eastward expansion of the United States. A. R. Colquhoun. *Harper's Mag.*, vol. 97 (Nov., 1898), p. 932.
1898. American policy of territorial expansion. H. C. Lodge. *Independent*, vol. 50 (Jan. 13, 1898), p. 41.
1898. Dangers of colonial expansion. G. F. Hoar. *Independent*, vol. 50 (July 7, 1898), p. 8.
1898. The territorial expansion of the United States. J. T. Morgan. *Independent*, vol. 50 (July 7, 1898), p. 11.
1898. Washington's foreign policy and the Philippines. J. A. Woodburn. *Independent*, vol. 50 (Oct. 27, 1898), p. 1170.
1898. The parting of the ways in the foreign policy of the United States. F. Adler. *Int. J. of Ethics*, vol. 9 (Oct., 1898), p. 1.
1898. Annexation: Ethics of the war. *Nation*, vol. 67 (Sept. 22, 1898), pp. 216-217.
1898. The coming struggle in the Pacific. B. Taylor. *Nineteenth Century*, vol. 44 (Oct., 1898), p. 656.
1898. The problem of the Philippines. C. W. Dilke. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 167 (Sept., 1898), p. 257.
1898. The economic basis of imperialism. C. A. Conant. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 167 (Sept., 1898), p. 326.
1898. Difficulties in assimilating Hawaii. L. A. Beardslee. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 167 (Oct., 1898), p. 473.
1898. Pending problems. H. Taylor. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 167 (Nov., 1898), p. 609.
1898. Colonial government: What is our capacity for it? *Outlook*, vol. 60 (Nov. 20, 1898), p. 753.
1898. The Anglo-Saxon in the tropics. W. E. Griffis. *Outlook*, vol. 60 (Dec. 10, 1898), p. 902.
1898. Imperialism. F. H. Giddings. *Pol. Sci. Quar.*, vol. 13 (Dec., 1898), p. 585.
1898. The evolution of colonies. J. Collier. *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, vol. 53 (July-Sept., 1898).
1898. L'équilibre intercontinental. Les États-Unis et l'Espagne. Les puissances coloniales. L. Drapeyron. *Rev. Géographique*, vol. 43 (1898), pp. 7-12.
1898. Recent development of policy in the United States. J. Chamberlain. *Scribner's Mag.*, vol. 24 (Dec., 1898), p. 674.
1898. The American colonies. *Spectator* (Nov. 5, 1898), p. 640. Forecast of the difficulties of governing Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines.
1898. The principle of intervention. L. T. Hengstler. *Univ. Chronicle*, vol. 1 (Dec., 1898), p. 521.
1898. Aspects of empire and colonization, past and present. R. D. Melville. *Western Rev.*, vol. 150 (Oct., 1898), p. 363; *Eclectic*, new series, vol. 68 (Dec., 1898), p. 721.
1899. Our Federal Constitution and the government of tropical territories. H. P. Judson. *Am. Rev. of Reviews*, vol. 19 (Jan., 1899), p. 67.
1899. The drift towards colonial and protectorate governments. D. Dorchester. *Am. Rev. of Reviews*, vol. 69 (Feb., 1899), p. 199.
1899. The problem of territorial expansion. J. G. Schurman. *Am. Rev. of Reviews*, vol. 20 (Nov., 1899), p. 567.
1899. Americanizing Spanish colonies. A. J. Miller. *Anglo-Amer. Mag.*, vol. 1 (Mar., 1899), p. 156.
1899. American policy in the Far East. J. M. King, jr. *Anglo-Amer. Mag.*, vol. 1 (May, 1899), p. 432.
1899. Annex the Philippines. E. A. Balch. *Anglo-Amer. Mag.*, vol. 1 (May, 1899), p. 472.
1899. Constitutional aspects of the government of dependencies. E. W. Huffcut. *Annals of Amer. Acad.* (May, 1899), suppl., p. 19.
1899. The government of dependencies. A. L. Lowell. *Annals of Amer. Acad.* (May, 1899), suppl., p. 46.
1899. The government of tropical colonies. W. A. Ireland. *Annals of Amer. Acad.* (May, 1899), suppl., p. 60.
1899. The government of dependencies. T. S. Woolsey. *Annals of Amer. Acad.* (May, 1899), suppl., p. 3.
1899. Militarism and democracy. C. Schurz. *Annals of Amer. Acad.* (May, 1899), suppl., p. 77.
1899. A review of our foreign policy in the Far East. J. B. Moore. *Annals of Amer. Acad.* (May, 1899), suppl., p. 163.
1899. Our new colonial policy. *Arena*, vol. 21 (Jan., 1899), p. 84.
1899. The colonial expansion of the United States. A. L. Lowell. *Atlantic* (Feb., 1899).
1899. Expansion of the American people. E. E. Sparks. *Chautauquan*, vol. 30 (Oct.-Dec., 1899): 49, 157, 264.
1899. American policy of expansion. Champ Clark. *Conserv. Rev.*, vol. 1 (Feb., 1899), p. 78.
1899. The treaty with Spain in its relation to territorial acquisition. A. L. Knott. *Conserv. Rev.*, vol. 1 (Feb., 1899), p. 147.
1899. A question of national honor. W. H. Fleming. *Conserv. Rev.*, vol. 1 (May, 1899), p. 199. In favor of recognition of Filipino republic.
1899. North and South in national expansion. J. C. Ballagh. *Conserv. Rev.*, vol. 1 (May, 1899), p. 291.
1899. Imperialism in the United States. Goldwin Smith. *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 75 (May, 1899), p. 620.
1899. The future relations of Great Britain and the United States. C. W. Dilke. *Forum*, vol. 26 (Jan., 1899), p. 521.
1899. The war and the extension of civilization. D. J. Hill. *Forum*, vol. 26 (Feb., 1899), p. 650.
1899. Why the treaty should be ratified. C. Denby. *Forum*, vol. 26 (Feb., 1899), p. 641.
1899. The conditions of good colonial government. E. L. Godkin. *Forum*, vol. 27 (Apr., 1899), p. 190.
1899. A side-issue of expansion. Julian Hawthorne. *Forum*, vol. 27 (June, 1899), p. 441.

1899. The struggle for commercial empire. C. A. Conant. *Forum*, vol. 27 (June, 1899), p. 427.
1899. A paradise regained: Cuba. G. Reno. *Forum*, vol. 27 (Aug., 1899), p. 669.
1899. How shall Puerto Rico be governed? H. K. Carroll. *Forum*, vol. 28 (Nov., 1899), p. 257.
1899. Brother Jonathan's colonies. A. B. Hart. *Harper's Mag.*, vol. 98 (Jan., 1899), p. 319.
1899. America in the Pacific and Far East. John Barrett. *Harper's Mag.*, vol. 99 (Nov., 1899), p. 917.
1899. Europe and American imperialism. T. Stanton. *Independent*, vol. 51 (Feb. 9, 1899), 389.
1899. The Catholic church and expansion. H. A. Stinson. *Independent*, vol. 51 (Feb. 9, 1899), 396.
1899. Destiny's little bill. *Nation*, vol. 68 (Mar. 9, 1899), 176.
1899. Shadows of English imperialism. *Nation*, vol. 68 (Mar. 9, 1899), 176.
1899. An academic discussion of expansion. *Nation*, vol. 68 (Apr. 20, 1899), 292.
1899. The original territory of the United States. D. J. Hill. *Nat. Geog. Mag.*, vol. 10 (Mar., 1899), 73.
1899. The month in America: colonial policy, etc. A. M. Low. *National Rev.*, vol. 32 (Jan., 1899), 680.
1899. Americanism versus imperialism. A. Carnegie. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 168 (Jan., 1899), 1; (Mar., 1899), 362.
1899. Imperial responsibilities a national gain. G. S. Clarke. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 168 (Feb., 1899), 129.
1899. Americanism versus imperialism. A. Carnegie. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 168 (Mar., 1899), 362.
1899. National bigness or greatness—which? H. C. Potter. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 168 (Apr., 1899), 433.
1899. What Spain can teach America. N. Estévez. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 168 (May, 1899), 563.
1899. The paramount power of the Pacific. J. Barrett. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 169 (Aug., 1899), 165.
1899. A trained colonial service. E. G. Bourne. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 169 (Oct., 1899), 528.
1899. Has Congress abdicated? J. Pulitzer. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 169 (Dec., 1899), 885.
1899. Congress, the President, and the Philippines. Perry Belmont. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 169 (Dec., 1899), 894.
1899. The Pacific ocean and our future there. W. E. Griffis. *Outlook*, vol. 61 (Jan. 14, 1899), 110.
1899. The dread of expansion. A historical review. J. B. McMaster. *Outlook*, vol. 61 (Jan. 21, 1899), 161.
1899. The territorial system for our new possessions. H. K. Carroll. *Outlook*, vol. 63 (Dec. 23, 1899), 966.
1899. America to-day; the republic and the empire. W. Archer. *Pall Mall Mag.*, vol. 19 (Sept., 1899), 95.
1899. How may the United States govern its extra-continental territory? J. W. Burgess. *Polit. Sci. Quar.*, vol. 14 (Mar., 1899), 1.
1899. The control of dependencies through protectorates. E. Freund. *Polit. Sci. Quar.*, vol. 14 (Mar. 14, 1899), 19.
1899. Colonial expansion and free trade. J. Schoenhoff. *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, vol. 55 (May, 1899), 62.
1899. Expansion and protection. H. H. Powers. *Quart. Jour. of Economics*, vol. 13 (July, 1899), 361.
1899. L'impérialisme américain. P. de Rousiers. *Revue de Paris* (Mar. 15, 1899).
1899. The future of the United States (as to expansion). *Spectator*, vol. 82 (Mar. 18, 1899), 372.
1899. President McKinley and the Philippines. *Spectator*, vol. 83 (Sept. 2, 1899), 306.
1899. Government of alien races by the United States. *Yale Rev.*, vol. 7 (Feb., 1899), 357.
1900. Does colonization pay? O. P. Austin. *Forum*, vol. 28 (Jan., 1900), 621.
1900. The white settler in Hawaii. E. S. Goodhue. *Anglo-Amer. Mag.* (Jan., 1900), 3.
1900. Why we do not want the Philippines. Mrs. Jefferson Davis. *Arena*, vol. 23 (Jan., 1900), 1.
1900. Our duty in the Philippines. J. Schurman. *Gunton's Mag.*, vol. 18 (Jan., 1900), 15.
1900. Hawaii and Porto Rico as colonies. G. L. Bollen. *Gunton's Mag.*, vol. 18 (Jan., 1900), 26.
1900. Preliminary report of the special committee on colonial finance. *American Economic Association, Publications*, 3d series, vol. 1 (Feb., 1900), 283.
1900. A Filipino appeal to the people of the United States. A. Morini. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 170 (Jan., 1900), 54.
1900. The expansion of the American people. E. E. Sparks. *Chautauquan*, vol. 30 (Jan., 1900), 383; (Feb., 1900), 489.
1900. Corollaries of expansion. I. The Nicaragua canal. *Literary Digest*, vol. 20 (Feb. 10, 1900), 177.
1900. The religious problem of the Philippines. *Literary Digest*, vol. 20 (Feb. 10, 1900), 188.
1900. The Philippines and the Transvaal. G. Gunton. *Lecture Bulletin*, vol. 3 (Feb. 17, 1900), 445.
1900. Civic rule for the Philippines. *Literary Digest*, vol. 20 (Feb. 17, 1900), 203.
1900. Expansion; a political and moral opportunity. H. K. Carroll. *Methodist Rev.*, vol. 82 (Jan.-Feb., 1900), 9.
1900. Our rule in the Philippines. T. M. Anderson. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 170 (Feb., 1900), 272.
1900. American misgovernment of Cuba. J. E. Runcie. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 170 (Feb., 1900), 284.
1900. Imperial republicanism historically considered. From a Canadian view point. H. Bonis. *Arena*, vol. 23 (March, 1900), 321.
1900. The Roman empire and the United States (colonies). E. McK. Whiting. *Arena*, vol. 23 (Mar., 1900), 331.
1900. Hole-and-corner imperialism. *Nation*, vol. 70 (Mar. 22, 1900), 216.
1900. Expansion, but not imperialism. *Outlook*, vol. 64 (Mar. 24, 1900), 662.
1900. The imperialist dilemma in America. W. Clarke. *The Speaker*, new series, vol. 1 (Mar. 31, 1900), 700.
1900. Constitution and the Territories. H. P. Judson. *Amer. Rev. of Reviews*, vol. 21 (Apr., 1900), 451.
1900. Conquest and the Constitution. H. D. Money. *Arena*, vol. 23 (Apr., 1900), 337.
1900. American development through assimilation. J. M. Scanlan. *Arena*, vol. 23 (Apr., 1900), 342.
1900. Colonial civil service. E. Foster. *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 85 (May, 1900), 710.
1900. Nations and the decalogue. H. D. Sedgwick, jr. *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 85 (May, 1900), 577.
1900. Gains and losses in the Pacific. J. G. Leigh. *Fortnightly Rev.* (Jan., 1900), 45.
1900. The control of the tropics. D. S. Jordan. *Gunton's Mag.*, vol. 18 (May, 1900), 385.
1900. Expansion the doom of protection. G. Gunton. *Gunton's Mag.*, vol. 18 (May, 1900), 411.

## BRITISH COLONIES: COLLECTIVELY.

## BOOKS.

- Acton, R. Our colonial empire. London: Cassell, 1881. 192 pp. 8°.
- Adderly, Sir Charles Bowyer. Review of "The colonial policy of Lord John Russell's administration," by Earl Grey, 1853; and of subsequent colonial history. London: Stanford, 1869. viii, 423 pp. 8°.
- Avalle, Ernest. Notice sur les colonies anglaises, géographie, histoire, population, gouvernement, justice, etc. Paris: Berger-Levrault et Cie., 1883. 696 pp. 8°. (Reproduction d'articles publiés dans la "Revue Maritime et Coloniale.")
- Balfour, Betty, Lady. The history of Lord Lytton's Indian administration, 1876 to 1880; compiled from letters and official papers. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1899. viii, 551 pp. Portrait. 8°.
- Bannister, Saxe. British colonization and coloured tribes. London: William Ball, 1838. xii, 323 pp. 16°.
- Beer, George Louis. The commercial policy of England toward the American colonies. (In Columbia College. Studies in history, economics, and public law, vol. 3, pp. 299-465. New York, 1893.)
- Bell, Sydney Smith. Colonial administration of Great Britain. London: Longman, Brown, Green, Longmans, and Roberts, 1859. xi, 470 pp. 8°.
- Bérard, V. L'Angleterre et l'impérialisme. Paris: Colin et Cie., 1900. 381 pp. 12°.
- Besant, Sir Walter. The rise of the empire. London: Horace Marshall & Son, [1898]. xiv, (2), 125 pp. 16°. (Story of the empire series.)
- Blosseville, Bénigne Ernest Poret, Vicomte de. Histoire de la colonisation pénale et des établissements de l'Angleterre en Australie. Evreux: Imprimerie de Auguste Hérisssey, 1859. xxxii, viii, (2), 569 pp. 8°.
- Bowen, Sir George Ferguson. The federation of the British empire. (In Royal Colonial Institute. Proc., vol. 17, pp. 283-315. London, 1886.)
- Thirty years of colonial government. A selection from the despatches and letters of Sir G. F. Bowen, governor successively of Queensland, New Zealand, Victoria, Mauritius, and Hongkong. Edited by Stanley Lane-Poole. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1889. 2 vols. 8°.
- Buller, Charles. Mr. Mothercountry, of the colonial office. (In Wakefield, E. G.: A view of the art of colonization, pp. 279-296. London, 1849.)
- Burrows, Montagu. The history of the foreign policy of Great Britain. William Blackwood & Sons, Edinburgh and London, 1895. xiv, 372 pp. 8°.
- Caldecott, Alfred. English colonization and empire. London: John Murray, 1897. viii, 282 pp. Maps in the text. 16°. (University extension manuals.)
- Canning, Albert Stratford George. British rule and modern politics. A historical study. London: Smith Elder & Co., 1899. xvi, 342 pp. 8°.
- Carton de Wiart, Edmond. Les grandes compagnies coloniales anglaises du xix<sup>e</sup> siècle. Avec une préface de Eugène Étienne. Paris: Perrin et Cie., 1899. xix, (1) 280 pp. 12°. Contents: La "British North Borneo company;" La "Royal Niger company;" L' "Imperial British East Africa company;" La "British South Africa chartered company;" Considérations générales sur les nouvelles "chartered" anglaises. Bibliographie, p. 271.
- Cawston, G., and A. H. Keane. The early chartered companies (A. D. 1296-1858). London: Arnold, 1896. 342 pp. 8°.
- Chalmers (R.) A history of currency in the British colonies. London: Printed \* \* \* by Eyre and Spottiswoode, [1893]. viii, 495 pp. 8°.
- Chevilliard, G. Les colonies anglaises. Paris: A. Challamel, 1899. 415 pp. 8°.
- Clarke, Sir G. S., and J. R. Thursfield. The navy and the nation; or, Naval warfare and imperial defence. London: Murray, 1897. 352 pp. 8°.
- Clayden, A. British colonisation. London: 1891. 40 pp. 8°.
- Colomb, John Charles Ready. The defence of Great and greater Britain. Sketches of its naval, military, and political aspects; annotated with extracts from the discussions they have called forth in the press of greater Britain. With a map. London: Edward Stanford, 1880. viii, 264 pp. 8°.
- Cooper, Augustus. The colonies of the United Kingdom. A descriptive and statistical work of reference. Brighton: "Brighton Gazette" Printing Company, 1888. 182 pp. 8°.
- Cotton, J. S., and E. J. Payne. Colonies and dependencies. London: Macmillan & Co., 1883. vi, (2), 164 pp. 12°. (The English citizen.)
- Creasy, Sir Edward S. The imperial and colonial constitutions of the Britannic empire, including Indian institutions. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1872. xv, (3), 403 pp. Folded map. 8°.
- Cunningham, G. C. A scheme for imperial federation; a senate for the empire. London: Longmans, 1895. 116 pp. 8°.
- Cunningham, William. Growth of English industry and commerce during the early and middle ages. 3d edition. Cambridge: University Press. 1896. 730 pp. 8°.
- Growth of English industry and commerce in modern times. Cambridge: University Press. 1890-1892. 2 vols. 8°.
- Dawson, G. M., and A. Sutherland. Geography of the British colonies. 1892. 330 pp. 8°. (Macmillan's Geographical series.)
- Denison, Sir William. Varieties of vice-regal life. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1870. 2 vols. Folded maps. 8°.
- Dilke, Sir Charles Wentworth. The British empire. London: Chatto & Windus, 1899. 160 pp. 8°.
- Greater Britain. A record of travel in English-speaking countries during 1866-1867. Two volumes in one, with maps and illustrations. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1869. 8°.
- Problems of Greater Britain. 2d edition. London: Macmillan, 1890. 2 vols. 8°.
- Same. 4th edition, revised. London and New York: Macmillan, 1890. xii, 737 pp. Maps. 8°. Contents: North America; Newfoundland; The Dominion of Canada; The United States, Canada, and the West Indies; Australasia; Victoria; New South Wales; Queensland; Australia and New Zealand; The Cape; South Africa; India; Crown colonies of the present and of the future.—Colonial problems: Colonial democracy; Labour, provident societies, and the poor; Protection of native industries; Education; Religion; Liquor laws.—Future relations between the mother country and the remainder of the empire.—Imperial defence.
- Dilke, Sir C. W., and H. S. Wilkinson. Imperial defence. London, 1892. 234 pp. 8°.

- Douglas, James. Canadian independence; annexation and British Imperial federation. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1894. vi, (2), 114 pp. 8°. (Questions of the day.)
- Doyle, J. A. The English in America. The Puritan colonies. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1887. 2 vols. Folded maps. 8°.
- English colonies in America. Virginia, Maryland, and the Carolinas. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1882. xvi, 420 pp. Folded maps. 8°.
- Egerton, Hugh Edward. A short history of British colonial policy. London: Methuen & Co., 1897. xv, (1), 503 pp. 8°. Pp. 481-489 contain a bibliography. "This book deals with British colonial policy historically, from the beginnings of English colonisation down to the present day. The subject has been treated by itself, and it has thus been possible within a reasonable compass to deal with a mass of authority which must otherwise be sought in the State papers. The volume is divided into five parts: (1) The period of beginnings, 1497-1650. (2) Trade ascendancy, 1651-1830. (3) The granting of responsible government, 1831-1860. (4) Laissez aller, 1861-1885. (5) Greater Britain. The whole story of the growth and administration of our colonial empire is comprehensive and well arranged, and is set forth with marked ability."—Daily Mail. "It is a good book, distinguished by accuracy in detail, clear arrangement of facts, and a broad grasp of principles."—Manchester Guardian. "Able, impartial, clear. \* \* \* A most valuable volume."—Athenæum.
- Emancipation in disguise, or the true crisis of the colonies. To which are added considerations upon measures proposed for their temporary relief and observations upon colonial monopoly, showing the different effects of its enforcement and relaxation, exposing the advantages derived by America from Louisiana. \* \* \* London: Printed for J. Ridgeway. 1807 (4), iv, 220 pp. 8°.
- Franklyn, H. Mortimer. The unit of imperial federation. A solution of the problem. London: Swan Sonnenschein, Lowrey & Co., 1887. xvi, 260 pp. 8°.
- Froude, James Anthony. Oceana; or England and her colonies. New York: C. Scribner's Sons, 1886. ix, (2), 396 pp. Plates. 8°.
- Fuchs, Carl J. Die Handelspolitik Englands und seiner Kolonien in den letzten Jahrzehnten. (Die Handelspolitik der wichtigeren Kulturstaaten in den letzten Jahrzehnten, volume 4.) Leipzig: Verein für Sozialpolitik, 1893. x, 358 pp. 8°.
- Geffcken, Friedrich Heinrich. The British Empire. With essays on Prince Albert, Lord Palmerston, Lord Beaconsfield, Mr. Gladstone, and reform of the House of Lords. Translated from the German, by S. J. Macmullan. London: Sampson Low [etc.], 1889. ix, (3), 312 pp. Portrait. 8°.
- Geroldt, Fritz. Nine colonies. London: Chapman, 1881. 144 pp. 8°.
- Gibbins, H. de B. British commerce and colonies. London: Methuen, 1893. 136 pp. 8°. (Methuen's commercial series.)
- Greswell, William Henry Parr. British colonies and their industries. London, 1893. 132 pp. 8°.
- Outlines of British colonization. London: Percival & Co., 1893. xvi, 358 pp. 12°. Contents: The West Indies; Newfoundland; The Dominion of Canada; The West African settlements; The South African colonies; The Australian colonies; New Zealand; The islands of the Pacific; The Fiji group; Ceylon and the Maldivé archipelago; Mauritius; Hongkong; The Straits Settlements; British North Borneo; Labuan.
- Grey, Henry George, 3d Earl. The colonial policy of Lord John Russell's administration. In two volumes. London: Richard Bentley, 1853. 8°.
- Commercial policy of the British colonies and the McKinley tariff. London, 1892. 79 pp. 8°.
- Hubert Hervey, student and imperialist. London: Arnold, 1899. 160 pp. 8°.
- Hall, Hubert. The imperial policy of Elizabeth, from the State papers, foreign and domestic. (In Royal Historical Society. Transactions. New series, vol. 3, pp. 202-241. London, 1888.)
- Hart, Arthur Wellington. "Our Colonies." London: Richardson. Liverpool: Joshua Walmsley. 1849. 44 pp. 8°.
- Heising, Albert. England und die anglosächsische Staaten-Bildung in Amerika, Westindien u. Australien vom Ursprung bis auf die Gegenwart. Berlin: A. Sacco, [1854]. 252 pp. 12°.
- Hodgetts, J. Frederick. Greater England. Being a brief historical sketch of the various possessions of Her Majesty, the Empress Queen, in Europe, Asia, Africa, America, and Oceania. London: Hatchards, 1887. xvi, 330 pp. 8°. Contents: Preface. Little Britain: Account of the opinion formed of the aborigines by the English on their taking possession of Britain; Hatred of tyranny, and especially of Rome; Assumption of Romance manners and language by the Normans, and consequent hatred between the English and them; Continual struggle between the descendants of the old Scandinavian English and those of Rome. North America: Discovery of America by the Scandinavians in the 10th and 11th centuries; English discoveries in 1497, Spanish discoveries in 1492, in the West Indies; Columbus independent of the Norsemen; Continued struggle between ourselves and Romance races in America, resulting in European war and English victory. The Caribbean Sea: Continued battle of the races; Fights in the Caribbean Sea; Sir Henry Morgan's victory at Panama; His true value in English history. Oceania: Historical sketches of our settlements in the islands of Australia, New Zealand, and Borneo; Accounts of the aborigines, of our own intercourse with them, and of their subsequent decay. Africa: The Cape Colony and causes of discomfort there; Suggestions for removing the trouble; the Dutch and English never friends. India: Portuguese, Dutch, and French preceding us; The war of race continued and resulting in English victory; Troubles in India, their cause; Clive, Warren Hastings; The mutiny and the Empire. Ceylon: Battle of the races continued; The Dutch our enemies as well as the Portuguese and French; Final occupation of the island by the English; Descendants of the Portuguese black, a circumstance militating against Darwin's theory; The cause considered; Buddhism, devil worship, and Christianity; Ferguson's work quoted; Possible future value of Ceylon to the English race.
- Hübner, J. A., Baron von. Through the British Empire. In two volumes, with a map. London: John Murray, 1886. 8°.
- Hughes, W., and Williams, J. F. Geography of the British colonies. London, 1892. 232 pp. 8°. (Philips' Geographical Manuals.)
- Hurlburt, J. Beaufort. Britain and her colonies. London: Edward Stanford, 1865. xv, 271 pp. 8°. Contents: Government of the first English colonies; American confederations from 1643-1790; Colonial governments, ancient and modern; Introduction of parliamentary or responsible governments; Confederation of British North America; Policy of the mother country; Commercial policy; Cost, defence, and advantages of colonies; Opinions, imperial and colonial; Evidence given before the select committee of the House of Commons on colonial military expenditure in 1861; Future of the colonies.
- Huskisson, William. Substance of two speeches delivered in the House of Commons on the 21st and 25th of March, 1825, respecting the colonial policy and foreign commerce of the country. Baltimore: Published by F. Lucas, jr., 1826. 88 pp. 8°.
- Johnson, Theodore. Imperial Britain. A comprehensive description of the geography, history, commerce, trade, government, and religion of the British Empire. London: The Imperial Press, 1898. xvi, 295 pp. Illustrations (woodcuts). Maps. 8°. (The Imperial Library.)
- Latham, R. G. The ethnology of the British colonies and dependencies. London: John Van Voorst, 1851. vi, 264 pp. 16°.
- Lazarides, D. G. History of the commerce, industry, and colonies of England. London: Clayton & Co., 1882. 150 pp. 8°.
- Lecky, William Edward Hartpole. The Empire: its value and its growth. An inaugural address, Nov. 20, 1893. London: Longmans, 1893. 48 pp. 8°.
- Ledsham, J. B. Geography of the British isles and colonies. Manchester: J. B. Ledsham, 1877. 16°.

- Lord, Walton Frewen. *The lost possessions of England. Essays in imperial history.* London: Richard Bentley & Son, 1896. vii, (3), 326 pp. 12°. Contents: Retrospect; Dunkirk; Tangier; Minorca; Cuba; Manila; Corsica; Buenos Ayres, and Montevideo; Java; The Ionian Islands; Forecast.
- Lucas, Charles Prestwood. *Introduction to a historical geography of the British colonies.* Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1887. xii, 142 pp. Maps. 12°.
- . *A historical geography of the British colonies.* Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1888-1897. 4 vols. in 5. Maps. 12°. Contents: 1. The European dependencies of Great Britain: Heligoland; Gibraltar; Malta; Cyprus. The minor Asiatic dependencies: Aden and Perim; Socotra; Ceylon and the Maldives. The British dependencies in the Malay seas: The Straits Settlements; Perak; Selangor; Sungei; Ujong; Labuan; North Borneo; Hongkong. Dependencies in the Indian Ocean: Mauritius and its dependencies; The Cocos Islands. 2. West Indies: The Bermudas; European colonization in the West Indies; The Bahamas; Jamaica and its dependencies; The Leeward Islands; Barbados; The Windward Islands; Trinidad and Tobago; British Guiana; British Honduras; The Falkland Islands and South Georgia. 3. The British colonies and dependencies in Africa: Early exploration of Africa down to the opening of the route round the Cape of Good Hope. The West African dependencies: The west coast; Early European trade and settlement on the west coast of Africa; The African companies and the slave trade; English, French, and Dutch on the west coast, 1660-1821; The rise of the British west coast settlement; The last twenty years in West Africa; The Gambia; Sierra Leone; The Gold coast; Lagos; The Niger protectorates; The islands in the South Atlantic: Ascension; St. Helena; Tristan da Cunha, and Gough Island. 4, part 1. South and East Africa. Historical: The Cape, 1487-1652; The founding of the Dutch settlement at the Cape; The Cape Colony in the eighteenth century; The missionary movement and British immigration; The Kaffir wars; The beginnings of Natal and the Boer republics; The growth of the Cape Colony and Natal; The last twenty years in South Africa. 4, part 2. Geographical: The Cape Colony; Natal; Zululand; Basutoland; The Bechuanaland protectorate; Matabeleland and Mashonaland; British Central Africa; British East Africa. Index.
- Lyde, L. W. *Commercial geography of the British Empire.* London: Methuen, 1894. 156 pp. 8°. (Methuen's Commercial Series.)
- Macdonald, A. *Our sceptred isle and its empire.* London: Low, 1883. 196 pp. 8°.
- Macknight, Thomas. *Thirty years of foreign policy. A history of the secretaryships of the Earl of Aberdeen and Viscount Palmerston.* London: Longman, Brown, etc., 1855. xi, (1), 440 pp. 8°.
- . *Martin, Robert Montgomery. The political, commercial, and financial condition of the Anglo-Eastern Empire in 1832. An analysis of its home and foreign governments, and a practical examination of the doctrines of free trade and colonization, with reference to the renewal or modification of the East India Company's charter.* London: Parbury, Allen & Co., 1832. xi, (i), 403 pp. 8°.
- . *Colonial policy of the British Empire. Part I.—Government.* London, 1837. (2), 87 pp. 8°.
- . *Statistics of the colonies of the British Empire in the West Indies, South America, North America, Asia, Austral-Asia, Africa, and Europe; comprising the area, agriculture, commerce, manufactures, shipping, custom duties, population, education, religion, crime, government, finances, laws, military defence, cultivated and waste lands, emigration, rates of wages, prices of provisions, banks, coins, staple products, stock, movable and immovable property, public companies, etc., of each colony, with the charters and the engraved seals. From the official records of the colonial office.* London: Wm. H. Allen & Co., 1839. 602, 304 pp. Folded map. 8°.
- . *History of the colonies of the British Empire in the West Indies, South America, North America, Asia, Austral-Asia, Africa, and Europe; comprising the area, agriculture, commerce, etc., of each colony, with the charters and the engraved seals.* London: Wm. H. Allen & Co., 1843. v, (3), 602, 304 pp. 2 folded sheets, folded map. 8°.
- Martineau, John. *The life and correspondence of Sir Bartle Frere. In two volumes. 2d edition.* London: John Murray, 1895. Folded maps, portraits. 8°. (Colonial administration in India and South Africa.)
- Mills, Arthur. *Colonial constitutions; An outline of the constitutional history and existing government of the British dependencies, with schedules of the orders in council, statutes, and parliamentary documents relating to each dependency.* London: John Murray, 1856. xxi, (1), 399 pp. 8°. Contents: Introduction; An outline of the constitutional history and existing government of the British dependencies; Historical sketch of the home administration of the British dependencies; Laws and government of the British dependencies as affected by the mode of their original acquisition, either (1) by the occupation of vacant territory, or (2) by cession or conquest from other powers; The existing constitutions of the British dependencies: (1) Those not possessing representative government, (2) those possessing representative government; Powers of colonial governors; Powers of the executive councils; Powers of the legislative councils; Powers of the representative assemblies; Prerogatives reserved to the Crown in the administration of the British dependencies: (1) In respect to the confirmation or disallowance of colonial acts or ordinances, (2) in respect of territorial revenues, and royalties on minerals, (3) in respect of appellate jurisdiction, (4) in respect of the foreign relations of the dependencies; European dependencies: Ionian Islands, Malta, Gibraltar, Heligoland, Isle of Man, and Channel Islands; Asiatic dependencies: British India, Ceylon, Hongkong, and Labuan; African dependencies: (1) Southern—Cape of Good Hope; British Kaffraria; Natal; (2) Western—Sierra Leone, Gambia, Gold Coast settlements; (3) Mauritius; (4) St. Helena; Ascension; American dependencies: (1) Northern—Canada; Nova Scotia; New Brunswick; Newfoundland; Prince Edwards Island; Hudson's Bay territories; Vancouvers Island; Bermudas; (2) Central—Honduras; Jamaica; Bahamas; Windward Islands; Leeward Islands; St. Lucia; Trinidad; (3) Southern—British Guiana; Falkland Islands; Pitcairn; Australian dependencies: (1) Australia, comprising New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Western Australia; (2) Tasmania and Norfolk Islands; (3) New Zealand; Chatham Islands; Auckland Islands; Historical sketch of the system of transportation of criminals to the British dependencies, with orders in council; Acts of Parliament, and Parliamentary documents relating thereto; Statistical table: Dates of acquisition and population of the dependencies, also, imports and exports; Revenue and expenditure for 1854; Rules and regulations for Her Majesty's colonial service (cap. 1, 2, and 3); Local government of India, and relations of the Imperial Government with the native States; Statistical table: Dependencies of the European powers, with the area of each; Laws relating to Christianity in the British dependencies; Index.
- . *Colonial constitutions; an outline of the existing forms of government in the British dependencies.* London: E. Stanford, 1891. 55 pp. 8°.
- Milne, James. *The romance of a proconsul; being the personal life and memoirs of the Rt. Hon. George Grey.* London: Chatto & Windus, 1899. Portrait. ix, 214 pp. Cr. 8°.
- Moffatt, Wm. *Geography of British colonies.* London: Moffatt & Paige, 1880. 77 pp. 8°.
- Molteno, Percy Alport. *A federal South Africa. A comparison of the critical period of American history with the present position of the colonies and states of South Africa, and a consideration of the advantages to follow. With maps.* London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co., 1896. xxii, 260 pp. 12°.
- Napier, Charles James. *The colonies; treating of their value generally, of the Ionian islands in particular; the importance of the latter in war and commerce. \* \* \* Strictures on the administration of Sir Frederick Adam.* London: Thomas and William Boone, 1833. xv, (3), 608 pp. Plates, map. 8°.
- Navez, L. *Les causes et les conséquences de la grandeur coloniale de l'Angleterre.* Bruxelles, 1890. 56 pp. 8°.
- Parkin, George R. *Imperial federation. The problem of national unity.* London: Macmillan, 1892. xii, 314 pp. 8°.
- . *Round the empire.* London, 1892. 263 pp. 8°.



- Pridham, Charles. *England's colonial empire; an historical, political, and statistical account of the empire, its colonies and dependencies.* Vol. I. London: Smith, Elder & Co., 1846. xii, (2), 410 pp. Folded maps. 8°. Contents: The Mauritius and its dependencies.
- Ransome, Cyril. *Our colonies and India; how we got them, and why we keep them.* 4th edition. Cassell & Co., London, Paris, and Melbourne, 1895. 102 pp. Folded map. 16°.
- Rawlings, Thomas. *The confederation of the British North American provinces; their past history and future prospects; including also British Columbia and Hudson's Bay territory; with a map and suggestions in reference to the true and only practicable route from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean.* London: Sampson Low, Son, and Marston, 1865. x, (2), 244 pp. Plates (lithographs). 8°.
- Ritchie, Leitch. *The British world in the East; a guide historical, moral, and commercial to India, China, Australia, South Africa, and the other possessions or connections of Great Britain in the Eastern and Southern seas.* In 2 vols. London: W. H. Allen & Co., 1847. 12°. Contents: 1. The history of India from the earliest time to the downfall of the Mahomedan empire; The civilization of India under the Hindoos and Mahomedans; The history of the settlements of the English and other European nations in India; The constitution and régime of the East India company; A geographical outline of India: its connection with Europe by means of steam navigation, and a comparative view of the condition of the country under Hindoo, Mahomedan, and British rule. 2. The countries adjoining India; The Chinese Empire: its internal resources and foreign relations; The Empire of Japan; Australia and the islands of the Pacific; Southern Africa and the islands of the Indian and south Atlantic oceans.
- Roberts, Browne. *History of the colonial empire of Great Britain.* London: Longman, Green, Longman & Roberts, 1861. xi, (1), 313 pp. 12°.
- Robertson, John M. *Patriotism and empire.* London: Grant Richards, 1899. (6), 208 pp. 8°. Contents: The springs of patriotism and militarism; The military regimen; The theory and practice of imperialism.
- Robinson, Sir John. Same. London: Macmillan & Co., 1899. vi, 128 pp. 8°. (In Royal Colonial Institute. Proceedings, vol. 30, pp. 324-367. London, 1899.)
- Royal Colonial Institute Proceedings. London, 1870-1899. 30 vols. 8°.
- Salmon, C. S. *The crown colonies of Great Britain. An inquiry into their social condition and methods of administration; with a chapter on "The black and the brown landholder of Jamaica," by R. G. Haliburton.* Cassell & Co., London, etc., 1885. 184 pp. 16°.
- Scholes, Theophilus F. S. *The British Empire and alliances; or, Britain's duty to her colonies and subject races.* London: Elliot Stock, 1899. viii, 415 pp. 8°.
- Scott, Eben Greenough. *The development of constitutional liberty in the English colonies of America.* New York, London: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1893. xv, 334 pp. 12°. Contents: The era of constitutional development in England; The era of State development in America; Descent; Remoteness of situation; The forms of the colonial governments and the political relations of the colonies; Religion of the northern provinces; The mysticism of West Jersey and Pennsylvania; Rationalism of New England; Faith of Maryland; Manners in southern provinces; Manners of the frontier; Manners in the middle provinces; New England's five advantages as enumerated by John Adams; The commercial relations of the colonies; The era of constitutional development in America.
- Seeley, John Robert. *The expansion of England. Two courses of lectures.* Boston: Roberts Brothers, 1883. vii, 308 pp. 12°. Contents: Tendency in English history; England in the eighteenth century; The empire; The old colonial system; Effect of the New World on the Old; Commerce and war; Phases of expansion; Schism in Greater Britain; History and politics; The Indian Empire; How we conquered India; How we govern India; Mutual influence of England and India; Phases in the conquest of India; Internal and external dangers; Recapitulation.
- Our colonial expansion. Extracts from *The expansion of England.* London: Macmillan & Co., 1887. 96 pp. 16°.
- The growth of British policy; An historical essay. In 2 vols. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press, 1895. Portrait. 12°. Contents: 1. Memoir; Introduction; Elizabeth; The growth of the house of Hapsburg; The first phase of policy; The counter-reformation; The British question; The middle period of Elizabeth; The Spanish monarchy; From peace to war; The war of Elizabeth; Close of the Elizabethan age. Reaction; Epochs in the reign of James I; James I and the Thirty Years' War; The policy of Charles I; The transformation of France; The transformation of England. 2. Cromwell and the military state; The first Dutch war; The peace of Cromwell; War of Cromwell. The second reaction: The restoration and Charles II; The French ascendancy; Revival of the dynasty system; The rise of a new opposition; The last phase of the counter-reformation; The Stuart dynasty and the nation; William III and the commercial state.
- Sitwell, Sidney Mary. *Growth of the English colonies.* 2d edition. London: Rivingtons, 1886. vii, (1), 125 pp. 16°.
- Stokes, Anthony. *A view of the constitution of the British colonies in North America and the West Indies at the time the civil war broke out on the continent of America; in which notice is taken of such alterations as have happened since that time . . . with a variety of colony precedents.* London: Printed for the author, 1783. (2), xvi, 555, (1) pp. 8°.
- Storey, Alfred Thomas. *The building of the British Empire; the story of England's growth from Elizabeth to Victoria.* New York and London: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1898. 2 vols. Plates. 8°.
- Tarring, Charles James. *Chapters on the law relating to the colonies; to which are appended topical indexes of cases decided in the privy council on appeal from the colonies, Channel Islands, and the Isle of Man, and of cases relating to the colonies decided in the English courts otherwise than on appeal from the colonies.* 2d ed., enlarged. London: Stevens & Haynes, 1893. xxiii, (1), 478 pp. 8°.
- Temple, A. *The making of the Empire.* London: A. Melrose, 1895. 288 pp. 8°.
- Todd, Alpheus. *Parliamentary government in the British colonies.* London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1880. xii, 607 pp. 8°.
- *Parliamentary government in the British colonies.* 2d ed., edited by his son. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1894. xx, 929 pp. 8°.
- Wilkinson, Spenser. *The nation's awakening. Essays towards a British policy.* Westminster: A. Constable & Co., 1897. xxviii, 222 pp. 8°. Contents: Our past apathy; The aims of the great powers; The defence of British interests; The organization of government for the defence of British interests; The idea of the nation; The foundations of British power; The meaning of empire.
- Wood, J. Dennistoun. *System of land transfer adopted by the colonies.* (In Royal Colonial Institute. Proceedings, vol. 17, pp. 343-367. London, 1886.)
- Woodcock, Henry Hes. *The laws and constitution of the British colonies in the West Indies having legislative assemblies.* 2d ed. London: R. and W. Swale, 1838. xii, 304 pp. 8°.
- Woodward, W. H. *A short history of the expansion of the British Empire, 1500-1870.* Cambridge (Eng.): University Press, 1899. x, 326 pp. Maps. 12°.



- Young, Frederick. Imperial federation of Great Britain and her colonies. London: S. W. Silver & Co., 1876. xxix, 184 pp. 8vo.  
 ——— Emigration to the colonies. (In Royal Colonial Institute. Proceedings, vol. 17, pp. 368-389. London, 1886.)  
 ——— Editor. Imperial federation of Great Britain and her colonies. London: S. W. Silver & Co., 1876. xx, 184 pp. 8°. (In Letters edited by Frederick Young.)  
 Zimmermann, Alfred. Die kolonialpolitik Grossbritanniens. 2 Theile. Berlin, 1898-1899. Maps. 8°. (In his Die europäischen Kolonien, 2, 3.) "Verzeichniss der wichtigsten quellen und bearbeitungen," i, 476-479; ii, 400-407. Contents: i. Von den anfangen bis zum abfall der Vereinigten Staaten. 1898. ii. Vom abfall der Vereinigten Staaten bis zur Gegenwart. 1899.

## ARTICLES IN PERIODICALS, 1898-1900.

- 1897-98. Makers of the Dominion of Canada. By J. G. Bourinot. Canadian Mag., vol. 10 (Nov. 1897), 3, to vol. 11 (Oct., 1898), 567.  
 1898. Politisch-geographische Rückblicke: Das englische Weltreich. F. Ratzel. Geographische Zeitung, vol. 4 (1898), 211. A critical study of the relations between the British colonies and the mother country.  
 1898. The British Empire: its resources and its future. J. Lowles. Society of Arts Journal, vol. 46 (1898), 497.  
 1898. The Anglo-French dispute in West Africa. F. de Pressensé. Am. Rev. of Reviews, vol. 17 (Jan., 1898), 80.  
 1898. European powers in West Africa. Independent, vol. 50 (Jan. 13, 1898), 51 [map].  
 1898. Colonial champions in the mother country. Quarterly Rev., vol. 187 (Jan., 1898), 153.  
 1898. Britain's exploitation of the Nile valley. F. C. Penfield. Forum, vol. 24 (Feb., 1898), 698.  
 1898. Undercurrents in Indian political life. F. H. Skrine. Harper's Monthly, vol. 96 (Feb., 1898), 452.  
 1898. An open West Africa. (England and France in West Africa.) Outlook (Eng.), vol. 1 (Feb. 19, 1898), 80.  
 1898. England and France in West Africa. Outlook (Eng.), vol. 1 (Feb. 26, 1898), 103.  
 1898. Dominion parliament. Public Opinion, vol. 24 (Feb. 10, 1898), 171.  
 1898. The dispute in West Africa. (England and France in West Africa.) Spectator, vol. 80 (Feb. 26, 1898), 292.  
 1898. French at Lake Chad. Chambers' Journal, vol. 75 (Mar., 1898), 221.  
 1898. England and Egypt. A. S. White. Forum, vol. 25 (Mar., 1898), 59.  
 1898. Face to face in West Africa. F. A. Maxse. National Rev., vol. 31 (Mar., 1898), 29.  
 1898. England at war. T. E. Kebbel. Nineteenth Century, vol. 43 (Mar., 1898), 337.  
 1898. West Indian depression. Outlook (Eng.), vol. 1 (Mar. 19, 1898), 199; (Mar. 26, 1898), 232.  
 1898. The West African crisis. Saturday Rev., vol. 85 (Mar. 19, 1898), 381.  
 1898. Is England growing weak? (England at war.) Comment. Spectator, vol. 80 (Mar. 12, 1898), 368.  
 1898. Clerical work in the colonies. Spectator, vol. 80 (Mar. 19, 1898), 401.  
 1898. Prosperity of Egypt since the occupation. Spectator, vol. 80 (Mar. 26, 1898), 432.  
 1898. England and France in West Africa. W. T. Stead. Am. Rev. of Reviews, vol. 17 (Apr., 1898), 463. [Map.]  
 1898. Life and death in the Niger delta. Blackwood's Mag., vol. 163 (Apr., 1898), 451.  
 1898. England and France in West Africa. J. Westlake. Contemp. Rev., vol. 73 (Apr., 1898), 582.  
 1898. England and France in West Africa. T. G. Bowles. Forum, vol. 25 (Apr., 1898), 144.  
 1898. France and England in West Africa. F. de Pressensé. Living Age, vol. 217 (Apr. 30, 1898), 283.  
 1898. Ruin of India by British rule. S. H. Kellogg. Missionary Rev., vol. 21 (Apr., 1898), 275.  
 1898. Imperial defense and colonial responsibility. National Rev., vol. 31 (Apr., 1898), 312.  
 1898. West Indian depression. M. M. Beeton. Outlook (Eng.), vol. 1 (Apr. 2, 1898), 267.  
 1898. New development theory in the West Indies. Outlook (Eng.), vol. 1 (Apr. 16, 1898), 346.  
 1898. French case in West Africa. Spectator, vol. 80 (Apr. 2, 1898), 470.  
 1898. England, the Sudan, and France. H. Norman. Independent, vol. 50 (May 5, 1898), 575.  
 1898. Life and death in the Niger delta. Living age, vol. 217 (May 21, 1898), 525.  
 1898. Bond of empire. J. E. G. de Montmorency. Westminster Rev., vol. 149 (May 1898), 552.  
 1898. England and France in West Africa. F. de Pressensé. Eclectic Mag., vol. 130 (June, 1898), 721.  
 1898. England and France in West Africa. Public Opinion, vol. 24 (June 2, 1898), 683. [Map.]  
 1898. England and France in West Africa; settlement. Spectator, vol. 80 (June 18, 1898), 849.  
 1898. The Anglo-French boundaries in West Africa. E. G. Ravenstein. Geog. Jour., vol. 12 (July, 1898), 73. [Map.]  
 1898. British influence in the Western Soudan. R. P. Lobb. Imperial and Asiatic Quar., 3d series, vol. 6 (July, 1898), 322.  
 1898. Imperial parliament supreme in India. J. Jardine. Imperial and Asiatic Quar., 3d series, vol. 6 (July, 1898), 1.  
 1898. What Britain has done for Egypt. R. Richardson. No. Amer. Rev., vol. 167 (July, 1898), 12.  
 1898. Australian federation; some constitutional comparisons. J. W. Russell. No. Amer. Rev., vol. 167 (July, 1898), 27.  
 1898. Imperial concentration. Spectator, vol. 81 (July 30, 1898), 137.  
 1898. Map of Anglo-French boundary dispute in West Africa. Am. Rev. of Reviews, vol. 18 (Aug., 1898), 140.  
 1898. The prospects of Australian federation. J. Vogel. Contemp. Rev., vol. 94 (Aug., 1898), 275.  
 1898. Dissatisfaction with British rule in India. R. A. Hume. Missionary Rev., vol. 21 (Aug., 1898), 580.  
 1898. Anglo-German agreement. Public Opinion, vol. 25 (Sept. 15, 1898), 330.  
 1898. Makers of the Dominion of Canada. J. G. Bourinot. Canadian Mag., vol. 11 (Oct., 1898), 505.  
 1898. How Canada is governed. J. G. Bourinot. Canadian Mag., vol. 11 (Oct., 1898), 503.  
 1898. English colonization in the Western world. E. Parsons. Chautauquan, vol. 28 (Oct., 1898), 29.  
 1898. European powers in West Africa. Edinburgh Rev., vol. 188 (Oct., 1898), 465. [Map.]  
 1898. The doom of the West Indies. Living Age, vol. 219 (Oct. 1, 1898), 40.  
 1898. Are the West Indies disloyal? Outlook (Eng.), vol. 2 (Oct. 22, 1898), 361.  
 1898. Secrets of British success. Spectator, vol. 81 (Oct., 1898), 433.

1898. English colonization in the Old World. E. Parsons. *Chautauquan*, vol. 28 (Nov., 1898), 143.
1898. British method of colonization. The Fashoda question. L. Declé. *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 70 (Nov., 1898), 665. [Map.]
1898. Cape politics and colonial policy. H. L. W. Lawson. *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 70 (Nov., 1898), 756.
1898. Shall the Indian government ruin India? T. Lloyd. *National Rev.*, vol. 32 (Nov., 1898), 326.
- x 1898. Sir George Grey; a South African tribute. John Robinson. *Nineteenth Century*, vol. 44 (Nov., 1898), 754.
1898. Egypt and the African deal. *Outlook (Eng.)*, vol. 2 (Nov. 12, 1898), 453.
1898. West Indian sugar. H. Cox. *Economic Jour.*, vol. 7 (Dec., 1898), 599.
1898. Some economic aspects of the imperial idea. E. R. Faraday. *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 70 (Dec., 1898), 961.
1898. Fashoda and Lord Salisbury's vindication. *Diplomaticus*. *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 70 (Dec., 1898), 1002.
1898. The West Indies; West-Indian fruit and British markets. F. S. Robinson. *Harper's Weekly*, vol. 42 (Dec. 24, 1898), 1275.
1898. Economic outlook of the British West Indies. *National Rev.*, vol. 32 (Dec., 1898), 602.
1898. The future of Egypt. 1. Our hampered trusteeship. E. Dicey. 2. The Niger and the Nile. II. Birchenough. 3. Egypt and Tunis; a study in international law. *Nineteenth Century*, vol. 44 (Dec., 1898), 881.
1898. England's absorption of Egypt. F. C. Penfield. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 165 (Dec., 1898), 682.
1898. The seamy side of empire. Goldwin Smith. *Self Culture*, vol. 8 (Dec., 1898), 385.
1899. The relative growth of the component parts of the British Empire. Sir R. Giffen. *Roy. Colonial Institute. Proc.*, vol. 30 (1899), 237.
1899. The growth of Greater Britain. A review and a forecast. (With map.) George Philip. *Proc. Lit. and Philosoph. Soc., Liverpool*, vol. 53 (1899), 153-159. "The map shows by appropriate colors the gradual growth of the British Empire and its territorial extent at different periods."
- x 1899. The administrative history of the British dependencies in the further East. H. M. Stephens. *Amer. Hist. Rev.*, vol. 4 (Jan., 1899), 246.
1899. British system of colonial government. A. White. *Harper's Mag.*, vol. 100 (Jan., 1899), 293-304.
1899. India's attitude to English rule. J. E. Abbott. *Independent*, vol. 52 (Jan. 11, 1899), 125-127.
1899. Establishment of Sikh military colonies. *United Service Mag.*, vol. 139 (Jan., 1899), 432.
1899. After the Atbara and Omdurman. W. Gatacre. *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 75 (Feb., 1899), 299.
1899. Few facts about the colonies of the great powers. A. Ireland. *McClure*, vol. 14 (Feb., 1899), 334-338.
1899. The rule of the Chartered Company. H. C. Thomson. *National Rev.*, vol. 32 (Feb., 1899), 895.
1899. Civilisation and morals. (African administration.) *Saturday Rev.*, vol. 87 (Feb. 18, 1899).
1899. West African administration. M. H. Kingsley. *Saturday Rev.*, vol. 87 (Feb. 25, 1899), 240.
1899. The growth of the empire. *Spectator*, vol. 82 (Feb. 18, 1899), 227.
1899. Les protectorats de l'Inde britannique. Chailley-Bert. *Annales des Sciences Politiques* (Mar., 1899).
1899. British experience in the government of colonies. J. Bryce. *Century*, vol. 57 (Mar., 1899), 718-728.
1899. Native rule in British West Africa. *Macmillan*, vol. 79 (Mar., 1899), 379.
1899. Shadows of English imperialism. *Nation*, vol. 68 (Mar. 9, 1899), 176.
1899. British rule in India. J. P. Jones. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 168 (Mar., 1899), 336.
1899. England's commercial policy toward her colonies since the Treaty of Paris. J. Davidson. *Polit. Sci. Quar.*, vol. 14 (Mar., 1899); 39 (June, 1899), 211.
1899. The English in Egypt; how and why they are there. *Self Culture*, vol. 9 (Mar., 1899), 34.
1899. Growth of the British colonial conception. W. A. Ireland. *Atlantic*, vol. 83 (Apr., 1899), 488-498.
- x 1899. System of British colonial government. E. L. Godkin. *Forum*, vol. 27 (Apr., 1899), 196-203.
1899. British imperialism. J. McCarthy. *Independent*, vol. 51 (Apr. 6, 1899), 940-941.
1899. Australian federation. Lord Brassey. *Nineteenth Century*, vol. 45 (Apr., 1899), 548.
1899. British rule in India. J. P. Jones. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 168 (Apr., 1899), 463.
- x 1899. British imperialism and the reform of the civil service. G. E. Howard. *Polit. Sci. Quar.*, vol. 14 (Apr., 1899), 240.
1899. The federation of Australia. *Saturday Rev.*, vol. 87 (Apr. 29, 1899), 516.
1899. Australasian extensions of democracy. *Atlantic*, vol. 83 (May, 1899), 577.
1899. How England governs her colonies. T. Brassey. *Independent*, vol. 51 (May 11, 1899), 1273.
1899. Les budgets, les finances des colonies en France et en Angleterre. *Questions Diplomatiques et Coloniales*, vol. 3 (May 1, 1899), 1.
1899. England's decadence in the West Indies. Brooks Adams. *Forum*, vol. 27 (June, 1899), 464.
1899. The merit system in the British colonies. W. MacDonald. *Nation*, vol. 68 (June 1, 1899), 414.
1899. British imperialism and the reform of the civil service. G. E. Howard. *Polit. Sci. Quar.*, vol. 14 (June, 1899), 240.
1899. English imperialism. W. Cunningham. *Atlantic*, vol. 84 (July, 1899), 1.
1899. Britain in Africa—a forecast. M. Seton. *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 7 (July, 1899), 129.
1899. The Commonwealth of Australia. B. R. Wise. *National Rev.*, vol. 33 (July, 1899), 823.
1899. British and Dutch in South Africa. *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 71 (Aug.-Oct., 1899).
1899. British expansion in West Africa. *National Rev.*, vol. 33 (Aug., 1899), 968.
1899. The casus belli in South Africa. E. Robertson. *Nineteenth Century*, vol. 46 (Aug., 1899), 334.
1899. The question of franchise in the Transvaal. *Revue Française* (Aug., 1899).
1899. Lesson in colonial administration; British occupation of Egypt. C. Roberts. *Harper's Mag.*, vol. 99 (Sept., 1899), 631.
1899. British precedent for the government of the Philippines. G. T. Goldie. *Independent*, vol. 51 (Sept. 7, 1899), 2405-2406.
1899. A vindication of the Boers. A. Diplaud. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 169 (Sept., 1899).
1899. Shall we let Hell loose in South Africa? *Am. Rev. of Reviews*, vol. 20 (Oct. 16, 1899), 355.
1899. The inevitable in South Africa. F. E. Garrett. *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 76 (Oct., 1899), 457.
1899. Great Britain and South Africa. *Edinburgh Rev.*, vol. 190 (Oct., 1899), 530.
1899. The Australian Federation from the inside. H. G. Parsons. *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 66 (Oct., 1899), 612.
1899. The South African republic. *Africanus*. *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 8 (Oct., 1899), 338.
1899. The situation in South Africa; a voice from Cape Colony. C. U. Wilson. *Nineteenth Century*, vol. 46 (Oct., 1899), 522.
1899. America and England in the East. Sir C. W. Dilke. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 169 (Oct., 1899), 558.
1899. A Transvaal view of the South African question. F. V. Engelenburg. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 169 (Oct., 1899).

1899. The federation of Australia. *Quar. Rev.*, vol. 190 (Oct. 1899), 289.
1899. British supremacy in South Africa. Edward Dicey. *Quar. Rev.*, vol. 190 (Oct., 1899), 573.
1899. L'arbitrage et le Transvaal. *Revue Bleue*, vol. 12 (Oct. 7, 1899), 474.
1899. The Transvaal twenty years ago. H. Brackenbury. *Blackwood's*, vol. 166 (Nov., 1899), 731.
1899. The British power in South Africa. C. Warren. *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 76 (Nov., 1899), 609.
1899. A South African settlement. (Pro-English.) *Fornightly Rev.*, vol. 66 (Nov., 1899), 721.
1899. Transvaal independence and England's future. Karl Blind. (Pro-South Africa.) *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 66 (Nov., 1899), 856.
1899. British or American colonial government. A. H. Hardings. *Independent*, vol. 51 (Nov. 2, 1899), 2932.
1899. Story of the Transvaal struggle. A. Hastings. *National Mag.*, vol. 11 (Nov., 1899), 125.
1899. The Boer ambition. Douglas Story. (Pro-South African Republic.) *New Century Rev.*, vol. 6 (Nov., 1899), 393.
1899. The Transvaal question; two points of view. England's duty. R. Hoare. The new jingoism. *Liberticus*. *New Century Rev.*, vol. 6 (Nov., 1899), 410.
1899. After the present war. E. Dicey. *Nineteenth Century*, vol. 46 (Nov., 1899), 693.
1899. Native unrest in South Africa. E. Dicey. *Nineteenth Century*, vol. 46 (Nov., 1899), 708.
1899. England and the Transvaal. J. Corbet. (Opposes Boer war.) *Westminster Rev.*, vol. 152 (Nov., 1899), 477.
1899. Liberal imperialism and the Transvaal war. J. G. Rogers. *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 76 (Dec., 1899), 898.
1899. South African question from an engineering standpoint. A. Williams, jr. *Engineering Mag.*, vol. 18 (Dec., 1899), 329.
1899. Some notes on the Transvaal question. J. P. Fitzpatrick. *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 72 (Dec., 1899), 1026.
1899. The war in South Africa. With map. *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 72 (Dec., 1899), 1046.
1899. British government and its relations with subject races. *Independent*, vol. 51 (Dec. 7, 1899), 3304-3306.
1899. South African problems. S. Low; Sidney Shippard. *Nineteenth Century*, vol. 46 (Dec., 1899), 865.
1899. The historical causes of the present war in South Africa. J. Bryce. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 169 (Dec., 1899), 738.
1899. A possible continental alliance against England. D. C. Boulger. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 169 (Dec., 1899), 805.
1899. The South African question. A. Carnegie. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 169 (Dec., 1899), 798.
1899. The Australian constitution. W. G. Beach. *Polit. Sci. Quar.*, vol. 14 (Dec., 1899), 663.
1899. The expansion of Egypt. *Saturday Rev.*, vol. 88 (Dec. 23, 1899), 802.
1900. British policy in South Africa. *Blackwood's Mag.*, vol. 167 (Jan., 1900), 142.
1900. Die britischen Kolonien: Britisch-Indien. A. Zimmermann. *Deutsche Kolonialzeitung*, vol. 17 (Jan. 11, 18, Feb. 1, 1900), 18, 26, 46.
1900. John Hays Hammond on the South African situation. C. B. Going. *Engineering Mag.*, vol. 18 (Jan., 1900), 493.
1900. Issues at stake in South Africa. Dr. Hillier. *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 73 (Jan., 1900), 11.
1900. England and the higher morality. W. Hopkins. *Forum*, vol. 28 (Jan., 1900), 566.
1900. The British system of colonial government. Arnold White. *Harper's Mag.*, vol. 100 (Jan., 1900), 293.
1900. British and Dutch in South Africa. S. Brooks. *Harper's Mag.*, vol. 100 (Jan., 1900), 304.
1900. The defence of the empire and the militia ballot. Sir G. S. Clarke. *Nineteenth Century*, vol. 47 (Jan., 1900), 2.
1900. The South African conspiracy against British rule. A. T. Wirgman. *Nineteenth Century*, vol. 47 (Jan., 1900), 41.
1900. Origin, duration, and outcome of the war. W. J. Leyds. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 170 (Jan., 1900), 6.
1900. England and the Transvaal. Earl Grey. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 170 (Jan., 1900), 9.
1900. England, the Transvaal, and the European powers. H. Delbrück. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 170 (Jan., 1900), 25.
1900. Great Britain on the warpath. V. Holmstrom. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 170 (Jan., 1900), 34.
1900. The empire in action. *Spectator*, vol. 84 (Jan. 6, 1900), 6.
1900. What the crushing of Mahdism signifies. F. C. Penfield. *Forum*, vol. 28 (Feb., 1900), 708.
1900. Whig imperialism. Bolton King. *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 77 (Apr., 1900), 564.
1900. Colonial sovereignty. C. de Thierry. *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 9 (Apr., 1900), 325.
1900. L'impérialisme anglais. V. Bérard. *Revue de Paris*, vol. 7 (Apr., 1900), 491.
1900. L'impérialisme. (English.) C. Béguin. *Revue Encyclopédique*, vol. 10 (Mar., 1900), 190.
1900. The colonies and the mother country. T. Lloyd. *Statist*, vol. 45 (Mar. 24, 1900), 452.
1900. Federation and the future. *Saturday Rev.*, vol. 89 (May 19, 1900), 609.

## BRITISH EUROPEAN COLONIES.

### GIBRALTAR.

- Drinkwater, John. The late siege of Gibraltar. 2d edition. London, 1795: T. Spilsbury, printer, 1786. xxiv, 356 pp. Plates. Charts. 4°.
- Field, H. M. Gibraltar. New York: C. Scribner's Sons, 1888. 139 pp. Illustrated. Map. 8°.
- Gilbard, G. J. Popular history of Gibraltar. Gibraltar, 1881.
- Sayer, Frederick. The history of Gibraltar, and of its political relation to events in Europe. 2d edition. London: Chapman & Hall, 1865. x, viii, 520 pp. 8°.

### MALTA.

- Ballou, M. M. The story of Malta. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1893. ix (1), 318 pp. 12°.
- Caruana, A. A. Report on the Phœnician and Roman antiquities in the group of the islands of Malta. Malta: Government Printing Office, 1882. viii, 168 pp. Plates. Facsimiles.
- Davy, John. Notes and observations on the Ionian islands and Malta. In two volumes. London: Smith, Elder & Co., 1842. Plates. 8°.

- Eton, W. Authentic materials for a history of the people of Malta. London, 1807. 4 vols. 8°.  
 Page, G. A. Guide to the laws and regulations of Malta. Malta, 1892. 139 pp. 8°.  
 Porter, Major W. A history of the Knights of Malta, or the Order of the Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem. London: Longman, Brown, Green, etc., 1858. 2 vols. Plates. Map. 8°.  
 Seddall, H. Malta, past and present. London: Chapman & Hall, 1870. xi, 355 pp. Map. 8°.  
 Tallack, William. Malta under the Phenicians, knights, and English. London: A. W. Bennett, 1861. 322 pp. 12°.

## BRITISH ASIATIC COLONIES.

- Torrens, William M. Empire in Asia; how we came by it. A book of confessions. London: Trubner & Co., 1872. vi, 426 pp. 8°.

## ADEN, PERIM, ETC.

- Hunter, F. M. An account of the British settlement of Aden in Arabia. London, 1877. 8°.  
 Pearce, F. B. Rambles in lion land: three months in Somaliland. London: Chapman & Hall, 1898. 272 pp. Photographs. Map. 8°.  
 Swayne, H. G. C. Seventeen trips through Somaliland, 1885 to 1893. London: R. Ward, 1895. 386 pp. 8°.

## BORNEO.

- Boyle, Frederick. Adventures among the Dyaks of Borneo. London: Hurst & Blackett, 1865. xii, 324 pp. Plate (woodcut). 8°.  
 Hatton, Frank. North Borneo explorations and adventures on the equator. With biographical sketch and notes by Joseph Hatton, and preface by Sir Walter Medhurst. Illustrated. New York: Scribner & Welford, 1886. xiv, (2), 342 pp. 8°.  
 Pryer, Mrs. W. B. A decade in Borneo. London: Hutchinson, 1894. 200 pp. 8°.  
 Roth, H. L. The natives of Sarawak and British North Borneo. London: Truelove & H., 1896. 2 vols. 8°.  
 St. John, Sir Spenser. Rajah Brooke. The Englishman as ruler of an eastern state. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1899. xxiii (i), 302 pp. Portrait. 8°. (Builders of Greater Britain.)  
 Woodford, C. M. A naturalist among the head hunters. (Borneo.) London: Philip, 1890. xii, 249 pp. 8°.

## CEYLON.

- Baker, Sir S. W. Eight years wandering in Ceylon. London: Longman, Brown, Green & Longmans, 1855. xii (2), 423 pp. Colored plates. 8°.  
 Bertolacci, Anthony. A view of the agricultural, commercial, and financial interests of Ceylon. With an appendix containing some of the principal laws and usages of the Candians; port and customs-house regulations; tables of exports and imports; public revenue and expenditure, etc. London: Printed for Black, Parbury & Allen, 1817. (16), 577 pp. Folded map. 8°.  
 Cave, H. W. The ruined cities of Ceylon. Illustrated. London: Low, 1897. 126 pp. 4°.  
 Cumming, Constance Frederica Gordon. Two happy years in Ceylon. Illustrated by the author. In two volumes. William Blackwood & Sons, Edinburgh and London. 1892. 8°.  
 Hatton, J. "The New Ceylon," being a sketch of British North Borneo, or Sabah. With new and original maps corrected to date. London: Chapman & Hall, 1881. xi (1), 209 pp. Plate (woodcut). 12°.  
 Schmidt, E. Ceylon. Berlin: Schall & Grund, 1897. Illus. Map. 8°. (Veröffentlichungen d. Vereins für Bücherfreunde.)  
 Tennant, Sir J. E. Ceylon: An account of the island, physical, historical, and topographical. London: Longmans, 1860. 2 vols. 8°.

## CYPRUS.

- Cesnola, Gen. L. P. Cyprus: Its ancient cities, tombs, and temples. A narrative of researches and excavations during ten years residence in that island. New York, Harper, 1878. xix (1), 456 pp. Illustrations in the text. Plate. 8°.  
 Dixon, William Hepworth. British Cyprus. London: Chapman & Hall, 1879. x (1), 368 pp. Colored plate. 8°.  
 Lang, R. Hamilton. Cyprus: Its history, present resources and future prospects. With two illustrations and four maps. London: Macmillan & Co., 1878. x (2), 370 pp. 8°.  
 Löher, Franz von. Cyprus: historical and descriptive from the earliest times to the present day. Adapted from the German, with additional matter by A. Batson Joyner. New York: R. Worthington, 1875. xvi (2), 324 pp. 8°.  
 Mallock, W. H. In an enchanted isle; or, A winter's retreat in Cyprus. 3d edition. London: R. Bentley, 1892. viii, 407 pp. Plate. 12°.  
 Mariti, Giovanni. Voyages dans l'isle de Chypre, la Syrie et la Palestine; avec l'histoire générale du Levant. Traduits de l'Italien. Paris: Belin, 1791. 2 vols. 12°.  
 ———. Travels through Cyprus, Syria, and Palestine; with a general history of the Levant. Translated from the Italian. London: G. G. J. & J. Robinson, 1791-92. 3 vols. 8°.  
 Robinson, P. Cyprus: Its physical, commercial, economical, and social aspects. London: Clowes, 1878. 8°.

## HONGKONG.

- Dennys, Nicholas B., editor. The treaty ports of China and Japan. A complete guide to the open ports of those countries. With 29 maps and plans. London: Trübner, 1867. viii (2), 668, (2), xxvi pp. 8°.  
 Eitel, E. J. Europe and China. London: Luzac, 1895. 8°.  
 Legge, W. A handbook to Hongkong, being a popular guide to the various places of interest in the colony for the use of tourists. Hongkong: Kelley & Walsh, 1893. 77 pp. 8°.

## INDIA.

- Adye, Sir J. Indian frontier policy; historical sketch. London: Smith & Elder, 1897. 70 pp. 8°.
- Bacon, R. H. Benin, the city of blood. London: E. Arnold, 1897. 152 pp. 8°.
- Ballantine, Henry. On India's frontier; or, Nepal, the Gurkhas' mysterious land. New York: J. S. Tait & Sons, [1895]. (4), 192 pp. 12°.
- Blackwood, Sir F. T. H. T., Earl of Dufferin. Speeches delivered in India, 1884-1888. London: Murray, 1890. 8°.
- Boisragon, A. The Benin massacre. London: Methuen, 1897. 198 pp. 8°.
- Bolts, William. Considerations on Indian affairs, particularly respecting the present state of Bengal and its dependencies, with a map of those countries, chiefly from actual surveys. London: Printed for J. Almon, 1762. xxxi (1) 165 pp. Folded map. 4°.
- Brahmins and pariahs. An appeal by the indigo manufacturers, parliament, and people, for protection against the lieutenant-governor of Bengal: setting forth the proceedings by which this high officer has interfered with the free course of justice, has destroyed capital and trade of British settlers in India. \* \* \* London: James Ridgway, 1861. 210 pp. 8°.
- Chailley-Bert, J. La colonisation de l'Indo-Chine. L'expérience anglaise. Paris: Colin, 1892. xvi; 398 pp. 16°.
- Chesney, Sir George. Indian polity. A view of the systems of administration in India. 3d edition. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1894. xx, 409 pp. Folded map. 8°.
- Clarke, Hyde. Colonization, defence, and railways in our Indian empire. London: John Weale, 1857. viii, 244 pp. Folded map. 8°.
- Coke, Roger. Reflections upon the East-Indy and Royal African companies, with animadversions concerning the naturalization of foreigners. London: Printed in the year 1695. (2), 25 pp. 12°.
- Colonial and Indian exhibition, 1886. Her Majesty's colonies. A series of original papers issued under the authority of the Royal commission. Compiled and edited by A. J. R. Trendall. With introduction by J. R. Seeley. 2d edition. London: W. Clowes, 1886. xxx, 508 pp. Folded maps. 8°.
- Cotton, Sir Arthur Thomas. Public works in India; their importance, with suggestions for their extension and improvement. London, William H. Allen & Co., 1854. (4), 295 pp. 12°.
- Dubois, J. A. Hindu manners, customs, and ceremonies. Translated from the author's later French MS. and edited with notes, corrections, and biography by Henry K. Beauchamp, with a prefatory note by the Right Hon. F. Max Müller and a portrait. 2d edition. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1899. xxxvi, 730 pp. 8°.
- Duff, James Grant. A history of the Mahrattas. In three volumes. London: Printed for Longman, Rees, Orme, Brown & Green, 1826. 8°.
- Durand, A. The making of a frontier. Five years' experiences and adventures in Gilgit, Hunza, Nagor, Chitral, and the eastern Hindu-Kush. London: John Murray, 1899. xvi, 298 pp. Portrait. Map. Illustrations. 8°.
- Elphinstone, Sir Mountstuart. The history of India. London: John Murray, 1841. 2 vols. 8°.
- Engelhardt, Ed. Les protectorats de l'Inde britannique. (In *Revue de Droit Internationale*, vol. 29, pp. 461-473. 1897.)
- Evans, De Lacy. On the practicability of an invasion of British India, and on the commercial and financial prospects and resources of the empire. London: Printed for J. M. Richardson, 1829. lviii, 147 pp. Folded map. 8°.
- Gough, Sir C., and A. D. Innes. The Sikhs and the Sikh wars. Rise, conquest, annexation of Punjab state. London: Innes, 1897. 320 pp. 8°.
- Greville, —. British India analyzed. The provincial and revenue establishments of Tippoo Sultaun and of Mahomedan and British conquerors in Hindostan, stated and considered. London: Printed for R. Faulder, 1795. In 3 parts. 8°.
- Griffin, Sir L. H. The Rajahs of the Punjab; being the history of the principal states in the Punjab. 2d edition. London: Trübner, 1873. 2 vols. 8°.
- Hart, Mrs. E. Picturesque Burma, past and present. London: Dent, 1895. 376 pp. 8°.
- Hough, William. India as it ought to be under the new charter act. Improvements suggested. London: Published for the author by Messrs. W. Thacker & Co., 1853. vii, 196 pp. 8°.
- Hunter, Sir W. W. Annals of rural Bengal. 7th edition. London: Smith, Elder & Co., 1897. 492 pp. 8°.
- A history of British India. Volume 1, to the overthrow of the English in the Spice archipelago. Longmans, Green & Co., London, New York, 1899. (4), 475 pp. Folded map. 8°.
- The Indian empire; its history, people, and products. London: W. H. Allen, 1893. 852 pp. 8°.
- Life of the Earl of Mayo, fourth viceroy of India. London: Smith, Elder & Co., 1875-1876. 2 vols. 8°.
- Hutchinson, H. D. The campaign in Tirah, 1897-98. London: Macmillan, 1898. 266 pp. 8°.
- Ilbert, Sir Courtenay. The government of India. Being a digest of the statute law relating thereto. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1898. xi, 606 pp. 8°.
- India. Department of Finance and Commerce. Prices and wages in India. Calcutta: Printed by the superintendent of government printing, India, 1886. iv, 48 (19) pp. 8°.
- Kaye, Sir John William. The administration of the East India Company; a history of Indian progress. London: Richard Bentley, 1853. x, 712 pp. 8°.
- editor. Selections from papers of Lord Metcalfe, late governor-general of India, governor of Jamaica, and governor-general of Canada. London: Smith, Elder & Co., 1855. xiv, (2), 476 pp. 8°.
- Law, Thomas. A sketch of some late arrangements, and a view of the rising resources in Bengal. London: Printed for John Stockdale, MDCCXCII. (6), xxxvi, 283 pp. 8°.
- Lawrence, Sir Henry Montgomery. Essays, military and political, written in India. London: Wm. H. Allen & Co., 1859. ix (2), 483 pp. 8°. Contents: Military defence of our Indian empire; The kingdom of Oude; Mahratta history and empire; Lord Hardinge's Indian administration; The Indian army; Army reform.
- Lyall, Sir Alfred. The rise of the British dominion in India. London: John Murray, 1893. xv, (1), 288 pp. Folded map. 16°.
- (University extension manuals.)
- Malcolm, Sir John. The government of India. London: John Murray, 1833. (6), 258 pp. 8°.
- Malleson, G. B. History of the Indian mutiny, 1857-1858. 2d edition. London: W. H. Allen, 1878-1880. 3 vols. 8°.
- Mills, Arthur. India in 1858; a summary of the existing administration, political, fiscal, and judicial, of British India, together with the laws and public documents relating thereto, from the earliest to the present time. With a revenue map. London: John Murray, 1858. xvii, 303 pp. 8°.
- Montagne, C. Histoire de la Compagnie des Indes. Paris, 1899. 8°.

- Montalembert, Charles Forbes de Tryon, Comte de. *Un débat sur l'Inde au parlement anglais*. London: W. Jeffs, 1858. (2), 117 pp. 8°.
- Morison, Theodore. *Imperial rule in India, being an examination of the principles proper to the government of dependencies*. London: Constable, 1899. 152 pp. 8°.
- Napier, Sir Charles James. *Defects, civil and military, of the Indian government*. Ed. by Sir W. F. P. Napier. Second edition. London: Charles Westerton, 1853. xii, 437 pp. 8°.
- Phayre, Sir Arthur P. *History of Burma, including Burma proper, Pegu, Taungu, Tenasserim, and Arakan, from the earliest time to the end of the first war with British India*. London: Trubner & Co., 1883. x, (2), 311 pp. Folded maps. 8°.
- Powell, B. H. Baden. *Land revenue and tenure in British India*. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1893. 8°.
- . *The land systems of British India*. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1892. 3 vols. 8°.
- Rickards, Robert. *India; or facts submitted to illustrate the character and condition of the native inhabitants, with suggestions for reforming the present system of government*. In two volumes. London: Published by Smith, Elder & Co., 1829. 8°.
- Roberts, Frederick Sleight, Lord. *Forty-one years in India, from subaltern to commander in chief. With portraits and maps*. In two volumes. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1898. 8°.
- Royle, John Forbes. *Essay on the productive resources of India*. London: Wm. H. Allen, 1840. x, 451 pp. 8°.
- Russell, Francis. *A short history of the East India Company*. The 2d edition, with some additions. London: Printed for John Sewell, 1793. (6), 95 pp. 4°.
- St. John, Horace. *History of the British conquests in India*. In two volumes. London: Colburn & Co., 1852. 12°.
- Shore, Frederick John. *Notes on Indian affairs*. In two volumes. London: John W. Parker, 1837. 8°.
- Smith, George. *Twelve Indian statesmen*. London: John Murray, 1897. viii, (2), 326 pp. 8°. Contents: Charles Grant; Sir Henry Lawrence; John, Lord Lawrence of the Punjab; Sir James Outram; Sir Donald McLeod; Sir Henry Marion Durand; Lieut. Gen. Colin Mackenzie; Sir Herbert B. Edwardes; John Clark Marshman; Sir Henry Sumner Maine; Sir Henry Ramsay; Sir Charles N. Aitchison.
- Strachey, Sir John. *India*. New and revised edition. London: Kegan Paul, French, Trubner & Co., 1894. 411 pp. Folded map. 8°.
- Strachey, John, and Richard Strachey. *The finances and public works of India from 1869 to 1881*. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co., 1882. xx, 467, (1), pp.
- Temple, Sir Richard. *Men and events of my time in India*. London: John Murray, 1882. xvii, (1), 526 pp. 8°.
- Thomason, James. *Selections from the records of the government, Northwest provinces*. In two volumes. Vol. 1. Calcutta: Printed by J. Thomas, 1856. viii, 516 pp. 4°.
- Thorburn, S. S. *Bannú; or, our Afghan frontier*. London: Trubner & Co., 1876. x, (2), 480 pp. Map. 8°.
- Thornton, Edward. *India; its state and prospects*. London: Parbury, Allen & Co., 1835. xx, 354 pp. 8°.
- Thornton, T. H. *General Sir Richard Meade and the feudatory states of central and southern India; a record of 43 years as soldier, political officer, and administrator*. London: Longmans, 1898. 418 pp. Illus. Portrait. Map. 8°.
- True declaration of the news that came out of the East Indies with the pinnace called the Hare, which arrived in Texel in June, 1624, concerning a conspiracy discovered in the island of Amboyna, and the punishment following thereupon in March, 1624, comprehended in a letter missing, and sent from a friend in the Low Countries to the friend of note in England*. Printed anno., 1624. (2), 20 pp. Sq. 16°. Bound with "Answer to the Hollandese declaration."
- Tupper, Charles Lewis. *Our Indian protectorate. An introduction to the study of the relations between the British government and its Indian feudatories*. London: Longmans, 1893. xvi, 426 pp. L. 8°.
- Tucker, Henry St. George. *Memorials of Indian government; being a selection from the papers of Henry St. George Tucker*. London: Richard Bentley, 1853. xii, 507 pp. 8°.
- Valbezan, E. de. *Les Anglais et l'Inde. Avec notes, pièces justificatives et tableaux statistiques*. Paris: Lévy frères, 1857. (2), 442 pp. 8°.
- Warburton, Sir Robert. *Eighteen years in the Khyber, 1879-1898*. London: Murray, 1900. (18), 351 pp. Illus. Portrait. Folded map. 8°. "Sir Robert Warburton represents a class of Indian administrators now almost extinct. He was one of the last survivors of the school associated with the venerated names of Nicholson, the Lawrences, and all that group of worthies who laid deep and strong the foundations of our rule over the warlike races whom each successive wave of conquest brought within our influence—men who ruled by force of character, sympathy, courage, and all the personal qualities which in settled times and places are replaced by code and section and the rules of a dozen departments."
- Wheeler, J. T. *The history of India from the earliest ages*. London: Trubner & Co., 1869-1881. 4 vols. 8°.
- Williams, Sir Monier-Monier. *Modern India and the Indians*. London: Trubner & Co., 1878. (4), 244 pp. 8°.
- . *Brahminism and Hindooism. Religious thought and life in India*. 2d edition. London: Murray, 1887. 8°.

## STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

- Bishop, Isabella L. Bird. *The golden Chersonese and the way thither. With map and illustrations*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1883. xiv, (2), 483 pp. 8°.
- Boulger, D. C. *Life of Sir Stamford Raffles*. London: Marshall & Son, 1897. 420 pp. 8°.
- Clifford, H. *In court and kampong: tales and sketches of native life in the Malay peninsula*. London: G. Richards, 1897. 268 pp. 8°.
- Dennys, N. B. *A descriptive dictionary of British Malaya*. London: China T., 1894. 8°.
- Innes, Mrs. *The Chersonese with the gilding off*. London: Bentley, 1885. 2 vols. 8°.
- Rathbone, Ambrose B. *Camping and tramping in Malaya. Fifteen years' pioneering in the native states of the Malay peninsula*. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co., 1898. x, (2), 339 pp. Plates. Folded map. 8°.
- Swettenham, F. A. *Malay sketches*. London: Lane, 1895. 8°.
- Wallace, A. R. *The Malay archipelago; land of the orang-utan*. New edition. London: Macmillan, 1898. 515 pp. Plate. Folded maps. 8°.

## BRITISH AFRICAN COLONIES.

## BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA.

- British Africa. With 4 maps. London: K. Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., 1899. xiii, (1), 413 pp. 8°. (British Empire series. 2.) Contents: Cape of Good Hope, by Sir D. Tennant; Rhodesia, by C. W. Boyd; Rhodesia, by H. M. Hole; Rhodesia, by W. E. L.; Bechuanaland, by Sir S. G. A. Shippard; The Transvaal, by W. Y. Campbell; Natal, by F. R. Stratham; The Highlands of Natal, by E. McMaster; Zululand, by Miss Colenso; Briton, Boer and Black in South Africa, by J. A. Liebmann; Native races of South Africa and their polity; Natives under British rule in Africa, by R. H. Fox Bourne; The gold era in South Africa, by W. B. Worsfold; British Central Africa, by A. Werner; Protectorate of Zanzibar, by W. K. Firminger; East Africa protectorate, by H. S. Newman; Uganda, by Sir H. Colville; What England has done for Egypt, by A. Nichols; District of the Niger, by P. A. Bennett; Our West African Colonies, by Sir W. H. Quayle-Jones; Life in West Africa, by M. Kingsley; Mauritius, by Condé-Williams; Appendix.
- Brown, William Harvey. On the South African frontier. The adventures and observations of an American in Mashonaland and Matabeleland. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1899. xxii, (2), 430 pp. Illustrations and folded maps. 8°.
- Bryce, James. Impressions of South Africa. New York: Century Co., 1897. xvi, (2), 499 pp. 8 folded maps. 8°.
- Same. 3d edition with a new prefatory chapter dealing with the events which have induced the present crisis. London: Macmillan, 1899. lxiii, 499 pp. 8°.
- Cloete, Henry. The story of the great Boer trek, and the origin of the South African republics. London: Murray, 1899. xvi, 196 pp. 8°.
- Greswell, William Henry Parr. Geography of Africa south of the Zambesi. With notes on the industries, wealth, and social progress of the states and peoples. With three maps. Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1892. xii, 400 pp. 12°. Native states and protectorates, pp. 285-307.
- Hertslet, Sir Edward. The map of Africa by treaty. 2d and revised edition. London: Harrison & Sons, 1896. 3 vols. 8°.
- Johnston, Sir Harry H. A history of the colonization of Africa by alien races. With eight maps by the author and J. G. Bartholomew. Cambridge: University Press, 1899. xii, (2), 319 pp. 8°.
- Keltie, John Scott. The partition of Africa. With 24 maps. 2d edition. London: Edward Stanford, 1895. xv, (1), 564 pp. 8°.
- Latimer, Elizabeth Wormeley. Europe in Africa in the nineteenth century. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co., 1895. 451 pp. Portraits. 8°.
- Mackenzie, John. Central Africa; extension of British influence in transcolonial territories. (In Manchester Geographical Society. Journal, vol. 4, pp. 201-231. Manchester, 1888.)
- Austral Africa; losing it, or ruling it, being incidents and experiences in Bechuanaland, Cape Colony, and England. London: S. Low, Marston, Searle & Rivington, 1887. 2 vols. Plates, port., illus. 8°.
- Nicholson, G. Fifty years in South Africa; recollections and reflections of a veteran pioneer. London: W. W. Greener, 1898. 310 pp. 8°.
- Sanderson, E. Africa in the nineteenth century. London: Seeley, 1898. 346 pp. 8°.
- Stanley, Henry M., and others. Africa; its partition and its future. With an introduction by Harry Thurston Peck. With colored map. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1898. xvii, (3), 263 pp. 12°. Contents: Introduction, by H. T. Peck; Africa in the twentieth century, by H. M. Stanley; The partition of Africa, by J. Scott Keltie; The British empire in Africa, by W. T. Stead; The German empire in Africa, by F. Bley; The French empire in Africa, by Paul Guieysse; The independent Kongo State, by Charles Lemair; England, the Sudan, and France, by Henry Norman; The future of Nigeria, by Sir George Taubman-Goldie; The kingdom of Uganda, by F. D. Lugard; Abyssinia and its people, by T. C. S. Speedy; The republic of Liberia—its future, by J. C. Hartzell; The commerce, railways, and telegraphs of Africa, by Stanley Edward Heawood; The maps of Africa, by H. K. Carroll.
- Statham, F. R. Blacks, Boers, and British. London: Macmillan, 1881. viii, 271 pp. 8°.
- South Africa as it is. London: Unwin, 1897. 8°.
- Theal, George McCall. Compendium of the history and geography of South Africa. 3d edition, revised and enlarged. London: Edward Stanford, 1878. viii, (2), 208 pp. 8°.
- History of the emigrant Boers of South Africa. \* \* \* 2d edition. London, 1888. 8°.
- History of South Africa, 1486-1691. London, 1888. 8°.
- History of South Africa, 1691-1795. London, 1888. 8°.
- History of South Africa, 1795-1834. London, 1891. 8°.
- History of South Africa. The republics and native territories, 1854-1872. London, 1889. 448 pp. 8°.
- History of South Africa under the administration of the Dutch India Company. \* \* \* London, 1897. 2 vols. 8°.
- South Africa. \* \* \* New York: Putnam's Sons, 1894. Illust. Map. 12°. (Story of the Nations series.)
- South Africa: The Cape Colony, Natal, Orange Free State, South African Republic, Rhodesia, and all other territories south of the Zambesi. 4th edition. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 462 pp. 8°. (Story of the Nations series.)
- Trollope, Anthony. South Africa. In two volumes. London: Chapman & Hall, 1878. 2 vols. 8°. Contents: 1. South Africa; Cape Colony; Natal. 2. The Transvaal; Griqualand West; The Orange Free State; Native territories.
- Van Oetroy, F. Conventions internationales définissant les limites actuelles des possessions, protectorats et spheres d'influence en Afrique. Bruxelles: Schepens, 1898. 518 pp. 8°.
- Voigt, J. C. Fifty years of the history of the republic in South Africa (1795-1845). London: T. F. Unwin, 1899. 2 vols. Maps. 8°.
- Wilkinson, Sir Spencer. British policy in South Africa. London: Low, 1899. viii, 114 pp. 12°.
- Wilmot, Alexander. The story of the expansion of southern Africa. 2d edition, with supplementary chapter, index, special map, and new appendix. London: T. Fisher Unwin, 1895. xxvii, (1), 277 pp. 8°.
- Worsfold, William Basil. South Africa. A study in colonial administration and development. London: Methuen, 1897. 266 pp. 12°. Contents: Early history; The Kafir wars; Sir Bartle Frere and federation; The Boers; Natal and the Kafir problem; The Bechuanaland settlement; Agricultural and pastoral resources; The diamond mines; Gold mining.
- South Africa. A study in colonial administration and development. 2d edition, revised. London: Methuen & Co., 1897. xii, 308 pp. Folded map. 8°.
- Younghusband, Francis E. South Africa of to-day. With illustrations. London: Macmillan & Co., 1898. vii, (1), 177 pp. Plates. 8°.



## BASUTOLAND.

- Barkly, Mrs. Among Boers and Basutos. The Roxburgh Press, Westminster, [1896]. 257 pp. 12°.  
 Widdicombe, J. Fourteen years in Basutoland. London, [1891]. 306 pp. Illustrations. 12°.

## CAPE COLONY.

- Campbell, C. T. British South Africa. A history of the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, from its conquest, 1795, to the settlement of Albany by the British emigration of 1819 (A. D. 1795-1825). London: Haddon, 1897. 230 pp. 8°.  
 Wallace, R. Farming industries of Cape Colony. London: P. S. King & Son, 1896. Illustrations. Maps. 8°.  
 Weber, Ernst von. Vier Jahre in Afrika, 1871-75. Mit Abbildungen in Holzschnitten, u. s. w. Leipzig: Brockhaus, 1878. 2 vols. 8°.

## MASHONALAND.

- Bent, J. Theodore. The Ruined Cities of Mashonaland. Being a record of excavation and exploration in 1891. With a chapter on the orientation and mensuration of the temples, by R. M. W. Swan. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1892. xi, (1), 376 pp. 3 folded maps and plans. 8°.  
 Bruce, G. W. H. Knight. Memories of Mashonaland. London: E. Arnold, 1895. 99 pp. 8°.  
 Waal, D. C. de. With Rhodes in Mashonaland. Translated from the original Dutch by Jan H. Hofmeyer de Waal. Cape Town: J. C. Juta & Co., 1896. xix, (1), 351 pp. Portrait. 12°.

## MATABELELAND.

- Laing, D. T. The Matabele Rebellion, 1896. London: Dean, 1897. 328 pp. 8°.  
 Plumer, H. An Irregular Corps in Matabeleland. London: Paul, 1897. 258 pp. 8°.  
 Powell, R. S. S. Baden-. The Matabele Campaign, 1896; being a narrative of the campaign in suppressing the native rising in Matabeleland and Mashonaland. London: Methuen, 1897. 514 pp. Illustrations. 8°.  
 Sykes, F. W. With Plumer in Matabeleland. Sketches by F. V. Worthington. Photographs by author. London: Constable, 1897. 304 pp. 8°.

## MAURITIUS.

- Decotter, N. Géographie de Maurice et de ses dépendances. Mauritius, 1891. vii, 123 pp. 8°.  
 Épinay, Adrien d'. Renseignements pour servir à l'histoire de l'Île de France jusqu'à l'année 1810, inclusivement. Mauritius, 1890. 8°.  
 Flemyng, F. P. Mauritius, or the Isle of France. London: Soc. Prom. of Chr. Knowledge, 1862. 8°.  
 Grant, C., Viscount de Vaux. The history of Mauritius, or the Isle of France, and the neighboring islands \* \* \* Illustrated with maps. London: G. and W. Nichol, 1801. xxi, (1), 571 pp. Folded plan. 2 folded maps. 4°.  
 Unienville, Baron d'. Statistique de l'Île Maurice et ses dépendances, suivie d'une notice historique sur cette colonie et d'un Essai sur l'Île de Madagascar. Paris: G. Barba, 1838. 3 vols. Plates. 8°.

## NATAL.

- Bird, John. The annals of Natal. 1495-1845. Pietermaritzburg: P. Davis & Sons, 1888. 2 vols. 8°.  
 Brooks, Henry. Natal; a history and description of the colony. London: L. Reeve & Co., 1876. viii, (4), 336 pp. Photographs. 8°.  
 Holden, William C. History of the colony of Natal, South Africa. To which is added, an appendix containing a brief history of the Orange River sovereignty, etc. With 3 maps and 19 illustrations. London: A. Heylin, 1855. viii, 463 pp. 8°.  
 Ingram, J. F. Natalia: a condensed history of the explorations and colonization of Natal and Zululand. London: Marshall, 1897. 212 pp. 4°.  
 Peace, W. Our colony of Natal. 2d edition. London: E. Stanford, 1885. 201 pp. 8°.  
 Russell, R. Natal, the land and its story. Pietermaritzburg, 1897. 8°.  
 Shooter, Joseph. The Kafirs of Natal and the Zulu country. London: E. Stanford, 1857. x, 403 pp. Plates (lithographs). 8°.

## RHODESIA.

- Knight, E. F. Rhodesia of to-day. London: Longmans, 1895. vii, (1), 151 pp. Folded map. 12°.  
 Selous, F. C. Sunshine and storm in Rhodesia. London: R. Ward, 1896. 320 pp. Illus. Maps. 8°.  
 Tangye, H. Lincoln. In new South Africa; travels in the Transvaal and Rhodesia. With 26 illustrations. London: Horace Cox, 1896. viii, 431 pp. Plates (photogravures). 8°.  
 Thomson, H. C. Rhodesia and its government. With illustrations. London: Smith, Elder & Co., 1898. xi, (3), 352 pp. Folded map. 8°.

## BRITISH WEST AFRICA.

- Banbury, G. A. L. Sierra Leone; or, the white man's grave. London: Sonnenschein, 1888. 296 pp. 8°.  
 Ellis, A. B. The Ewe-speaking peoples of the Slave Coast of West Africa: their religion, manners, customs, laws, languages, etc. London: Chapman & Hall, 1890. viii, 331 pp. Folded map. 8°.  
 Ellis, A. B. The Yoruba-speaking peoples of the Slave Coast of West Africa. London: Chapman, 1894. 402 pp. 8°.  
 Freeman, R. A. Travels and life in Ashanti and Jaman. With 100 illustrations by the author. London: Constable, 1898. 580 pp. Maps. 8°.  
 Griffith, R. Sierra Leone, past, present, and future. (In Royal Colonial Institute. Proceedings, vol. 13. pp. 56-98. London, 1882.)  
 Ingham, E. G. Sierra Leone after a hundred years. London: Seeley, 1894. 368 pp. 8°.  
 Jobson, R. The golden trade; or, A discovery of the River Gambia and the golden trade of the Ethiopians. London: N. Okes, 1623. (2), 166 pp. Sm. 4°.

- Kemp, D. *Nine years at the Gold Coast*. London: Macmillan, 1898. 294 pp. 8°.
- Kingsley, Mary H. *Travels in West Africa, Congo François, Corisco, Cameroons*. London: Macmillan, 1897. xvi, 743 pp. Plates. 8°.
- *The story of West Africa*. London: H. Marshall, 1899. 170 pp. 8°.
- *West African studies*. With illustrations and map. London: Macmillan & Co., 1899. xxiv, 639 pp. 8°. "Miss Kingsley's indictment of the Crown colony system, and the sketch which she submits of an alternative plan for the government of the colonies, at present administered as Crown colonies, constitute a brilliant contribution to the discussion as to the best method of governing tropical colonies."—*Saturday Review*.
- Macdonald, G. *The Gold Coast, past and present*. London: Longmans, 1898. 364 pp. Illustrated. 8°.
- Mockler-Ferryman, A. F. *The imperial library. Imperial Africa, the rise, progress, and future of the British possessions in Africa*. Vol. 1. *British West Africa*. London: The Imperial Press, 1898. xvi, 512 pp. Maps and illustrations. 8°.
- Poole, Thomas Eyre. *Life, scenery, and customs in Sierra Leone and the Gambia*. London, 1850. 2 vols. 12°.
- Powell, R. S. Baden-. *The downfall of Prempeh; a day of life with the native levy in Ashanti*. London: Methuen, 1896. 200 pp. Illustrations. 8°.
- Sibthorpe, A. B. C. *The history of Sierra Leone*. 2d edition. Elliot Stock: London, [1881]. 86 pp. 12°.
- Wadstrom, C. B. *An essay on colonization, particularly applied to the western coast of Africa, with some free thoughts on cultivation and commerce; also, brief description of the colonies already formed, or attempted in Africa, including those of Sierra Leone and Bulama*. In two parts. Illustrated with a nautical map (from lat. 5° 30' to lat. 14° N.) and other plates. London: Printed for the author by Darton & Harvey, 1794. (8), iv, 196, (2), 363, (27) pp. Folded maps. 4°.

## BRITISH EAST AFRICA.

- Fitz-Gerald, W. W. A. *Travels in the coastlands of British East Africa, and the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba; agricultural resources; general characteristics*. London: Chapman, 1898. Illustrations. Maps. 8°.
- Junker, W. *Travels in Africa, 1882-86*. Translated by A. H. Keane. London: Chapman, 1892. 586 pp. 8°.
- Lugard, F. D. *The rise of our East African empire. Early efforts in Nyassaland*. With 130 illustrations; also 14 specially prepared maps. In 2 vols. William Blackwood & Sons, Edinburgh and London, 1893. 8°.
- Macdonald, J. R. L. *Soldiering and surveying in British East Africa, 1891-94*. London: E. Arnold, 1897. 340 pp. 8°.
- McDermott, P. L. *British East Africa; Ibea*. Work of the British East Africa Company. London: Chapman, 1895. 632 pp. 8°.
- Selous, F. C. *Travel and adventure in Southeast Africa*. London: R. Ward, 1893. 503 pp. 8°.
- Stanley, H. M. *In darkest Africa; or, The quest, rescue, and retreat of Emin, governor of Equatoria*. With 150 woodcut illustrations and maps. In two volumes. London: Sampson Low, Marston, Searle & Rivington, 1890. 8°.
- Thomson, Joseph. *Through Masai land, snow-clad volcanic mountains, and strange tribes of Africa*. New edition. London: Low, 1895. 8°.

## NIGER PROTECTORATE.

- Bindloss, H. *In the Niger country*. London: Blackwood, 1899. 348 pp. Map. 8°.
- Trotter, J. K. *The Niger sources*. (In *Geographical journal*, vol. 10, 237-259; 386-401. London, 1897.)
- Vandeleur, S. *Campaigning on the Upper Nile and Niger*. London: Methuen, 1898. 348 pp. 8°.

## EGYPT AND THE SOUDAN.

- Alford, H. S. L., and W. D. Sword. *The Egyptian Soudan: its loss and recovery*. London: Macmillan, 1898. 352 pp. Plates. Maps. Portraits. 8°.
- Barré, P. *Fachoda et le Bahr-el-Ghazal*. Paris: Plon, 1898. 32 pp. 12°.
- Bennett, Ernest N. *The Downfall of the Dervishes; being a sketch of the final Soudan campaign of 1898*. With photogravure portrait of the Sirdar, maps, and plans. 2d edition. Methuen & Co., London, 1899. xii, 255 pp. 8°.
- Boulger, D. C. *The life of Gordon*. London: Unwin, 1897. 2 vols. Portraits. 8°.
- Burleigh, Bennet. *Sirdar and Khalifa; or, The re-conquest of the Soudan*. 1898. With portraits, illustrations, maps, and plan of battle. 2d edition. London: Chapman & Hall, 1898. xiv, 305 pp. 8°.
- Cameron, D. A. *Egypt in the nineteenth century; or, Mehemet Ali and his successors until the British occupation in 1882*. London: Smith, Elder & Co., 1898. xv, (1), 280 pp. Folded map. 12°.
- Casati, G. *Ten years in Equatoria*. Translated by Mrs. J. Randolph Clay. London: Warne, 1898. 526 pp. 150 illustrations. Map. 8°.
- Churchill, Winston Spencer. *The river war: an historical account of the reconquest of the Soudan*. Edited by Col. F. Rhodes. In two volumes. Longmans, Green & Co., London, 1899. Plates. Maps. 8°.
- Gessi, Romolo. *Seven years in the Soudan: being a record of explorations, adventures, and campaigns* \* \* \* London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co., 1892. xxiv, 467 pp. Illustrations. Map. Portrait. 8°.
- Mieville, Sir Walter. *Under Queen and Khedive: the autobiography of an Anglo-Egyptian official*. London: Heineman, 1899. viii, 306 pp. Portrait. 8°.
- Milner, Sir Alfred. *England in Egypt*. 6th edition, revised. With an additional chapter bringing down the work to the end of 1898. London: Edwin Arnold, 1899. 418 pp. 8°.
- Penfield, Frederic Courtland. *Present-day Egypt*. Illustrated. New York: The Century Company, 1899. xiii, (2), 372 pp. Plates. 8°.
- Slatin, Rudolf C., pasha. *Fire and sword in the Soudan. A personal narrative of fighting and serving the Dervishes. 1879-1895*. Translated by F. R. Wingate. Illustrated by R. Talbot Kelly. Edward Arnold, London, New York, 1896. xviii, (2), 636 pp. 1 folded plan. 1 folded map. 8°.
- Steevens, G. W. *Egypt in 1898*. With illustrations. W. Blackwood & Sons, Edinburgh, 1898. x, (2), 283 pp. 8°.
- *With Kitchener to Khartum*. W. Blackwood & Sons, Edinburgh, 1898. Maps and plans. 8°.
- Stuhlmann, F. *Mit Emin Pasha ins Herz von Africa*. Berlin: Reimer, 1894. 2 vols. Plates. Map. 8°.
- Traill, H. D. *Lord Cromer: a biography*. London: Bliss, 1897. 352 pp. Illus. 8°.
- Wallace, D. M. *Egypt and the Egyptian question*. London: Macmillan & Co., 1883. x, (2), 523 pp. 8°.

- White, A. Silva. The expansion of Egypt under Anglo-Egyptian condominium. Methuen & Co., London, 1899. xv, (1), 483 pp. Folded maps. 8°.
- Wilson, C. T., and R. W. Felkin. Uganda and the Egyptian Soudan. In 2 volumes. London: S. Low, etc., 1882. Portrait. Folded maps. 12°.
- Wingate, F. R. Mahdism and the Egyptian Sudan. London: Macmillan, 1891. 630 pp. 30 maps and plans. 8°.
- Worsfold, W. B. The redemption of Egypt. With illustrations. London: George Allen, 1899. xvii, (1), 353 pp. Colored plates. 8°.

## BRITISH SOMALILAND.

- Pearce, F. B. Rambles in lion land; three months' leave passed in Somaliland. London: Chapman and Hall, 1898. xi, (1), 260 pp. Photographs. Map. 8°.
- Peel, C. V. A. Somaliland; being an account of two expeditions into the far interior, together with a complete list of every animal and bird known to inhabit that country, and a list of reptiles collected by the author. London: F. A. Robinson, 1899. 362 pp. 8°.
- Potocki, Józef, Count. Sport in Somaliland; being an account of a hunting trip to that region. Translated from the Polish by Jeremiah Curtin. London: R. Ward, 1899. 142 pp. Plates. F°.
- Swayne, H. G. C. Seventeen trips through Somaliland, 1885 to 1893. London: R. Ward, 1895. 386 pp. 8°.

## BRITISH AUSTRALASIA.

## AUSTRALASIA.

- Australian Handbook (incorporating New Zealand, Fiji, and New Guinea), shippers', importers', and professional directory and business guide for 1900. London, etc.: Gordon & Gotch. 672 pp. Maps, plans, and illustrations. 8°.
- Backhouse, James. A narrative of a visit to the Australian colonies. Illustrated by three maps, fifteen etchings, and several woodcuts. London: Hamilton, Adams & Co., 1843. xviii, 560, cxliv pp. 8°.
- Bannow, W. The colony of Victoria, socially and materially. London: Robertson, 1897. 314 pp. Map. 8°.
- Becke, Louis, and Walter Jeffery. Admiral Phillip, the founding of New South Wales. New York: Longmans, 1899. xx, 336 pp. Portrait. 12°. (Builders of Greater Britain.)
- Bicknell, A. C. Travel and adventure in northern Queensland. Illustrated. London: Longmans, 1895. 8°.
- Bonwick, J. The lost Tasmanian race. London: Low, 1884. 8°.
- Byrne, J. C. Twelve years' wanderings in the British colonies, from 1835 to 1847. In two volumes. London: Richard Bentley, 1848. 8°.
- Callandar, John. Terra Australis Cognita; or, Voyages to the southern hemispheres during the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries. Edinburgh: A. Donaldson, 1766-1768. 3 vols. 8°.
- Calvert, A. F. The discovery of Australia. With maps, etc. London: Philip, 1893. 4°.
- The exploration of Australia, from 1844 to 1896. London: Philip, 1895-96. 2 vols. 4°.
- My fourth tour in West Australia. Illustrated by W. Hodgson. London: Heinemann, 1897. 388 pp. 4°.
- Western Australia and its gold field. London: Philip, 1893. 8°.
- Western Australia: its history and progress. London: Simpkin, 1894. 8°.
- Western Australia and its welfare. 1893-94. London: Simpkin, 1895. 8°.
- Carnegie, D. W. Spinifex and sand; a narrative of five years' pioneering and exploration in Western Australia. London: C. Arthur Pearson, 1898. 470 pp. 8°.
- Craig, G. C. The federal defence of Australasia. London: Clowes, 1897. 368 pp. 8°.
- Dalrymple, A. An historical collection of the several voyages and discoveries in the South Pacific ocean. London: 1770-71. 2 vols. 4°.
- Epps, W. The land systems of Australasia. London: Swan Sonnenschein, 1894. 8°.
- Favenc, Ernest. The history of Australian exploration from 1788 to 1888. Compiled from state documents, private papers, and the most authentic sources of information. Issued under the auspices of the governments of the Australian colonies. London: Griffith, Farran, Okeden & Welsh, [1888]. 474 pp. Map. L. 8°.
- Western Australia: its past history: its present trade and resources; its future position in the Australian group. Sydney, 1887. 4°.
- Fenton, James. A history of Tasmania, from its discovery, in 1642, to the present time. With map, and portraits of aborigines. Hobart, 1884. xvi, 434, (28) pp. 8°.
- Finn, E. Chronicles of early Melbourne, 1835-52. Historical, anecdotal, and personal. With portraits and illustrations. Melbourne, 1888. 2 vols. 4°.
- Firth, J. C. Nation making. A story of New Zealand. Savagism v. civilization. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1890. viii, 402 pp. Plate. 12°.
- Forrest, John. Explorations in Australia: I. Explorations in search of Dr. Leichardt and party. II. From Perth to Adelaide, around the great Australian bight. III. From Champion Bay across the desert to the telegraph and to Adelaide. With an appendix on the condition of western Australia. Illustrated by G. F. Angas. London: Sampson Low, Marston, Low & Searle, 1875. vii, 351 pp. Portraits, plates, folded maps. 8°.
- Galloway, W. J. Advanced Australia; or, The eve of federation. London: Methuen, 1899. 206 pp. 8°.
- Gisborne, W. The colony of New Zealand: its history, etc., to 1890. London: Petherick, 1891. 8°.
- New Zealand rulers and statesmen, 1840-97. Revised and enlarged edition. London: Lowe, 1897. 8°.
- Griffin, G. W. New South Wales; her commerce and resources. Sydney: Charles Potter, 1888. (8), 293 pp. L. 8°.
- Harcus, W. South Australia: its history, resources, and productions. Illustrated from photographs taken in the colony. With maps. London: S. Low, Marston, Searle & Rivington, 1876. xv, (1), 432 pp. Folded maps. 8°.
- Harper, A. P. Pioneer work in the Alps of New Zealand. A record of the first exploration of chief glaciers and ranges of southern Alps. London: Unwin, 1897. 352 pp. Maps. Illustrations. 8°.
- Hart, F. Western Australia in 1893. London: Stanford, 1894. 8°.
- Hay, W. D. Brighter Britain; or, Settler and Maori in northern New Zealand. London: Bentley, 1882. 2 vols. 8°.
- Hocken, T. M. Contributions to the early history of New Zealand. (Settlement of Otago.) London: Low, 1898. 358 pp. Portraits and illustrations. 8°.

- Hodder, E. *The history of South Australia*. London: Low, 1893. 2 vols. 8°.
- editor. *The founding of South Australia, as recorded in the journals of Mr. Robert Gouger*. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co., 1898. vi, (2), 239 pp. Portrait. 12°.
- Hutchinson, Frank. *New South Wales; the mother colony of the Australias*. Sydney: Charles Potter, 1896. xi, 369 pp. Plates. Folded maps. 8°. Contents: Introduction, by the editor (Frank Hutchinson); Physical geography and climate, by H. C. Russell; The constitution and laws, by Pitt Corbett; The laws relating to Crown lands, by H. A. G. Curry; Commercial relations, by R. L. Nash; Import trade, by W. G. Rendall; Wool industry, by Henry W. Wright; Pastures, grasses, and forage plants, by Fred Turner; Live stock, by Alexander Bruce; Agriculture, by J. L. Thompson; Fruit culture, by Albert H. Benson; Viticulture, by P. F. Adams; Sugar growing and its manufacture, by W. S. Campbell; Horticulture, by W. S. Campbell; Silk culture, by W. S. Campbell; Tobacco culture, by Samuel Lamb; Timbers of the colony, by J. H. Maiden; Vegetable products, by J. H. Maiden; The dairying industry, by A. A. Dunncliff; Meat export trade, by Cuthbert Fetherstonhaugh; Fish industry, by J. Douglas Ogilby; Mining industry, by W. H. J. Snee; Collieries, by John Mackenzie; Water conservation, irrigation, and drainage, by H. G. McKinney; The rise and progress of artesian boring, by J. W. Boulbee; Sydney and principal towns, by Frank J. Donohue; Railways and tramways, by R. L. Nash; Postal and telegraphic service, by S. H. Lambton; Public works, including roads and bridges, by J. W. Holliman; Our social conditions, by Frank J. Donohue; Literature and art, by Frank Hutchinson; Religious institutions, by Frank J. Donohue; Education, by R. N. Morris; The manufacturing interest, by Frank J. Donohue; Federation, by Edward Dowling. Appendices: Historical data, by F. M. Bladen; From Europe to Sydney, and how to live there, by W. G. Rendall.
- Jenks, E. *A history of the Australasian colonies from their foundation to the year 1893*. Stereotyped edition. Cambridge: University Press, 1897. 368 pp. 8°. (Cambridge historical series.)
- Labillière, F. P. de. *Early history of the colony of Victoria, from its discovery to its establishment as a self-governing province of the British Empire*. London: Sampson Low, Marston, Searle & Rivington, 1878. 2 vols. 12°.
- Lang, G. S. *The aborigines of Australia, in their original condition and in their relations with the white men*. A lecture \* \* \* revised and enlarged, with an appendix. Melbourne, 1865. 867 pp. 8°.
- Lang, John Dunmore. *An historical and statistical account of New South Wales; including a visit to the gold regions, and a description of the mines; with an estimate of the probable results of the great discovery*. 3d edition. London: Longman, Brown, Green & Longmans, 1852. 2 vols. 12°.
- *Freedom and independence for the golden lands of Australia; the right of the colonies, and the interest of Britain and of the world*. London: Longman, Brown, Green & Longmans, 1852. xvi, 334 pp. Map. 12°.
- Lloyd, G. T. *Thirty-three years in Tasmania and Victoria; being the actual experience of the author, interspersed with historic jottings, narratives* \* \* \* London, 1862. xii, 496, 19 pp. 8°.
- Lyne, C. E. *Life of Sir Henry Parkes, Australian statesman*. London: Unwin, 1897. 582 pp. Illustrated. 8°.
- Mackay, G. *History of Bendigo*. Melbourne, 1891. 195 pp. 8°.
- Mennell, P. *The coming colony; practical notes on western Australia*. London: Hutchinson, 1892. 8°.
- *Australasian biography, eminent colonists, 1855-92*. London: Hutchinson, 1892. 8°.
- Napier, Charles James. *Colonization, particularly in southern Australia; with some remarks on small farms and overpopulation*. London: T. and W. Boone, 1835. xxxii, 268 pp. 12°.
- Newland, S. *The far north country*. Adelaide, 1887. 8°.
- New South Wales Historical Records*. Volumes 1-6. Sydney: Government Printer, 1893-1898. 6 vols. 8°.
- New Zealand Official Year-Book, 1899*. (Eighth year of issue.) Prepared . . . by E. J. von Dadelszen, registrar-general. Wellington, 1899. vi, 702 pp. Map and illustrations. 8°. "Eleven new special articles are introduced into this edition."
- Parkes, Sir Henry. *Fifty years in the making of Australian history*. London: Longmans, 1892. 2 vols. Portrait. 8°.
- *An emigrant's home letters*. English edition. Preface by Arthur Galton. London: Simpkin, 1897. 164 pp. 8°.
- Price, J. M. *The land of gold; the narrative of a journey through the West Australia gold fields in the autumn of 1895*. London: Low, 1896. Illustrated. 8°.
- Rees, William Lee. *The life and times of Sir George Grey*. In two volumes. 2d edition. London: Hutchinson & Co., 1892. 8°. Contents: Government of South Australia, 1841-45; First government of New Zealand, 1845-54; Governorship of Cape Colony, 1854-61; Second governorship of New Zealand, 1861-67; Life in New Zealand, 1870-92.
- Reeves, W. P. *The long white cloud; Ao Tea Roa*. London: H. Marshall, 1898. 446 pp. 8°.
- *New Zealand*. London: H. Marshall, 1898. 190 pp. 12°. (Story of Empire series.)
- Roth, H. L. *The aborigines of Tasmania*. Preface by E. B. Tylor. With numerous autotype plates from original drawings. London, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., 1890. xxvii, (1), 224, cx pp. 8°.
- Same. 2d edition. London: King & Son, 1899. 8°.
- Roydhouse, T. R. *Labor party in New South Wales*. London: Swan Sonnenschein, 1892. 127 pp. 8°.
- Rusden, G. W. *History of Australia*. 2d edition. Melbourne: Melville, Mullen & Slade, 1897. 3 vols. 8°.
- *History of New Zealand*. In three volumes. London: Chapman and Hall, 1883. Folded maps. 8°. Contents: Vol. 1. The Maoris; European discoveries; Traffic with Maoris; Te Peri; Sir George Gipps; Spain's court; The Wairau; The war of 1846; Provincial legislatures. Vol. 2. Colonial office requires information; Governor Browne's departure; State of the Maoris; The Weld ministry; Native land court; Sir George Bowen; Colonel Whitmore. Vol. 3. Donald McLean and the Maoris; Session of 1874; The "Waka Maori;" Newspaper; The raid upon Parihaka.
- Russell, H. S. *The genesis of Queensland: An account of the first exploring journeys to and over Darling Downs; the earliest days of their occupation; social life; station seeking; the course of discovery, northward and westward; and a résumé of the causes which led to separation from New South Wales*. With portrait and facsimiles of maps, etc. Sydney, 1888. xvi, 512, 124 pp. 8°.
- Shaw, F. L. *The story of Australia*. London: H. Marshall, 1897. 150 pp. 12°. (Story of Empire series.)
- Smyth, R. Brough. *The Aborigines of Victoria; with notes relating to the habits of the natives of other parts of Australia and Tasmania*. John Ferres, London, 1878. 2 vols. 4°.
- Spencer, B., and F. J. Gillen. *The native tribes of Central Australia*. London: Macmillan, 1899. 692 pp. 8°.
- Swainson, William. *New Zealand. The substance of lectures on the colonization of New Zealand, delivered at Lancaster, Plymouth, Bristol, Hereford, Kirkby, Lonsdale, Richmond, and the Charter house, London*. With notes. London: Smith, Elder & Co., 1856. 64 pp. 12°.
- Torrens, Robert. *Colonization of South Australia*. London: Longman, Rees, etc., 1835. xv, (1), 303, (1), xxii pp. 8°.
- Wakefield, Edward. *New Zealand after fifty years*. New York: Cassell & Co., 1889. vi, (4), 236 pp. Plates (photogravures). 8°.
- Walker, H. de R. *Australasian democracy*. London: Unwin, 1897. 346 pp. 8°.
- Weedon, T. *Queensland, past and present. An epitome of its resources and development*. Brisbane, 1896. 240 pp. 8°.

- Westgarth, Wm. The colony of Victoria: Its history, commerce, and gold mining; its social and political institutions down to the end of 1863. With remarks . . . upon the other Australian colonies. (With a map.) London: Low, 1864. xx, 503 pp. 8°.
- White, John. Ancient history of the Maori; his mythology and tradition . . . London: Low, 1889. 4 vols. 8°.
- Te Rou; or, The Maori at home. A tale exhibiting the social life, manners, habits, and customs of the Maori race in New Zealand prior to the introduction of civilization among them. London: Sampson Low, Marston, Low & Searle, 1874. vii, 343 pp. 12°.
- Wilson, Mrs. R. In the land of the Tui: My journal in New Zealand. London: Low, 1894. 80 pp. Illustrated. 8°.
- Woods, J. D. The province of South Australia; with a sketch of the northern territory. Adelaide, 1894. 8°.

## BRITISH PACIFIC ISLANDS.

- Bevan, Th. F. Toil, travel, and discovery in British New Guinea. London: Paul, 1890. 8°.
- Burney, Capt. James. A chronological history of the discoveries in the South Seas, or Pacific Ocean. London, 1803-1817. 5 vols. 4°.
- Chalmers, J. Pioneer life and work in New Guinea, 1877-94. London: Religious Tract Society, 1895. Illustrated. 8°.
- Cooper, H. S. Coral lands. In two volumes. With illustrations. London: Bentley, 1880. Photographs. 8°. Fiji, Samoa, and Solomon islands.
- Coote, W. Western Pacific: The group of islands north and east of Australia. London: Low, 1883. 12°.
- Cumming, C. F. Gordon. At home in Fiji. Second edition, complete in one volume, with map and illustrations. New York: A. C. Armstrong & Son, 1886. x, (2), 365 pp. 12°.
- D'Albertis, L. M. New Guinea. What I did and what I saw. London: Low, 1880. 2 vols. Plates. Maps. 8°.
- David, Mrs. Edgeworth. Funafuti; or, Three months on a coral island: An unscientific account of a scientific expedition. With portraits, maps, and illustrations. London: John Murray, 1899. xiii, (3), 318 pp. 8°.
- Denison, Sir William. Varieties of vice-regal life. In two volumes. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1870. Folded maps. 8°.
- Guppy, H. B. The Solomon islands, their geology and physical characteristics. London: Sonnenschein, 1887. 8°.
- The Solomon islands and their natives. London: Sonnenschein, 1887. xvi, 384 pp. Map and plates (photogravures). L. 8°.
- Horne, J. A year in Fiji; or, An inquiry of the botanical, agricultural, and economical resources of the colony. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode, 1881. 297 pp. Map. 8°.
- Hort, D. Tahiti, the garden of the Pacific. London: T. Fisher Unwin, 1891. 352 pp. Portrait. 8°.
- Macgregor, Sir W. British New Guinea. Administration. (In Royal Colonial Institute. Proceedings, vol. 26, pp. 194-226; vol. 30, pp. 238-254. London, 1895-99.)
- Moresby, Capt. John. New Guinea and Polynesia. Discoveries and surveys in New Guinea and the d'Entrecasteaux Islands, a cruise in Polynesia, and visits to the pearl-shelling stations in Torres Straits of H. M. S. Basilisk. With maps and illustrations. London: John Murray, 1876. xviii, (4), 327 pp. 8°.
- Norman, H. The peoples and politics in the Far East. Travels and studies in the British, French, Spanish, and Portuguese colonies, Siberia, China, Japan, Korea, Siam, and Malaya. London: T. Fisher Unwin, 1895. xvi, 608 pp. 8°.
- Powell, B. F. S. Baden-. In savage isles and settled lands—Malaysia, Australasia, and Polynesia. 1888-1891. With numerous illustrations. London: Bentley, 1892. x, 438 pp. 8°.
- Reed, W. Recent wanderings in Fiji. London, 1888.
- Reeves, E. Brown men and women; or, The South Sea islands in 1895 and 1896. With 60 illustrations and map. London: Swan Sonnenschein, 1898. vi, (2), 294 pp. 8°.
- Romilly, Hugh Hastings. The Western Pacific and New Guinea: Notes on the natives, Christian and cannibal, with some account of the old labour trade. With a map. Second edition. London: John Murray, 1887. vi, (2), 284 pp. 12°.
- From my veranda in New Guinea: Sketches and traditions; with an introduction by Andrew Lang. London: Nutt, 1889. Map. 8°.
- Seemann, Berthold. Viti: An account of a government mission to the Vitian or Fijian islands in the year 1860-61. With illustrations and a map. Cambridge: Macmillan & Co., 1862. xv, (5), 447 pp. 8°.
- Thoburn, J. M. India and Malaysia. Cincinnati: Cranston & Curtis. New York: Hunt & Eaton. 1892. 562 pp. Plates (photogravures). 8°.
- Thomson, Basil. The diversions of a prime minister. With a map, numerous illustrations by J. W. Cawston and others, and reproductions of rare plates of early voyages of xviii and xviii centuries. William Blackwood & Sons, 1894, Edinburgh and London. xiii, (3), 407 pp. 8°. On the island of Tonga.
- Wallace, A. R. Australasia. Maps and illustrations. London: E. Stanford, 1893-94. 2 vols. 8°. Contents: 1. Australia and New Zealand. 2. Malaysia and the Pacific archipelagoes. Edited and greatly extended by F. H. H. Guillemard.
- Wawn, William T. The South Sea islanders and the Queensland labour trade. A record of voyages and experiences in the Western Pacific, 1875-6-1891. With numerous illustrations. London: Swan Sonnenschein, 1893. xvi, (1), 440 pp. Plates. Maps. 8°.
- Webster, H. Cayley. Through New Guinea and the cannibal countries. With illustrations and map. London: T. Fisher Unwin, 1898. xvii, (1), 387 pp. 8°.
- Woodford, C. M. A naturalist among the head hunters (Solomon Islands). London: Philip, 1890. 8°.

## BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES.

## CANADA, ETC.

- Anderson, David. Canada; or, A view of the importance of the British American colonies; showing their extensive and improvable resources . . . together with the great sacrifices which have been made by our late commercial regulations of the commerce and carrying trade of Great Britain to the United States. London: Printed for J. M. Richardson, 1814. xxxi, (1), 353 pp. Folded map. 8°.
- Bourinot, John George. Federal government in Canada. Baltimore, 1889. 172 pp. 8°. (Johns Hopkins University studies in historical and political science. 7th series. nos. 10-12.)
- Local government in Canada. An historical study. Baltimore, 1887. 72 pp. 8°. (Johns Hopkins University studies in historical and political science. 5th series. nos. 5, 6.)

- Bryce, George. A short history of Canadian people. London: Sampson Low . . . 1887. vii, (1), 528 pp. Folded map. 12°.
- The Canadian crisis, and Lord Durham's mission to the North American colonies. With remarks, the result of personal observation in the colonies and the United States, on the remedial measures to be adopted in the North American provinces. London: J. Rodwell, 1838. 56 pp. 8°.
- Cavendish, Sir Henry. Government of Canada. Debates of the House of Commons in the year 1774 on the bill for making more effectual provision for the government of the Province of Quebec; drawn up from the notes of Sir Henry Cavendish. Now first published by J. Wright. With a map of Canada, copied from the second edition of Mitchell's map of North America. London: Ridgway, 1839. xii, 303 pp. 8°.
- Douglas, Sir Howard. Considerations on the value and importance of the British North American provinces, and the circumstances on which depend their further prosperity and colonial connection with Great Britain. London: John Murray, 1831. 36 pp. 8°.
- Glenelg, Charles Grant, Baron. Despatches to Sir F. B. Head, Bart., during his administration of the government of Upper Canada. Abstracted from the papers laid before Parliament. London: James Ridgway & Sons, 1839. (4), 193 pp. 8°.
- Gourlay, Robert. General introduction to statistical account of Upper Canada, compiled with a view to a grand system of emigration, in connection with a reform of the poor laws. London: Simpkin & Marshall, 1822. xii, 504, 47 pp. Folded map. 8°.
- Statistical account of Upper Canada, compiled with a view to a grand system of emigration. In two volumes. London: Simpkin & Marshall, 1822. Engraved title-pages. 8°.
- Haliburton, R. G. Intercolonial trade our only safeguard against disunion. Ottawa: G. E. Desbaretts, 1868. 42 pp. 8°.
- Haliburton, T. C. The bubbles of Canada. Philadelphia: Lee & Blanchard, 1839. 262 pp. 8°.
- Same. London: Richard Bentley, 1839. (6), 332 pp. 8°.
- Hesse-Wartegg, C. E. von. Canada und Neu Fundland. Nach eigenen Reisen und Beobachtungen, mit 54 illustrationen und einer Übersichtskarte. Freiburg im Breisgau: Herder, 1888. ix, (3), 223, (2), pp. 8°.
- Hogan, J. Sheridan. An essay: To which was awarded the first prize by the Paris exhibition committee of Canada. Montreal: B. Dawson. London: Sampson Low, Son & Co., 1855. 86 pp. Folded map. 8°.
- Hopkins, J. C. Canada: An encyclopædia of the country. The Canadian dominion considered in its historic relations, its natural resources, its material progress, and its national development. Toronto: The Linscott Publishing Company, 1898-99. 5 vols. Plates. 4°.
- Houston, William. Documents illustrative of the Canadian constitution. Edited with notes and appendixes. Toronto: Carswell & Co., 1891. xxii, 338 pp. 8°.
- Kingsford, W. The history of Canada. 1608-1841. Toronto: Rowsell & Hutchison. London: Trübner & Co., 1887-98. 10 vols. Maps. 8°.
- Lee, Charles. The importance of Canada considered in two letters to a noble lord. London: Printed for R. and J. Dodsley, MDCCLXI. 1751. (2), 38 pp. 8°.
- Lefroy, A. H. F. The law of legislative power in Canada. Toronto: The Toronto Law Book and Publishing Company, 1897-98. (12), lxx, 823 pp. 8°.
- Mac Beth, R. G. The making of the Canadian West, being the reminiscences of an eyewitness. With portraits and illustrations. Toronto: William Briggs, 1898. 230 pp. 8°.
- Macmullen, John. History of Canada from its first discovery to the present time. Brookville, C. W.: J. M'Mullan, 1855. (2), 506 pp. 8°.
- Maseres, Francis. The Canadian freeholder: In two dialogues between an Englishman and a Frenchman settled in Canada. In two volumes. London: B. White, 1777. 8°.
- Meredith, Sir William. A letter to the Earl of Chatham on the Quebec bill. The third edition, corrected. London: Printed for T. Cadell, MDCCLXXII. (2), 36 pp. 12°.
- Same. 5th edition. Same imprint.
- Metcalfe, Charles, Lord. The life and correspondence of Charles, Lord Metcalfe, governor of Jamaica and governor-general of Canada. From unpublished letters and journals. By John William Kaye. London: R. Bentley, 1854. 2 vols. 8°.
- Morris, Alexander. Prize essay. Canada and her resources; an essay, to which, upon a reference from the Paris exhibition committee of Canada, was awarded by his excellency Sir Edmund Walker Head the second prize. Second edition. Montreal: B. Dawson. London: Sampson Low, Son & Co., 1855. 119 pp. 8°.
- Munro, J. E. C. The constitution of Canada. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press, 1889. 8°.
- Parkin, G. R. The great dominion. Studies of Canada; with maps. London and New York: Macmillan & Co., 1895. viii, 251 pp. 3 folded maps. 12°.
- Pearson, Charles. Ireland and Canada. The substance of five speeches explaining the plan of the colonial associations for the profitable employment of capital in planting British colonies in Her Majesty's North American provinces by means of a systematic emigration from the United Kingdom of persons of all classes and conditions. London: Printed by R. and J. E. Taylor, 1839. iv, 52 pp. 8°.
- Pope, J. Memoirs of the Right Hon. Sir John A. Macdonald, first prime minister of Canada. London: Arnold, 1894. 2 vols. 8°.
- Roberts, Charles D. G. A history of Canada. Boston: Lamson, Wolfe & Co., 1897. xi, (1), 493 pp. 8°.
- Smith, Goldwin. Canada and the Canadian question; with map. London and New York: Macmillan, 1891. x, 325 pp. 12°.
- Synge, Millington Henry. Canada in 1848. Being an examination of the existing resources of British North America. With considerations for their future and more perfect development, as a practical remedy by means of colonization for the prevailing distress in the united empire, and for the defense of the colony. London: Published by Effingham Wilson, [1848]. 32, vii pp. 8°.
- Van Sommer, J. Canada and the empire. Toronto: The author, 1896. 125 pp. 8°.
- Wheeler, G. J. Confederation law of Canada. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode, 1896. 8°.
- Wilson, F. A., and Alfred B. Richards. Britain redeemed and Canada preserved. In two parts. London: Longman, Brown, Green & Longmans, 1850. xxx, (2), 556 pp. Plates. Folded map. 8°.

## NEWFOUNDLAND.

- Harvey, M. Newfoundland in 1897. London: Low, 1897. 218 pp. Illustrated. Maps. 8°.
- Hatton, J., and M. Harvey. Newfoundland: The oldest British colony; its history, its present condition, and its prospects in the future. Illustrated. London: Chapman & Hall, 1883. xxiv, 489 pp. 8°.
- Prowse, D. W. A History of Newfoundland, from the English, colonial, and foreign records. With numerous illustrations and maps. 2d edition, revised and corrected. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode, 1896. x, 634 pp. 8°.

## NOVA SCOTIA.

- Bourinot, John G. Builders of Nova Scotia; with an appendix containing copies of rare documents relating to the early days of the province. Toronto: Copp-Clark Co., 1900. 8°.
- Haliburton, Thomas C. An historical and statistical account of Nova Scotia. In two volumes. Illustrated by a map of the province and several engravings. Halifax: Joseph Howe, 1829. 8°.
- Murdoch, Beamish. A history of Nova Scotia; or Acadie. Halifax, N. S.: James Barnes, 1867. 3 vols. 8°.

## BRITISH NORTHWEST, COLUMBIA, ETC.

- Bancroft, Hubert Howe. History of British Columbia, 1792-1887. San Francisco, 1890. xxxi, (1), 792 pp. Folded map. 8°.  
"Authorities quoted," pp. xxiii-xxxi.
- Begg, Alexander. History of British Columbia from its earliest discovery. Toronto: W. Briggs, 1894. xvii, (1), 7-567 pp. Folded map. Portrait. 8°.
- . History of the Northwest. Toronto: Hunter, Rose & Co., 1894-95. 3 vols. Portraits. 8°.
- Bryce, G. Manitoba: Its infancy, growth, and present condition. London: S. Low, 1882. viii, 367 pp. Folded maps. Portrait. 8°.
- Forbes, Charles. Vancouver Island: Its resources and capabilities, as a colony. Published by the colonial government, 1862. (4), 63, (1), 18, (1) pp. 8°.

## HUDSON'S BAY.

- Bryce, G. The remarkable history of the Hudson's Bay Company, including that of the French Traders of north-western Canada, and of the North-West, X Y, and Astor Fur Companies. London: S. Low, Warston & Co., 1900. 32 full-page illustrations and maps. 8°.
- Martin, Archer. The Hudson's Bay Company's land tenures, and the occupation of Assiniboia by Lord Selkirk's settlers. London: W. Clowes, 1888. xvi, 238 pp. 8°.
- Newton, W. Twenty years on the Saskatchewan. London: Stock, 1897. 190 pp. 8°.
- Willson, Beckles. The Great Company, 1667-1871. Being a history of the Honorable Company of Merchant-Adventurers trading into Hudson's Bay. Compiled from the company's archives, from diplomatic documents and state papers of France and England, from the narratives of factors and traders, and from many accounts and memoirs. London: Smith, Elder & Co., 1900. 2 vols. Portraits. Maps. 8°.

## BRITISH COLONIES IN CENTRAL AND SOUTH AMERICA.

## BRITISH HONDURAS.

- Bristowe, L. W., and P. B. Wright. Handbook of British Honduras. Edinburgh, 1898. 8°.
- Fowler, H. A narrative of a journey across the unexplored portion of British Honduras, with a short sketch of the history and resources of the colony. Belize, 1879. 8°.
- Gibbs, A. P. British Honduras: An historical and descriptive account of the colony from its settlement, 1670. London: S. Low (etc.), 1883. viii, 198 pp. 12°.
- Morris, D. The colony of British Honduras. London: E. Stanford, 1883. xiii, 152 pp. 16°.

## BRITISH GUIANA.

- Bevan, Theodore. Toil, travel, and discovery in British New Guiana. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., 1898. viii, 317 pp. Folded map. 8°. "From the Protectorate to the Sovereignty. 1884-1888."
- Bronkhurst, H. V. P. The colony of British Guiana and its labouring population. London: T. Woolmer, 1883. xii, 479 pp. Woodcut. 12°.
- Crookall, L. British Guiana; or, Work and wanderings among the Creoles and Coolies, the Africans and Indians of the wild country. Illustrated. London: Unwin, 1898. xii, 247 pp. 12°.
- Dalton, H. G. The history of British Guiana. London: Longmans, 1855. 2 vols. Plates. Map. 8°.
- Kirke, H. Twenty-five years in British Guiana. With map and illustrations. London: S. Low (etc.), 1898. x, (2), 364 pp. Portrait. 8°.
- Rodway, James. Handbook of British Guiana. Prepared under the direction of the Columbian exposition literary committee of the Royal Agriculture Society. Georgetown, British Guiana: Publ. by the committee, 1893. Plates. Folded map. 8°.
- . History of British Guiana. Georgetown, British Guiana: J. Thomson, 1891-94. 3 vols. 8°.
- . In the Guiana forest. Illustrated. 2d edition. London: T. Fisher Unwin, 1895. xxiii, (1), 242 pp. 12°.
- Rodway, J., and J. H. Stark. Stark's Guide book and history of British Guiana; containing a description of everything relating to this colony that would be of interest to tourists and residents respecting its history, inhabitants, climate. \* \* \* Boston: J. H. Stark, [1898]. 120 pp. Illus. Map. 8°.
- Schomburgk, Sir R. H. A description of British Guiana, geographical and statistical. London: Simpkins, Marshall & Co., 1840. (4), 155 pp. Map. 8°.
- . Reisen in British-Guiana in den Jahren 1840-44. Mit Abbildungen und einer Karte. Leipzig: J. J. Weber, 1847-48. 3 vols. 8°.
- Thurn, E. F. Among the Indians of Guiana: being sketches chiefly anthropologic from the interior of British Guiana. With 33 illustrations and map. London: Kegan Paul (etc.), 1883. xvi, 445 pp. 8°.



## FALKLAND ISLANDS.

- Falkner, Thomas. Description of Patagonia, and the adjoining parts of South America, and some particulars relating to Falkland's islands. Hereford, 1774. 144 pp. Plates. Map. Folio.
- Grimblot, P. Politique coloniale de l'Angleterre. Les îles Falkland. (In *Revue des Deux Mondes*, new series, vol. 3, pp. 781-815, 1843.)
- Murdoch, W. G. B. From Edinburgh to the Antarctic (1892-93). London: Longmans, 1894. 8°.
- Pernety, Dom Antoine Joseph. The history of a voyage to the Malouine (or Falkland) islands, made in 1763 and 1764. Illustrated with copperplates. The 2d edition. London: Printed for William Goldsmith, MDCC. lxxiii, (4), xvii, (1), 294 pp. Folded maps. 4°.
- Rutledge, R. M. The Falkland islands. (In *Scottish Geographical Magazine*, vol. 12, pp. 241-252. Edinburgh, 1896.)
- Snow, W. Parker. A two-years' cruise off Tierra del Fuego, the Falkland islands, Patagonia \* \* \* with charts and illustrations. In two volumes. London: Longman, Brown (etc.), 1857. 12°.
- Stirling, W. H. Brief account of the Falkland Islands. Buenos Ayres, 1891. 27 pp. 8°.

## BRITISH WEST INDIES, ETC.

## BERMUDA.

- Lefroy, Sir J. H. Memorials of the discovery and early settlement of the Bermudas or Somers Islands, 1511-1685. Compiled from the colonial records and other original sources. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1877-79. 2 vols. Plates. Maps. L. 8°.
- Ogilvy, J. An account of Bermuda, past and present. Hamilton, Bermuda: S. Nemes, 1883. 64 pp. 8°.
- Stark, J. H. Stark's illustrated Bermuda guide, containing a description of the Bermuda Islands, including their history, inhabitants, climate, agriculture, geology, government, and resources. Boston: J. H. Stark, 1897. viii, 154 pp. 12°. (Library of Congress has edition of 1884.)
- Illustrated Bermuda guide. Boston, 1887.
- Whittingham, F. Bermuda, a colony, a fortress, and a prison; or, Eighteen months in the Somers Islands. London: Longman, Brown, Green, Longmans & Roberts, 1857. x, (2), 287 pp. Colored plates. Folded map. Illustrations. 8°.

## BRITISH WEST INDIES, COLLECTIVELY.

- Bayley, F. W. N. Four years' residence in the West Indies, during the years 1826, 1827, 1828, and 1829. Third edition, enlarged, with engravings. To which is added a faithful narrative, derived from official documents and private letters, of the dreadful hurricanes in Barbados, St. Vincent, and St. Lucia, in August, 1831, and an appendix containing the geography, geology, and chronology of the British colonies in the West Indies. London: William Kidd, 1833. xiii, (3), 742 pp. Plates (lithographs). 8°.
- Daubrée, Paul. Colonists and manufacturers in the West Indies. Translated from the French. London: James Bain, 1844. 103 pp. 8°.
- Edwards, B. The history, civil and commercial, of the British West Indies. 5th edition. London: Printed by T. Muller, 1819. 5 vols. 8°. Note: Other editions in Library of Congress.
- Eves, C. W. The West Indies. 4th edition. London: Sampson, Low, Marston & Co., 1897. xxxi, (1), 359 pp. Plates. Folded maps. 12°.
- Froude, James Anthony. The English in the West Indies; or, The bow of Ulysses. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1888. x, (2), 373 pp. Illustrations, engraved on wood. 8°.
- Jay, E. A. Hastings. A glimpse of the Tropics; or, Four months' cruising in the West Indies. London: Low & Co., 1900. 284 pp. Map and illustrations. 8°. "A diary of a trip in a royal mail steamer, with some historical notes as to the islands visited. The term 'roaring' forties, applied to north latitudes, appears to be new."
- Kingsley, Charles. At last. A Christmas in the West Indies. London: Macmillan, 1874. xii, 401 pp. Plates (woodcuts). 8°.
- Labat, J. B. Nouveau voyage aux îles de l'Amérique, contenant l'histoire . . . le gouvernement des habitants anciens et modernes. Paris: Chez Théodore Le Gras, 1742. 8 vols. Plates. Maps. 16°.
- Rodway, J. The West Indies and the Spanish Main. London: T. Fisher Unwin. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1896. xxiv, 371 pp. Plates (woodcuts). 12°.
- Southey, T. Chronological history of the West Indies. London: Printed for Longman, Rees, etc., 1827. 3 vols. 8°.

## ANTIGUA.

- Flannigan, Mrs. Antigua and the Antiguans; a full account of the colony and its inhabitants from the time of the Caribs to the present day. London: Saunders & Otley, 1844. 2 vols. 8°.
- Luffman, J. A brief account of the island of Antigua, together with the customs and manners of its inhabitants. In letters to a friend, written in the years 1786, 1787, 1788. Second edition. London: Printed for John Luffman [1789?]. (4), 180 pp. Folded map. 16°.
- Oliver, V. L. The island of Antigua. History. London: Mitchell & H., 1894-1899. 3 vols. L. 8°.

## BAHAMAS.

- Ives, Charles. The Isles of Summer; or, Nassau and the Bahamas. Illustrated edition. New Haven, Conn.: The author. 356 pp. Plates. 12°.
- Powles, L. D. The land of the Pink Pearl; or, Recollections of life in the Bahamas. London: Sampson, Low & Co., 1888. xi, 321 pp. 8°.
- Stark, J. H. History and guide to the Bahama Islands. Boston: Photo-Electro Co., 1892. Illustrated. Maps. 12°.

## BARBADOS.

- Ligon, R. A true and exact history of the island of Barbados. Illustrated with a mapp [sic] of the island. London: Printed for H. Moseley, 1657. (10), 122, (2) pp. Map. Plans. F°.
- Same. London, 1677.
- Poyer, J. History of Barbadoes from the first discovery of the island, in the year 1605, till the accession of Lord Seaforth, 1801. London: Printed for J. Mawman, 1808. xxix, (7), 668 pp. 4°.
- Schomburgk, Sir R. H. History of Barbadoes, comprising a geographical and statistical description of the island, a sketch of the historical events since the settlement, and an account of its geology and natural productions. London: Longmans, 1848. xx, 722 pp. Plates. 8°.
- Stark, J. H. History and guide to Barbadoes and the Caribbee Islands. Boston, 1893. 12°.

## DOMINICA.

- Atwood, Thomas. The history of the island of Dominica, containing a description of its situation, extent, climate \* \* \* with and account of its civil government \* \* \* its conquest by the French, and restoration to the British dominions. London: Printed for J. Johnson, 1791. viii, 285 pp. 8°.

## GRENADA.

- Drayton, E. The Grenada Handbook. London, 1898. 8°.
- Wells, S. Historical and descriptive sketch of the island of Grenada. Kingston, Jamaica, 1890. 8°.

## JAMAICA.

- Bridges, George Wilson. The annals of Jamaica. London: J. Murray, 1828. 2 volumes. 8°.
- Gardner, W. J. A history of Jamaica from its discovery to the present time, including an account of its trade and agriculture; sketches of the manners, habits, and customs of all classes of its inhabitants. London, 1873. 8°.
- The Handbook of Jamaica for 1899. Published by authority. Comprising historical, statistical, and general information concerning the island. London: E. Stanford, 1898. 8°.
- Long, E. The history of Jamaica; or, General survey of the ancient and modern state of that island, with reflections on its situation, settlements, inhabitants, climate, products, commerce, laws, and government. London: Printed for T. Lowndes. 1774. 3 volumes. Plates. Map. 4°.
- Millner, Thomas Hughes. The present and future state of Jamaica considered. London: H. Hooper, 1839. 96 pp. 8°.
- Phillippo, James M. Jamaica; its past and present state. London: John Snow, 1843. xvi, 487 pp. Plates (woodcuts). 12°.
- Same. Philadelphia: James M. Campbell & Co., 1843. 176 pp. 8°.
- Stark, J. H. Jamaica guide, containing a description of everything relating to Jamaica \* \* \* including its history, inhabitants, government, resources, and places of interest to travelers. Boston and London: Low & Co., [1898.] viii, 208 pp. 12°.
1899. Jamaica, with remarks on some of the other West Indian islands. (With maps and illustrations.) Alfred G. Nash. Scottish Geographical Magazine, vol. 15 (Dec., 1899), pp. 617-626.

## ST. KITTS.

- Jeaffreson, J. C. A young squire of the seventeenth century. From the papers of Christopher Jefferson, 1676-1686. London: Hurst, 1877. 2 vols. 8°. Note: Relates to St. Kitts.

## ST. LUCIA.

- Breen, H. H. St. Lucia, historical, statistical, and descriptive. London: Longman, 1844. xvii, 423 pp. Map. 8°.

## ST. VINCENT.

- Shephard, C. An historical account of the island of St. Vincent. London: Ridgway, 1831. 8°.

## TOBAGO.

- Hay, L. G. Handbook of the colony of Tobago, etc. Scarborough, Tobago: Government printing office, 1884. iv, 66, xx pp. 8°.
- Woodcock, Henry Iles. History of the island of Tobago. Ayre, 1867. 8°.

## TRINIDAD.

- Stark, J. H. A guide book and history of Trinidad, including Tobago, Granada, and St. Vincent. Boston: J. H. Stark, 1897. x, 170 pp. Illustrated. Maps. 12°.
- Verteuil, L. A. A. de. Trinidad, its geography, natural resources, administration, present condition, and prospects. 2d edition. Cassell & Co., 1884, London. xi, (1), 484 pp. Folded map. 8°. Have also edition of 1858.

## FRENCH COLONIES.

## BOOKS.

- Blondel, Henri. *Le régime du travail et la colonisation libre dans nos colonies et pays de protectorat.* Paris: Berger-Levrault et Cie. 1896. (2), 159 pp. 8°. (Organisation des colonies françaises.)
- Bordier, A. *La colonisation scientifique et les colonies françaises.* Paris: Reinwald & Co., 1884. 506 pp. 8°. "Gives suggestive information as to climate, race, and other factors in colonisation."—Lucas.
- Bossière (R. E.). *Notice sur les Iles Kerguelen (possession française).* Paris: Challamel, 1893. 8°.
- Boutmy (Émile). *Le recrutement des administrateurs coloniaux.* Paris: Colin, 1895. 127 pp. 12°.
- Burot (F.), et A. Legrand. *Les troupes coloniales.* Tome I. Statistique de la mortalité. Tome II. Maladies du soldat aux pays chauds. Tome III. Hygiène du soldat sous les tropiques. Paris: J. B. Baillière, 1897-98. 3 vols. 8°.
- Canu, A. H. *La pétaudière coloniale.* Paris: Chamuel, 1895. 316 pp. 12°.
- Castonnet de Fosses, H. *La perte d'une colonie. La révolution de Saint-Domingue.* Paris: Faivre, 1893. vi, 380 pp. 16°.
- Cerisier, Charles. *Impressions coloniales. (1869-1892.) Étude comparative de colonisation.* Paris: Berger-Levrault et Cie, 1893. 8°.
- Chailley-Bert, Joseph. *Où en est la politique coloniale de la France. L'âge de l'agriculture.* Paris: Colin, 1896. (2), 68 pp. 16°. (Questions du temps présent.)
- *La Tunisie et la colonisation française.* Paris: Chailley, 1896. 8°.
- Chessé, J. *Vérités coloniales. Le désordre, les abus, le danger.* Paris: Chamuel, 1895. (2), 154, (1) pp. 12°.
- Cor, Henri. *Questions coloniales. De la transportation considérée comme moyen de répression et comme force colonisatrice.* Paris: Giard et Brière, 1895. 180 pp. 8°.
- Delauney du Dézen, —. *Manuel du futur colon en Algérie.* Paris: Challamel, 1895. viii, 200 pp. 18°.
- Denancy, Edgard. *De la colonisation dans ses rapports avec la production et la consommation.* Épernay: Dubreuil, 1894. 131 pp. 16°.
- Deschamps, Léon. *Histoire de la question coloniale en France.* Paris: E. Plon, Nourrit et Cie., 1891. xvi, 405 pp. 8°. Contents: Première époque: Des débuts du seizième siècle au ministère de Richelieu—Les découvertes. Deuxième époque: Du ministère de Richelieu à la fin du règne de Louis XIV—La plus grande expansion; Les compagnies. 1<sup>re</sup> partie: Richelieu et la Régence; 2<sup>e</sup> partie: Colbert et Louis XIV—Livres 3. Troisième époque: De la paix d'Utrecht à la paix de Vienne (1815): Le déclin. 1<sup>re</sup> partie: Louis XV et Louis XVI; 2<sup>e</sup> partie: Révolution et empire.
- *Les colonies pendant la Révolution. La constituante et la réforme coloniale.* Paris: Perrin et Cie., 1898. xxvi, 340 pp. Folded sheet. 16°.
- *Histoire sommaire de la colonisation française. Avec 13 gravures et 10 cartes.* Paris: Nathan, 1894. 8°.
- Dubois, Marcel. *Les colonies et l'enseignement géographique. Conférence.* Paris: Chailley, 1896. 8°.
- Duchêne, Albert. *Du régime législatif des colonies. (Thèse.)* Paris: A. Rousseau, 1893. 184 pp. 8°.
- Dussieux, L. *Le Canada sous la domination française.* Paris: Ch. Tanera, 1855. (2), 104 pp. Folded map. 8°.
- Duval, Jules. *Les colonies et la politique coloniale de la France. Avec deux cartes du Sénégal et de Madagascar dressées par V. A. Malte-Brun.* Paris: Arthur Bertrand, [1864]. xxi, (1), 526 pp. Folded maps. 8°.
- Épisode (Un) de l'expansion de l'Angleterre. Lettres au "Times" sur l'Afrique de Sud, traduites avec l'autorisation spéciale du conseil de rédaction du "Times" par le Colonel Baille. Paris: Colin, 1893. (4), 286 pp. 12°.
- L'Expansion de la France et la diplomatie. Hier—aujourd'hui. Paris: Hachette, 1895. xii, 298 pp. 12°.
- Faillon, Étienne Michel. *Histoire de la colonie française en Canada. [1534-1674.]* Villemarie [Montréal], Bibliothèque paroissiale, 1865. 3 vols. Folded maps. Portraits. 4°.
- Fonctionnaires (Les) coloniaux. Documents officiels. Tome 1<sup>er</sup>: Espagne, France. Paris: Colin, 1897. 8°. ("Forme la 2<sup>me</sup> série de la Bibliothèque internationale." Publication de l'Institut colonial international de Bruxelles.)
- Gaffarel, Paul Louis Jacques. *Les colonies françaises. 5<sup>e</sup> édition, revue et augmentée.* Paris: Germer-Baillière et Cie., 1893. (2), ii, 552 pp. 8°. Contents: La colonisation française—L'Afrique française: Le Sénégal; Le Soudan français; Les rivières du sud; Le Fouta-Djallon; Comptoirs de Guinée; Le Gabon; L'Ogoué et le Congo; La Réunion; Madagascar et ses dépendances. L'Amérique française; La Guyane française; Les Antilles françaises; Saint-Pierre et Miquelon. L'Asie française; L'Inde française; La Cochinchine française; Voyages d'exploration en Indo-Chine; Les pays protégés; Le Cambodge; L'Annam; L'intervention française au Tonking. L'Océanie française; Taïti et ses dépendances; Les Taumotu et Gambia; L'archipel néo-calédonien; Kerguelen et Clipperton; Les Nouvelles-Hébrides; Les Salomon.
- Gallais, H. *La colonisation dans ses rapports, avec la production et la consommation.* Paris: J. André, 1897. 72, (1), pp. 16°.
- Garneau, François Xavier. *Histoire du Canada depuis sa découverte jusqu'à nos jours. 4<sup>e</sup> édition.* Montréal: Beauchemin et Valois, 1882-83. 4 vols. Portrait. 8°.
- Gautier, E., and others. *Guide pratique du colon et du soldat à Madagascar.* Paris: André, 1895. viii, 208 pp. Folded map. 16°.
- Girault, A. *Principes de colonisation et de législation coloniale.* Paris: Larose, 1895. 12°.
- *Le problème colonial. Assujettissement, autonomie ou assimilation.* Paris: Chevalier Maresq, 1894. 52 pp. 8°.
- Grandmaison, Louis de. *L'expansion française au Tonkin.* Paris: E. Plon, Nourrit et Cie., 1898. viii, 270 pp. 2 maps. 8°.
- Guénin, Eugène. *Histoire de la colonisation française. La Nouvelle-France.* Paris: Fourneau, 1896. 2 vols. 12°.
- Haussonville, G. P. O. de C. comte d', et J. Chailley-Bert. *L'émigration des femmes aux colonies, allocution de M. le comte d'Haussonville et discours de M. J. Chailley-Bert à la conférence donnée le 12 janvier 1897 par l'Union coloniale française.* Paris: Colin, 1897. 62, (1) pp. 16°. (Questions du temps présent.)
- Jeanneney, A. *Ce que produisent nos colonies. Leçons de choses et lectures.* Paris: Delagrave, 1896. 94 pp. 18°.
- Joanne, Paul. *Dictionnaire géographique et administratif de la France (et de ses colonies).* vols. 1-4. Paris: Hachette, 1890-99. 4 v. Plates, maps, illustrations. 4°.
- Jollivet, Adolphe. *Discours dans la discussion des articles du projet de loi relatif au régime des colonies.* Paris: Imp. Guiraudet, 1845. 36 pp. 8°.
- Lamy, Étienne. *L'œuvre sociale; Les settlements anglais et américains.* Paris: Plon, 1897. 8°.
- Lanessan, Jean Marie Antoine de. *L'expansion coloniale de la France. Étude économique, politique, et géographique sur les établissements français d'outre-mer.* Paris, 1886. xxiii, (1), 1016 pp. Maps. 8°.
- *La colonisation française en Indo-Chine.* Paris: Alcan, 1895. 12°.
- *Principes de colonisation.* Paris: Alcan, 1896. 8°. "Forme le tome 84 de la Bibliothèque scientifique internationale."

- Lechevalier, Jules. Rapport sur les questions coloniales adressé à M. le duc de Broglie, président de la commission coloniale, à la suite d'un voyage fait aux Antilles et aux Guyanes pendant les années 1838 et 1839. Paris: Imprimerie royale, 1843-1844. 2 vols. F°.
- Lemire, Ch. Le peuplement de nos colonies. 2<sup>e</sup> édition. Paris: Giard et Brière, 1897. 72 pp. 18°.
- Leroy-Beaulieu, P. Les grandes compagnies de colonisation. (Conférences de l'Union coloniale française 1895-1896. Paris: Chaillay, 1896. 8°.
- Main-d'œuvre (La) aux colonies. Documents officiels sur le contrat de travail et de louage d'ouvrage aux colonies. Tome 1<sup>er</sup>. Paris: Colin, 1895. 8°. Publication de l'Institut colonial international à Bruxelles (1<sup>re</sup> série). Bibliothèque coloniale internationale.
- Documents officiels. Tome II. (Bruxelles, Institut colonial international.) Paris: Colin, 1897. 8°. (Fait partie de la "Bibliothèque coloniale internationale," 1<sup>re</sup> série. Publication de l'Institut colonial international.)
- Malouet, V. P. Collection de mémoires et correspondances officielles sur l'administration des colonies, et notamment sur la Guiane française et hollandaise. Paris: Boudouin, an. X [1799]. 5 vols. 8°.
- Nicolas, Pierre. Attributions du commissariat général. Aide-mémoire pour les successions du personnel des colonies. Paris: Challamel, 1893. 244 pp. 8°.
- Norman, C. B. Colonial France. London: W. H. Allen & Co., 1886. xii, 331 pp. Folded map. 8°. Contents: Historical summary and financial administration; French settlements in Africa; Islands in the Indian Ocean; Réunion; Nossi-Bé; Sainte Marie de Madagascar; Mayotte; East Indies; Islands in the Pacific; Tahiti; The Marquesas; New Caledonia; Cochinchina; Annam; Tonkin; Martinique; Guadeloupe and its dependencies; French Guiana; the islands of Saint Pierre and Miquelon; Madagascar; Obock; Tunis; Colonial defense.
- Notices sur les colonies française, accompagnées d'un atlas de 14 cartes. Histoire, géographie, météorologie, population, gouvernement, administration, culte, assistance publique, instruction publique, justice, forces militaires et maritimes, finances, agriculture, industrie, commerce, navigation, service postal. Paris: Challamel aîné, 1866. (4), 767 (1), pp. 8°. Contents: Notice préliminaire; Colonies d'Afrique; La Réunion; Mayotte; Nossi-Bé; Sainte-Marie de Madagascar; Sénégal et dépendances; Établissements de la Côte-d'or (Grand-Bassam, Assinia et Dabon); Gabon. Colonies d'Amérique: Îles Saint-Pierre et Miquelon; Martinique; Guadeloupe et dépendances; Guyane. Colonies d'Asie: Établissements dans l'Inde; Cochinchine. Colonies de l'Océanie: Îles de la Société; Îles Basses; archipel Tubuai et Marquises; Nouvelle-Calédonie.
- Organisation et fonctionnement de l'École coloniale. Paris: Challamel, 1897. 8°. (Publication du Ministère des colonies.)
- Orléans, Henri, Prince d'. Politique extérieure et coloniale de la France. Paris, 1900. 8°.
- Petit, Édouard. Organisation des colonies françaises et des pays de protectorat. Préface de M. R. de Moüy. Tome I. Organisation politique, administratif et financière. Garde et défense des colonies. Paris: Berge-Levrault et Cie., 1894. xiv, 705 pp. L. 8°.
- Organisation des colonies françaises et des pays de protectorat. Tome II. Services pénitentiaires. Domanialité. Travaux publics, etc. Paris: Berge-Levrault et Cie. L. 8°.
- Poiré, Eugène. L'émigration française aux colonies. Paris: Plon, 1897. 380, (1) pp. 12°.
- Pourvoirville, A. de. Études coloniales. Dans les seize chaûs (1888-1889). Paris: Chamuel, 1895. 188 pp. 16°.
- Rimbaud, Alfred. La France coloniale. Histoire, géographie, commerce. Ouvrage publié sous la direction de M. Alfred Rimbaud. Avec 13 cartes en trois couleurs. 7<sup>e</sup> édition. Paris: Colin, 1895. vi, 790, (1), pp. 8°. Contents: Préface. Introduction historique, Alfred Rimbaud; L'Algérie, Pierre Foucin; La Tunisie, Jacques Tissot; Le Sénégal et le Soudan français, L. Achinard et A. Rimbaud; La Guinée française et dépendances, A. Brégnère, Midard-Béraud, A. Rimbaud; L'Ouest Africain-Gabon, Congo français, Lac Tschad, Dutreuil de Rhins; La Réunion, Jacob de Cordemoy; Madagascar, Gabriel Marcel; La Mer Rouge, Obock et Cheikh-Saïd, P. Solcillet; L'Inde française, Henri Delonçe; L'Indo-Chine française, A. Bouïnais, A. Paulus; La Nouvelle-Calédonie et dépendances, Ch. Lemire; Les Îles Tahiti, A. Goupil; Autres archipels océaniques, Ch. Lemire; Terre-Neuve, Îles St. Pierre et Miquelon (Terre-Neuve, etc.), par le capitaine Nicolas; La Guadeloupe et dépendances, M. Isaac; La Martinique, M. Hurard; La Guyane, Jules Leveillé; Les Îles Kerguelen et autres possessions antarctiques, Gabriel Marcel; Les colonies pénitentiaires et la transportation, Jules Leveillé; Conclusion, Alf. Rimbaud; Appendice, A. Rimbaud et Schirmer.
- Rougier, J. C. P. Précis de législation et d'économie coloniale. Paris: Larose, 1894. 540 pp. 8°.
- Sarzeau, J. Les Français aux colonies. (Sénégal et Soudan français, Dahomey, Madagascar, Tunisie.) Paris: Bloud et Barral, 1897. 400 pp. Portraits. 8°. Forme la 11<sup>e</sup> série de la collection (Campagnes contemporaines de l'armée française).
- Saussure, Léopold de. Psychologie de la colonisation française dans ses rapports avec les sociétés indigènes. Paris: F. Alcan, 1899. (2), 311, (1) pp. 16°.
- Verschuur, G. Aux colonies d'Asie et dans l'Océan Indien. Paris, 1900. 8°.
- Verdier, A. Trente-cinq années de lutte aux colonies (côte occidentale d'Afrique). Paris: Chaillay, 1896. 8°.
- Vignon, Louis. L'expansion de la France. Paris: Guillaumin et Cie., 1891. x, 379, (2) pp. 12°.
- Villedary, —. Guide sanitaire des troupes et du colon aux colonies. Paris: Société d'éditions scientifiques, 1893. 8°. Fait partie de la Petite encyclopédie médicale.
- Wahl, Maurice. La France aux colonies. Paris: Librairies-imprimeries réunies, 1896. 8°. "Fait partie de la Bibliothèque d'histoire illustrée."

## ARTICLES IN PERIODICALS.

1897. Les colonies grecques de la France. Jean Carrière. Revue encyclopédique, vol. 7, pp. 645-650.
1897. Colonies françaises et colonies anglaises. Marquis de Nadaillac. Correspondant, vol. 69, pp. 827, pp. 867-894.
1897. De la colonisation française. Réponse à M. Stanley. Prince Henri d'Orléans. Questions diplomatiques et coloniales, vol. 1, pp. 513-516.
1897. La colonisation française et la colonisation russe. J. Chaffanjou. Revue générale internationale, scientifique, littéraire et artistique, vol. 2, pp. 203-208.
1897. De la colonisation de France au commencement du xvi<sup>e</sup> siècle. Acte d'habitation de la terre de Vitrolles-lez-Luberon. Fournier de Flaix. Réforme sociale, vol. 34, pp. 917-929.
1897. L'étude de l'homme social et la colonisation. E. Cheysson. Revue générale internationale, scientifique, littéraire et artistique, vol. 2, pp. 163-181.
1897. Événements géographiques et coloniaux. Gaston Rouvier. Monde moderne, vol. 5, pp. 616-621.
1897. La France colonisatrice. L. Sevin-Desplaces. Monde moderne, vol. 5, pp. 253-256.
1897. La France en Afrique. Les capitaux et la colonisation. A. Fock. Nouvelle revue, 15 octobre, pp. 616-632.
1897. Les lois françaises et la colonisation. Comte de Couronnel. Questions diplomatiques et coloniales, vol. 1, pp. 613-616.
1897. La méthode dans les études coloniales. Leçon d'ouverture du cours de colonisation comparée à l'école des sciences politiques. Joseph Chaillay-Bert. Revue générale des sciences, vol. 8, pp. 912-919.

1897. Mouvement colonial. Dr. Meyners-d'Estrey. *Journal des économistes*, janvier, pp. 64-75.
1897. Le Musée colonial de Marseille. Ph. Eberlin. *Revue générale des sciences*, vol. 8, pp. 861-866.
1897. Politique coloniale. Les grandes compagnies de colonisation. Charles Giraudeau. *Revue bleue*, 13 novembre, pp. 635-637.
1897. Politique coloniale. Un système à détruire. Charles Giraudeau. *Revue bleue*, 11 décembre.
1897. Un projet de colonisation russe au xviii<sup>e</sup> siècle. Louis Brunet. *Questions diplomatiques et coloniales*, vol. 1, pp. 449-455.
1897. La question des domaines aux colonies. G. Demartial. *Revue politique et parlementaire*, pp. 102-120.
1897. Réponses à l'enquête de Jean Hess. Alfred Granidier, J. Novicow, Mgr. Alexandre Leroy, Sir Charles Dilke. *Questions diplomatiques et coloniales*, vol. 1, pp. 205-211.
1897. Revue des questions coloniales. Rouire et H. Pensa. *Revue politique et parlementaire*, pp. 606-620; pp. 641-650; pp. 650-659.
1897. Une thèse d'histoire coloniale à la Sorbonne (Peytrand, esclavage). Henri Froidevaux. *Questions diplomatiques et coloniales*, vol. 1, pp. 90-92.
1897. La colonisation sous la troisième république (suite et fin). Paul Louis. *Revue socialiste*, pp. 24-38; pp. 155-173.
1897. Enquête sur le mouvement colonial (J. Hess) et réponse à l'enquête. Stanley. *Questions diplomatiques et coloniales*, vol. 1, pp. 22-28.
1897. L'éducation des indigènes. P. Vidal de la Blache. *Revue scientifique*, 20 mars.
1897. Vingt années d'expansion coloniale. À propos de deux voyages dans le Sahara. Le colonel Monteil. *Revue bleue*, 18 décembre.
1897. Comité de défense et progrès social. Le rôle social de la colonisation. Joseph Chailley-Bert. *Réforme sociale*, vol. 34, pp. 711-729.
1897. Les compagnies de colonisation. Henri Maguez. *Questions diplomatiques et coloniales*, vol. 1, pp. 536-543.
1897. Les concessions coloniales. J. M. de Lanessan. *Questions diplomatiques et coloniales*, vol. 1, pp. 169-171.
1897. Le Congrès colonial international de Bruxelles. Arthur Girault. *Revue d'économie politique*, vol. 11, pp. 865-872.
1897. Le Congrès colonial international de Bruxelles. A. Tollaire. *Questions diplomatiques et coloniales*, vol. 1, pp. 169-171.
1897. Administration contre colons. Nouvelles pièces d'un vieux procès. Noël Pardon. *Questions diplomatiques et coloniales*, vol. 1, pp. 321-336.
1898. Le développement géographique de la colonisation agricole en Algérie. Avec carte. H. Busson. *Annales de géographie*, 7<sup>e</sup> année (1898), 34-54.
1898. Assistance publique aux colonies. A. Kermorgent. *Annales d'hygiène et de médecine coloniales*, vol. 1 (1898), 244-258.
1898. Fonctionnement aux colonies des ambulances créées par l'arrêté du 10 mars 1897. *Annales d'hygiène et de médecine coloniales*, vol. 1 (1898), 277-293, 538-558.
1898. Notes succinctes sur l'état sanitaire de nos colonies. *Annales d'hygiène et de médecine coloniales*, vol. 1 (1898), 135-143.
1898. Coloniser ou assimiler. À propos de la communication de M. Bertholon. A. Dumont. *Bulletin de la Société d'anthropologie de Paris*, 4<sup>e</sup> série, vol. 9 (1898), 316-321.
1898. De la colonisation agricole en Annam. Camille Paris. *Bulletin de la Société de géographie commerciale de Paris*, vol. 20 (1898), 170-188.
1898. La colonisation du domaine extérieure de la France. Abbé Royet. *Bulletin de la Société de géographie de Marseille*, vol. 22 (1898), 39-43.
1898. Question coloniale. La rélegation en Guyane et en Nouvelle-Calédonie. Ch. Cérissier. *Journal de la Société statistique de Paris*, vol. 34 (1898), 132-134.
1898. La nationalité française dans les colonies. E. Audinet. *Journal du droit international privé*, vol. 25 (1898), 23-39.
1898. Le génie dans les opérations de guerre aux colonies. Léo Dex. *Monde moderne*, vol. 7 (1898), 71-83.
1898. L'aptitude des Français à coloniser, démontrée par les résultats obtenus dans leurs dernières colonies. Alexandre Halot. *Questions diplomatiques et coloniales*, 2<sup>e</sup> année (1898), 22-34.
1898. Une colonie française de la fin du xix<sup>e</sup> siècle. Le Myre de Vilers. *Questions diplomatiques et coloniales*, 2<sup>e</sup> année (1898), 129-136. Note.—An account of the progress and present state of the French colony of Lower Cochin China.
1898. Lettres d'un député au ministre des colonies. Le Myre de Vilers. *Questions diplomatiques et coloniales*, 2<sup>e</sup> année (1898), 393-407.
1898. Parallèle entre la colonisation moderne et la colonisation sous l'ancien régime démontrée par l'exemple des colonisations françaises et anglaises au Canada. Dr. G.-K. Anton et Alexandre Halot. *Questions diplomatiques et coloniales*, 2<sup>e</sup> année (1898), 355-365, 432-438, 487-495.
1898. Politique douanière et coloniale. H. Hauser. *Questions diplomatiques et coloniales* 2<sup>e</sup> année (1898), 72-78.
1898. Sommes-nous colonisateurs et pouvons-nous le devenir? André Mévil. *La quinzaine* (1898), 508-521.
1898. Contre la traite des noirs dans les colonies françaises. Appel à la France. H. O'Mahony. *Revue des revues* (1898), 349-357.
1898. Colonisation pénale. Paul Mimande. *Revue du palais*, 2<sup>e</sup> année (1898), 623-660.
1898. Le protectorat de la France en Annam et au Tonkin et son évolution. Ch. de Pincé. *Revue politique et parlementaire* (1898), 632-650.
1898. Revue des questions coloniales. H. Pensa et Rouire. *Revue politique et parlementaire* (1898), 147-158, 171-177, 622-627, 650-655, 659-670, 691-697.
1898. Transportation et colonisation pénale à la Nouvelle-Calédonie. L. Beauchet. *Revue politique et parlementaire* (1898), 53-88, 303-338, 566-585.
1898. Les premiers colons de souche européenne dans l'Afrique du Nord. Dr. Bertholon. *Revue tunisienne* (1898), 47-70, 147-167, 355-371, 423-443.
1898. La colonisation de Madagascar. Charles Giraudeau. *Revue bleue*, 4<sup>e</sup> série (Jan., 1898), 30-32.
1898. The Anglo-French imbroglio. *Nation*, vol. 66 (Feb. 24, 1898), 144.
1898. Un projet de colonisation russe dans la Méditerranée au xviii<sup>e</sup> siècle. L. Brunet. *Revue de géographie*, 21<sup>e</sup> année (Feb., 1898), 94-100.
1898. French on the Niger; the "open door" in West Africa. F. A. Edwards. *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 69 (Apr., 1898), 576.
1898. French empire in Africa. P. Guieyresse. *Independent*, vol. 50 (May 5, 1898), 572.
1898. Future of Nigeria. G. Taubman-Goldie. *Independent*, vol. 50 (May 5, 1898), 576.
1898. Comment on colonise. R. Bailly. *La marine française*, vol. 11 (June, 1898), 289-311.
1898. Le fonctionnaire colonial. Gaston Donnet. *Revue bleue*, 4<sup>e</sup> série, vol. 9-10 (June, 1898), 721-726.
1898. Les non classées et l'émigration des femmes aux colonies. Le comte d'Haussonville. *Revue des deux mondes* (June, 1898), 779-809.

1898. Gentil's mission to the Tchad. [Illustrated.] Scientific American Supplement. vol. 46 (Sept. 3, 1898), 18967.
1898. L'exagération coloniale. Gaston Donnet. Revue bleue, 4<sup>e</sup> série (Sept., 1898).
1898. Nos colonies. Nouvelle revue (Oct., 1898), 416-439.
1898. La législation et l'économie coloniales dans les facultés de droit de France. Revue internationale de l'enseignement (Nov., 1898), 427-445.
1898. Les nouvelles données du problème colonial. G. Novès. La marine française, 11<sup>e</sup> année (Dec., 1898), 617-628.
1898. Expéditions coloniales. Nouvelle revue (Dec., 1898), 459-478.
1898. The French colonial craze. Gaston Donnet. Fortnightly Rev., vol. 64 (Dec., 1898), 864.
1899. L'expansion française dans l'Oubangin et le Bahr-el-Ghazal; le haut Nil. G. Regelsperger. Revue encyclopédique, vol. 9 (Mar. 4, 1899), 161.
1899. La colonisation agricole européenne en Tunisie. E. Payen. Bulletin du comité de l'Afrique française, Mar., 1899.
1899. L'expansion de la France dans le sud algérien. G. Mercier. Bulletin du comité de l'Afrique française, Mar., 1899.
1899. La colonisation libre en Nouvelle-Calédonie. E. Payen. Annales des sciences politiques, Mar., 1899.
1899. A French colonial experiment in the Far East. H. E. Bourne. Yale Rev., vol. 8 (May, 1899), 8.
1899. La colonisation africaine et les chemins de fer trans-sahariens. A. Duponchel. Revue scientifique, Aug. 5, 1899.
1899. Expansion coloniale des frontières nationales. Lord Farrer. Deutsche Revue, June, 1899.
1899. La colonisation du Congo français. P. Borderie. Questions diplomatiques et coloniales, vol. 6 (1899), pp. 449-458.
1899. Histoire de la découverte de la formation des États du Soudan occidental, d'après Const. Meyer. Annales géographiques, vol. 8 (1899), pp. 176-179.
1899. La colonisation d'Afrique. Revue scientifique, Aug. 5, 1899.
1900. La colonisation du Chine. Paul Borderie. Questions diplomatiques et coloniales, 4<sup>e</sup> année, Jan. 1, 1900, 1.
1900. La conquête de Madagascar. L. Sevin-Desplaces. Revue bleue, 4<sup>e</sup> série, vol. 13 (Feb., 1900), 236.
1900. Organisation générale des colonies françaises. A. Duchère. Revue encyclopédique, vol. 10 (Mar. 24, 1900), 227; (May 12, 1900), 366.
1900. Indo-Chine française, 1891-99. C. Mourey. Revue encyclopédique, vol. 10 (Mar. 24, 1900), 221.
1900. L'autonomie de nos vieilles colonies et l'expérience anglaise. Urleur. Annales des sciences politiques, Mar., 1900.
1900. Les concessions coloniales. G. Rouvier. Revue encyclopédique, vol. 10 (Mar. 10, 1900), 184.
1900. Formation du domaine colonial français. H. Froidevaux. Revue encyclopédique, vol. 10 (Mar. 10, 1900), 181.

## FRENCH AFRICAN COLONIES.

- Bordier, A. La colonisation scientifique et les colonies françaises. Paris: Reinwald & Co., 1884. 506 pp. 8°. "Gives suggestive information as to climate, race, and other factors in colonization."—Lucas.
- Bossière, René E. Notice sur les îles Kerguelen, possession française. Paris: A. Challamel, 1893. 31 pp. Plates. Folded map. 8°.
- Broadley, A. M. The last Punic War; Tunis, past and present. With a narrative of the French conquest of the Regency. In two volumes, with illustrations. W. Blackwood & Sons, Edinburgh and London, 1882. 8°.
- Burdeau, A. L. L'Algérie en 1891. Rapport et discours à la Chambre des députés. Paris: Hachette et Cie., 1892. iv, 406 pp. 16°.
- Card, E. Rouard de. Les traités de protectorat conclus par la France en Afrique, 1870-1895. Paris: A. Durand et Pedone-Lauriel, 1897. (2), 237, (2), pp. 8°. (Bibliothèque internationale et diplomatique.)
- Castellani, C. Vers le Nil français avec la mission Marchand. 150 illustrations, d'après les photographies et les dessins de l'explorateur. Paris: Flammarion, 1898. 445 pp. 8°.
- Dawson, E. W. Madagascar; its capabilities and resources. London: Philip, 1895. 8°.
- Dybowski, J. La route du Tchad. Du Loango au Chari. Avec 136 dessins de Mme. Paule Crampel. Paris: F. Didot, 1893. 387 pp. 8°.
- Ellis, W. History of Madagascar. Comprising also the progress of the Christian mission, etc. London, 1838. 2 vols. Plates (lithographs). Folded map. 8°.
- Espagna, P. d'. Jours de Guinée. Paris: Perrin, 1898. 12°.
- Estampes, L. d'. La France au pays noir. Paris: Blond et Barral, 1898. 8°.
- Faucon, N. La Tunisie avant et depuis l'occupation française. Histoire et colonisation. Paris: Challamel, 1893. 2 vols. 8°.
- Gaffarel, P. L'Algérie: histoire, conquête, colonisation. Ouvrage illustré de 4 chromo-lithographies, de 3 cartes en couleur et de plus de 200 gravures sur bois. Paris: F. Didot et Cie., 1883. 4°.
- Graham, A., and H. S. Ashbee. Tunisia. With glossary, map, and bibliography. London: Dulau, 1887. L. 8°.
- Hanotaux, G. L'affaire de Madagascar. Paris: C. Lévy, 1896. xxiv, 308 (2) pp. 12°.
- Keller, C. Natur und Volksleben der Insel Réunion. Basel: Schwabe, 1888. 31 pp. 8°. "Öffentliche Vorträge geh. in der Schweiz. F. 11."
- Lanessan, J. M. A. de. La Tunisie. Paris: F. Alcan, 1887. (2), 268 pp. Map. 8°.
- La Vaissière, P. Vingt ans à Madagascar. Paris: Lecoffre, 1885. vii (1), 363 pp. Folded map. 8°.
- Leroy, L. Les Français à Madagascar, avec carte et cartouches; étude de géographie physique, économique, historique et coloniale. Paris: Delagrave, 1884. 286 pp. Folded map. 12°.
- Leroy-Beaulieu, P. L'Algérie et la Tunisie. Paris: Guillaumin, 1887. viii, 472 pp. 8°.
- Lefèvre, E. Un voyage au Laos. Paris, Plon, Nourrit et Cie., 1898. 307 pp., avec 32 gravures et carte. 12°.
- McLeod, J. L. Madagascar and its people. London, 1865. Map. 8°.
- Maude, F. C. Five years in Madagascar, with notes on the military situation. London: Chapman, 1895. 8°.
- Morell, J. R. Algeria. The topography and history, political, social, and natural, of French Africa. London, 1854. 8°.
- Monnier, M. France noir: Côte d'Ivoire et Soudan. Accompagné de 40 gravures. Paris: Plon, 1894. xii, 298 (1) pp. Map. 8°.
- Nugent, E. E. G. A land of mosques and marabouts (Algiers). London: Chapman, 1894. Illustrations. 8°.
- Oliver, S. P. The true story of the French dispute in Madagascar. London: Unwin, 1885. 8°.
- Oliver, W. D. Crags and craters. Rambles in the island of Réunion. London: Longmans, 1896. 226 pp. 8°.
- Olivier, L., éditeur. La Tunisie. Avec 182 gravures. Paris: Delagrave, 1898. 8°.

- Pavy, A. *Histoire de la Tunisie. Avec 2 cartes photographiques.* Tours: Cattier, 1894. vi (2), 386 (1) pp. 4°.
- Routier, G. *Les droits de la France sur Madagascar.* Paris: Le Soudier, 1895. (6), 371 pp. 12°.
- Toutée, George Joseph. *Dahomé, Niger, Touareg (Récits de voyage).* Paris: Colin, 1898. xxxiii, 370 pp. Folded map. 12°.
- Vigné d'Octon, P. *Terre de mort: Soudan et Dahomey.* Paris: Lemerre, 1892. iii (1), 285 (4) pp. 12°.
- Villot, —. *Mœurs, coutumes et institutions des indigènes d'Algérie.* Constantine Arnolet, 1871. 12°.

## FRENCH ASIATIC COLONIES, FRENCH OCEANIA, AND FRENCH WEST INDIES.

### FRENCH ASIATIC COLONIES.

- Billet, A. *Deux ans dans le haut Tonkin (région de Cao-Bang).* Paris: Challamel, 1898. iv, 326, xlv pp. Maps and plates. 8°. Avec 16 planches. Note.—“This work was originally published in the *Bulletin scientifique de la France et de la Belgique*. It gives a detailed account of the Cao-Bang district in all respects, and supplementary chapters on the fauna and flora of Upper Tonkin. It represents two years of very arduous scientific work, concisely told.”
- Courtois, E. *Études, observations, impressions et souvenirs. Le Tonkin français contemporain.* Paris: Charles-Lavauzelle, 1891. xii, 399 pp. Map. 8°.
- Dupuis, J. *Le Tong-kin et l'intervention française.* Paris: Challamel, 1898. vii, 350 pp. 12°.
- Enjoy, Paul d'. *La colonisation de la Cochinchine (manuel du colon).* Paris: Société d'éditions scientifiques, 1898. 394 pp. 12°. Note.—“A general account of Cochin China, dealing mainly with the economic and social conditions, the regulations affecting the acquisition of land, and advice to intending immigrants. A scheme for a railway from Saigon to Tongking is described.”
- Faure, A. *Les Français en Cochinchine au 18<sup>e</sup> siècle.* Mgr. Pigneau de Behaine, évêque d'Adran. Paris: Challamel, 1891. (2), 254 pp. Portrait. 8°.
- Jammes, H. L. *Au pays Annamite (Notes ethnographiques).* Paris: Challamel, 1898. (2), 280 pp. 16°.
- Lanessan, J. M. A. de. *L'Indo-Chine française. Étude politique, économique et administrative sur la Cochinchine, le Cambodge, l'Annam et le Tonkin.* Paris: Alcan, 1888. vii (1), 760 pp. 5 maps. 8°.
- Leclère, A. *Cambodge, contes et légendes.* Paris: Bouillon, 1895. (4), xxii, 308 pp. 8°.
- Mouhot, A. H. *Travels in the central parts of Indo-China (Siam), Cambodia, and Laos during 1858-60.* (Memoir of H. Mouhot by J. J. Belinfante, edited by C. Mouhot.) With illustrations. London: John Murray, 1864. 2 vols. 8°.
- Norman, C. B. *Tonkin; or, France in the Far East.* London: Chapman, 1884. Maps. 8°.
- Orleans, Henri Ph., prince d'. *Autour du Tonkin.* Paris: C. Lévy, 1896. 535 pp. 12°.
- Silvestre, Pierre Jules. *L'empire d'Annam et le peuple annamite. Aperçu sur la géographie, les productions, l'industrie, les mœurs et les coutumes de l'Annam.* Publié sous les auspices de l'administration des colonies. Annoté et mis à jour par J. Silvestre, avec une carte del l'Annam hors texte. Paris: Alcan, 1889. 380 pp. 12°.

### FRENCH OCEANIA.

- Clavel, C. *Les Marquisiens. Avec figures dans le texte.* Paris: O. Doin, 1885. 182 pp. 8°. “Études physiologiques, anthropologiques et ethnographiques.”
- Eyraud des Vergnes, P. E. *L'archipel des Îles Marquises.* Paris: Berger-Levrault et Cie., 1877. 98 pp. 8°.
- Haurigot, G. *Les établissements français dans l'Inde et en Océanie.* Paris: Lecène, Oudin et Cie., 1891. 240 pp. 8°.
- Le Chartier, H. *Tahiti et les colonies françaises de la Polynésie.* Paris: Jouvot, 1887. 8°.
- Legrand, M. A. *Au pays des Canaques. La Nouvelle-Calédonie et ses habitants en 1890.* Paris: Bandoine, 1893. 212 pp. 8°.
- Marin, A. *Au loin. Souvenirs de l'Amérique du Sud et des Îles Marquises.* Dessins d'Alexandre de Bar, G. de Mare et René Beau. Paris et Lyon: Delhomme et Briguot, 1891. 384 pp. 8°.
- Salinis, A. de. *Marins et missionnaires: conquête de la Nouvelle-Calédonie, 1843-53.* Paris: Dumoulin et Cie., 1892. 346 pp. Avec gravures. 8°.

### FRENCH AMERICAN COLONIES.

- Aube, T. *La Martinique. Son présent et son avenir.* Paris: Berger-Levrault et Cie., 1882. 120 pp. 8°.
- Ballet, J. *La Gadeloupe. Renseignements sur l'histoire, la flore, la faune, la géologie, etc.* T. 1<sup>er</sup>. Basse-Terre, 1894. 8°.
- Coudreau, H. A. *Chez nos Indiens. Quatre années dans la Guyane française. (1887-1891.)* Paris: Hachette, 1893. (4), iii, (1), 614 pp. Illustrations. Folded map. 8°.
- Garaud, L. *Trois ans à la Martinique. Études de mœurs, à paysages et croquis, profils et portraits.* Paris: Picard et Kaan, 1892. 287 pp. 8°.
- Hearn, Lafcadio. *Two years in the French West Indies.* New York: Harper & Bros., 1890. 431 pp. Plates (woodcuts). 12°.
- Lacour, A. *Histoire de la Guadeloupe. 1635-1830.* Basse-Terre (Guadeloupe): Imprimerie du gouvernement, 1855-60. 4 vols. 8°.

### GERMAN COLONIES.

- Blum, H. *Neu-Guinea und der Bismarckarchipelago, eine wirtschaftliche Studie.* Berlin, 1899. Plates. Portraits. Maps. 8°.
- Brose, M. *Repertorium der deutschen kolonialen Litteratur (1884-1890).* Berlin: Winckelmann, 1891. viii, 113 pp. 8°.
- Bülow, F. J. von. *Deutsch-Südwest-Africa: drei Jahre im Lande Hendrik Witboois. Schilderungen von Land und Leuten.* 2. Aufl. Berlin: Mittler, 1896. ix, 365 pp. Illustrated. Map. 8°.
- Demay, Charles. *Histoire de la colonisation allemande.* Paris: Bayle, 1889. 16°.



- Deutschland und seine Kolonien im Jahre 1896. Amtlicher Bericht über die erste deutsche Kolonial-Ausstellung. Mit 1 Kupferdr., 185 Illustr. im Text, darunter 7 Vollbildern, 6 Karten, 40 Tafeln u. Plan. Berlin: Reimer, 1897. viii, 368 pp. 4°.
- Dilthey, R. Der wirtschaftliche Werth von Deutsch-Ost-Afrika. Düsseldorf: Bagel, 1889. 47 pp. Map. 8°.
- Fabri, F. Bedarf Deutschland der Kolonien? Eine politisch-ökonomische Betrachtung. Gotha: Perthes, 1879. viii, 112 pp. 8°.
- Fünf Jahre deutscher Kolonialpolitik. Gotha: Perthes, 1889. xv, 153 pp. 8°.
- Fitzner, Rudolf. Deutsches Kolonial-Handbuch. Nach amtlich. Quellen bearbeitet. Berlin: H. Paetel, 1896. vii, 442 pp. 8°.
- Foerster, B. Deutsch-Ost-Afrika. Geographie und Geschichte d. Colonie. Leipzig: Brockhaus, 1890. xii, 204 pp. Map. 8°.
- François, C. von. Nama und Damara. Deutsch-Südwest-Afrika. Magdeburg: G. Baensch, 1895. iv, 334, xxviii pp. Plates. Maps. 8°.
- Deutsch-Südwest-Afrika. Geschichte der Kolonisation bis zum Ausbruch des Krieges mit Witbooi. April, 1893. Berlin: D. Reimer, 1899. xi, 223 pp. Plates. 8°.
- Franzel, C. Deutschlands Kolonien. Kurze Beschreibung von Land und Leuten unserer aussereurop. Besitzungen. Mit vielen Abbildungen u. 1 Übersichtskarte der deutschen Kolonien. Hannover: E. Meyer, 1889. 102 pp. 8°.
- Franzius, G. Kiautschau. Deutschlands Erwerbung in Ostasien. 3. Aufl. Berlin: Schall u. Grund, 1898. 142 pp. Plates. Portraits. Map. 8°.
- Gürich, G. Deutsch-Südwest-Afrika. Reisebilder und Skizzen aus dem Jahren 1888 und 1889. Hamburg: Friedrichsen, 1891. vi, 216 pp. Plates. Map. 8°.
- Hagen, B. Unter den Papuas; Beobachtungen und Studien über Land und Leute, Tier- und Pflanzenwelt in Kaiser Wilhelmsland. Wiesbaden, C. W. Kreidel, 1900. 327 pp. 46 illust. 4°.
- Hager, Carl. Kaiser-Wilhelms-Land und der Bismarck-Archipel. Mit Abbildungen und 2 Karten. Leipzig, Gressner u. Schwamm. iii, 144 pp. 8°.
- Die Marshall-Inseln in Erd- und Völkerkunde, Handel und Mission. Mit einem Anhang: Die Gilbert-Inseln. Leipzig: Baldamus, 1889. v, 157 pp. Map. 8°.
- Hassert, Dr. Kurt. Deutschlands Kolonien. Erwerbungs- und Entwicklungs-geschichte, Landes und Volkskunde und wirtschaftliche Bedeutung unserer Schutzgebiete. Leipzig: Seele & Co., 1898. viii, 332 pp. 8 Tafeln, 31 Textabbildungen und 5 Karten. 8°.
- Hesse-Wartegg, E. von. Schantung und Deutsch-China, von Kiautschau ins Hl. Land v. China und vom Jangtsekiang nach Peking im Jahre 1898. Mit 145 in den Text gedr. u. 27 Taf. Abbildgn., 6 Beilagen, und 3 Karten. Leipzig: J. J. Weber, 1898. vii, 294 pp. 8°.
- Hessler, Carl. Deutsch-Kiautschou. Kurze Landeskunde, der deutschen Kolonien. 3. verb. Aufl. Mit Kolonialkarten. Leipzig: Friedrich, 1898. 51 pp. 8°.
- Die deutschen Kolonien. Beschreibung von Land und Leuten unserer auswärtigen Besitzungen. Leipzig: G. Lang, 1900. 8°.
- Hirth, Friedrich. Die Bucht von Kiau-tschau und ihr Hinterland. (Vortrag gehalten am 6. Dezember, 1897, in der Abtheilung München der Deutschen Kolonial-gesellschaft.) München: Knorr u. Hirth. 22 pp. Map. 8°. (Münchener Neuesten Nachrichten.)
- Höhnel, L. von. Discovery of Lakes Rudolf and Stefanie. Translated by N. Bell. London: Longmans, 1894. 2 vols. Illus. 8°.
- Jung, Karl Emil. Deutsche Kolonien m. besond. Berücksichtigung der neuesten Erwerbungen in Westafrika und Australien. 2 verm. Ausg. Prag: Tempsky, 1885. xlviii, 302 pp. 8°.
- Koschitzky, Max von. Deutsche Kolonialgeschichte. Mit in den Text gedr. Karten. Leipzig: Baldamus, 1888. 2 vols. 8°.
- Lawson-Kington, W. The Germans in Damaraland. Capetown: Townshend, 1889. 31 pp. 8°.
- Luschnau, Felix von. Beiträge zur Völkerkunde der deutschen Schutzgebiete. Erweiterte Sonderausgabe aus dem "Amtlichen Bericht über die erste deutsche Kolonial-Ausstellung" in Treptow, 1896. Berlin: D. Reimer, 1897. 88 pp. Plates. 4°. "A fine contribution to ethnography, comprising very numerous portraits of natives of the various German possessions in Africa, illustrations of their utensils and weapons, and descriptive letterpress accompanied by statistical tables. The collections here described were exhibited at the German Colonial Exhibition held at Treptow in 1896."
- Mittheilungen aus den deutschen Schutzgebieten (nach amtlichen Quellen). Bd. I-II. Berlin, 1889-98. 8°. (Von Bd. 4 (1891) ab: "Wissenschaftliche Beihefte zum amtlichen deutschen Kolonialblatt.")
- Morgen, C. Durch Kamerun von Süd nach nord. Reisen und Forschungen im Hinterlande 1889 bis 1891. Leipzig: Brockhaus, 1893. x, 390 pp. Plates. Map. 8°.
- Peters, Karl. Das deutsch-ostafrikanische Schutzgebiet. Im amtlich. Auftrage. Mit 23 Vollbildern und 21 Textabbildungen sowie 2 Karten. München: R. Oldenbourg, 1895. xi, 467 pp. 8°.
- Reichard, P. Deutsch-Ostafrika. Das Land und seine Bewohner, seine polit. u. wirtschaftliche Entwicklung. Leipzig: Spamer, 1892. 524 pp. 8°.
- Richthofen, F. von. Deutschland in Ostasien. Karte der Prov. Shantung m. der Kiau-Tschou-Bucht. . . . Berlin: Reimer, 1898.
- Schintz, H. Deutsch-Südwest-Afrika. Forschungsreisen durch die deutschen Schutzgebiete Gross-Nama- u. Hereroland, nach Kunene, dem Ngami-See u. der Kalayari. 1884-1887. Mit 1 Karte, 18 Vollbildern u. vielen Text-Illustr. in Holzschn. München: Oldenburg, 1891. xvi, 568 pp. 8°.
- Schmidt, Rochus. Deutschlands Kolonien, ihre Gestaltung, Entwicklung und Hilfsquellen. Berlin: Verein der Bücherfreunde, 1895-96. 2 vols. Plates. Maps. 8°.
- Stegemann, R. Deutschlands koloniale Politik. Berlin: Puttkamer u. Mühlbrecht, 1884. 128 pp. L. 8°.
- Volz, B. Unsere Kolonien. Land und Leute geschildert. Leipzig: Brockhaus, 1891. x, 369 pp. Illustrated. Maps. 8°.
- Wagner, J. Deutsch-Ostafrika. Geschichte der Gesellschaft für deutsche Kolonisation, der Deutsch-ostafrikan Plantagengesellschaft. 2. verm. Aufl. Berlin: Mitscher u. Röstel, 1888. iii, 124 pp. 8°.
- Wappaus, J. C., editor. Deutsche Auswanderung und Colonisation. Herausgegeben, bevorwortet und mit einigen Zusätzen begleitet. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs, 1846. vii (1) 152 pp. 8°. Contents: Deutsche Auswanderung und Colonisation. Über die Vortheile, welche das südliche Chile für deutsche Auswanderer darbietet. Die Colonie Tovar in Venezuela.
- Warburg, O. Die Kautschuk pflanzen und ihre Kultur. Berlin: Kolonial-wirtschaftliches Komitee, 1900. 154 pp. 9 illustrations. L. 8°.
- Wickenburg, Eduard. Wanderungen in Ost-Afrika. Wien: Gerold & Cie., 1899. xx, 440 pp. Portrait. Maps and illustrations. 8°. "Count Wickenburg in 1897-98 made a sporting tour in Somaliland, going inland from Zeila and from Berbera, and finally from a point on the Mombasa Railway he followed up the Tsavo River to the northern slopes of Kilimanjaro."
- Zintgraff, E. Nord-Kamerun. Schilderung der im Auftrage des Auswärtigen Amtes zur Erschliessung des nördlichen Hinterlandes v. Kamerun während der Jahre 1886-1892 unternommenen Reisen. Mit 16 Illustr. u. 1 Karte. Berlin: Paetel, 1895. vii, 467 pp. 8°.

## PERIODICALS AND ANNUALS.

Deutsches Kolonialblatt.

Deutsche Kolonialzeitung, Organ der Deutschen Kolonialgesellschaft. Berlin. (Fortnightly.)

Deutscher Kolonial-Kalender für das Jahr 1900. Nach amte. Quellen bearb. und herausg. von G. Meinecke. Berlin: Deutscher Kolonial-Verlag, 1900. 8°.

Jahresbericht der Deutschen Kolonialgesellschaft. 1900. Berlin, 1900.

Koloniales Jahrbuch. Berlin.

1898. German Empire in Africa. F. Bley. Independent, vol. 50 (May 5, 1898), 571.

1898. German experiment in colonization. R. C. Witt. Blackwood's Mag., vol. 163 (June, 1898), 788.

1899. Les colonies commerciales des Allemands. Revue des deux mondes, vol. 151 (Feb. 1, 1899), 696.

1899. Les îles Carolines à l'Allemagne. Questions diplomatiques et coloniales, vol. 3 (July, 1899); 299.

1899. Die Besitzergreifung des Hinterlandes von Kamerun. (With map:) Siegfried Passarge. Deutsche Kolonialzeitung, vol. 16 (1899), 69-72.

1899. Politische und sociale Verhältnisse bei den Graslandstämmen Nordkameruns. (With illustrations.) Hauptmann Hutter. Globus, vol. 76 (1899), 294-289, 363-309.

1900. Le mouvement colonial en Allemagne. Pierre Decharme. Questions diplomatiques et coloniales 4<sup>e</sup> année, no. 71 (Feb. 1, 1900, 129.

1900. Germany's first colony in China. P. Bigelow. Harper's Mag., vol. 100 (Mar., 1900), —.

## DUTCH COLONIES.

An answer to the Hollanders declaration, concerning the occurrents of the East-India. The first part. Written by certain marriners, lately returned from thence into England. Printed 1622. 14, (16) pp. sq. 16°.

Anton, G. K. Neuere Agrarpolitik der Holländer and Java. (In Jahrbuch für Gesetzgebung, Verwaltung und Volkswirtschaft, vol. 23, pp. 1337-1361. 1899.)

Arntzenius, G. Cultuur en volk. Beschouwingen over de gouvernementen-koffiecultuur op Java. 's Hage: Gebr. Belinfante, 1891. 8°.

Barfus, E. von. Kriegsfahrten eines alten Soldaten im fernen Osten. Nach den Aufzeichnungen eines ehemaligen Offiziers der niederländisch-ostindischen Armee erzählt. Stuttgart: Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt, 1893. v, 289 pp. 8°.

Boys, H. S. Some notes on Java and its administration by the Dutch. Allahabad: Pioneer Press, 1892. 8°. "A writer on the culture system in the 'Yale Review,' February, 1900, says this work 'is an independent study and is of value, but neglects the work of Dutch historians and critics.'"

Chailley-Bert, J. Java et ses habitants. Paris, 1900. 8°.

Crawford, John. History of the Indian archipelago. In three volumes. Edinburgh: A. Constable & Co., 1820. Plates (lithographs). Folded map. 8°.

D'Almeida, William Barrington. Life in Java; with sketches of the Javanese. London: Hurst & Blackett, 1864. 2 vols. 2 colored plates. 8°.

Deventer, J. S. van. Bijdragen tot de kennis van het landelijk stelzel op Java.. Zalt-Bommel, 1865-66. 3 vols. 8°.

Deventer, M. L. van. Het nederlandsch gezag over Java en onderkooigheden sedert 1811. Verzameling van onuitgegeven stukken uit de koloniale en's andere archieven. Eerste deel. 1811-1820. Gravenhage: Martinus Nijhoff, 1891. 8°.

De Witt, John. A treatise proving that it would be very advantageous for the rulers and people of Holland, and for traffick and commerce, as well as navigation, to erect Dutch colonies in foreign countries. (In Select tracts relating to colonies, pp. 18-25. London [1733?].)

Geslin, J. Conquêtes et découvertes de la République des Pays-Bas. D'après des documents hollandais de l'époque. Paris: Dreyfous, 1883. 2 vols. 12°. Contents: 1. Dans l'archipel Indien. 2. En Asie, en Afrique, en Amérique.

Grashuis, G. J. De Regeerings-Reglementen van Nederlandsch-Indië, benevens het charter van Nederburgh, bewerkt van G. J. Grashuis. Leiden: A. W. Sijthoff. 8°.

Guillemaard, F. H. The cruise of the *Marchesa* to Kamschatka and New Guinea, with notices of Formosa, Linkiu, and various islands of the Malay archipelago. London: John Murray, 1889. viii, (2), 455 pp. With maps and illustrations. 8°. The "Celebes," pp. 288-333.

Hall, R. The history of the barbarous cruelties and massacres committed by the Dutch in the East-Indies \* \* \* to which is added the proceedings of the Council of Amboyna, which the Dutch sent to the English East-India Company in defence of the proceedings against the English there. Printed and sold by the booksellers of London and Westminster, MDCCXII. iv, 236 pp. 12°.

Have, J. J. van. Oost en West. Land en volk onzer koloniën. 's Gravenhage: I. Ijkema, 1892. 317 pp. Plates. Map. 8°.

Hickson, Sydney J. A naturalist in North Celebes. A narrative of travels in Minahassa, the Sangir and Talaut islands, with notices of the fauna, flora, and ethnology of the districts visited. London: John Murray, 1889. xv, (1), 392 pp. With maps and illustrations. 8°.

Hogendorff, C. S. W. de. Coup d'œil sur l'île de Java et les autres possessions néerlandaises dans l'archipel des Indes. Bruxelles: C. J. de Mat, 1830. xii, 422 (3) pp. Folded map. 8°.

Hooykaas, J. C. Repertorium op de koloniale litteratuur of systematische inhoudsopgaaft van hetgeen voorkomt over de koloniën in mengelwerken en tijdschriften, van 1595-1865 uitgegeven. Amsterdam: W. N. du Rieu. 1874-80. 4 vols. in 2. 8°.

——— Continué as: Repertorium op de litteratuur betreffende de nederlandsche koloniën, 1866-1893, door A. Hartmann. 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1895. xviii, 454, (1) pp. 8°.

Houven van Oordt, A. J. van der. Het Regeerings-reglement van Suriname. Leiden: E. J. Brill. 1895. 8°.

Janassen, C. W. Holländische Kolonialpolitik in Ostindien. Hamburg: J. F. Richter, 1884. 39 pp. 8°. (Deutsche Zeit- und Streitfragen, Heft 200.)

Jonge, J. K. J. de. De opkomst van het nederlandsch gezag in Oost-Indië. Verzameling van onuitgegeven stukken uit het oud-kolonial archief. 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1862-75. 10 vols. 8°. Contents: 1-3. 1595-1610; 4. De opkomst van het nederlandsch gezag over Java; 9. Register op Deel I-VII, bewerkt door J. Mainsma.

- Kappler, A. *Holländisch Guiana. Erlebnisse und Erfahrungen während eines 43 jährigen Aufenthaltes in der Kolonie Surinam. Mit einer Karte und einem Holzschnitt.* Stuttgart: Kohlhammer, 1881. ix, 496 pp. 8°.
- . *Surinam, sein Land, seine Natur, Bevölkerung und seine Kulturverhältnisse mit Bezug auf Kolonisation. Mit Holzschnitt und einer Karte.* Stuttgart: Cotta, 1887. iii, 384 pp. 8°.
- Keyser, Arthur. *From jungle to Java; the trivial impressions of a short excursion to Netherlands India.* London: Roxburghe Press, 1899. 8°. Note.—“This is the account of a trip taken by a Straits Settlements officer who, having lived some years in the jungle in the Malay peninsula, was recommended to go for a change to Java. The result is that he gives us an interesting sketch of the civil and military life of the Dutch, their treatment of the natives, and their troubles and vicissitudes in the war with the Lomboks, besides his own impressions of the Javanese, and the mode of living and traveling in that country.”
- Kollewijn, A. M. *Summarized account of the Dutch Indian possessions. Translated from the Dutch by E. H. Parker. (In China Review, vol. 20, pp. 42–49, 137–156. Hongkong, 1892–93.)*
- Leclercq, Jules. *Un séjour dans l'île de Java. Le pays, les habitants, le système colonial. Ouvrage enrichi d'une carte et de 20 gravures.* Paris: Plon, 1898. (2), ii, 294, (1) pp. 16°.
- Louter, J. de. *Handleiding tot de kennis van het staats-en administratief-recht van Nederlandsch-Indië. 4e uitgave.* 's Gravenhage, 1895. xii, 656 pp. 8°.
- Marsden, W. *The history of Sumatra, with a description of the productions, and a relation of the ancient political state of that island.* 3d edition. London: Printed for the author, 1811. xii, 479, (8) pp. Maps and plates. 4°.
- Mayer, L. Th. *Een blik in het Javaansch volksleven.* Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1896. 568 pp. Plates. 8°.
- Meinsma, J. J. *Geschiedenis van de Nederlandsche Oost-Indische bezittingen.* 's Hage: J. Ijkeman. 1872–75. 2 parts in 3 vols. 8°.
- Money, James William B. *Java; or, How to manage a colony. Showing a practical solution of the questions now affecting British India.* London: Hurst & Blackett, 1861. 2 vols. 12°. See note under Thurlow for a criticism of this work. Olive Day, in his article on the “Culture system,” in the “Yale Review” for January, 1900, says: “The book, which is an unlimited eulogy of the Dutch system, was published when the supporters of the system were rapidly losing ground, and they used it for a party document. In this way it gained such importance as to call forth an authoritative refutation of its errors in a ministerial communication to the Second Chamber. Investigation showed that in some tables quoted by Money not a single figure agreed with the official records. The colonial department searched in vain for the source of his statistics. (T. J. Howell Thurlow, Report on Java and dependencies, in Rep. of H. M. Sec. of Embassy, 1868, V, VI, pp. 337, 392. London, 1869.) Compare the criticism of the book in Wordendoek van Nederlandsch Indië (3 vols., Amsterdam, 1869), where it is called a ‘touched-up picture.’ The writer says that Money got his favorable impressions of Java at races and stag hunts, and would have judged differently if he had stayed longer and seen more. It is impossible to accept any statement whatever on Money’s authority.” Thurlow, however, recognizes the value of Money’s work in the following terms: “The figures of Mr. Money are indeed proved to be untrustworthy; but his historical parallels, his chapters on the culture system in its palmy days, his study of the native races—in a word, all the valuable, practical, and original portions of his book—remain unchallenged, and, consequently, acquire additional importance, while some errors of account and technical misstatements alone are brought to light.”
- Nassau, H. J. *Nederlandsch-Indië en andere koloniën.* 4e druk. Groningen: J. B. Wolters. 1891. 8°.
- Nijhoff, Martinus. *Catalogue de livres sur les possessions néerlandaises aux Indes orientales et occidentales \* \* \* en vente aux prix marqués.* La Haye: M. Nijhoff, 1893. 279 pp. 8°.
- Palgrave, William G. *Dutch Guiana.* London: Macmillan & Co., 1876. vi (2), 264 pp. Plan and folded maps. 8°.
- Piccardt, R. A. S. *Geschiedenis van het cultuurstelsel in Nederlandsch-Indië.* Amsterdam, 1873. 8°.
- Pierson, A. G. *Koloniale politiek.* Amsterdam: P. N. v. Kampen, 1877. 8°. “Of the Dutch works on the culture system used by the present writer, Pierson’s is the most concise; it is a very fair and able criticism.”—C. Day, in Yale Review.
- Raffles, Thomas Stanford. *The history of Java.* London: Printed for Black, Parbury & Allen, 1817. 2 vols. Maps and plates. 4°.
- Rietstap, J. B. *Beknopt aardrijkskundig woordenboek van Nederland en zijne koloniën.* Groningen: J. B. Wolters. 8°.
- Roy, J. J. E. *Quinze ans de séjour à Java et dans les principales îles de l’archipel de la Sonde et des possessions néerlandaises des Indes Orientales.* Tours: A. Mame et Cie., 1861. (2), 347 pp. Plates. L. 8°.
- Saalfeld, Friedrich. *Geschichte des holländischen Kolonialwesens in Ostindien.* Göttingen: Heinrich Dietrich, 1813. 2 vols. 12°.
- St. John, Horace. *The Indian archipelago; its present state.* London: Longman, Brown, etc., 1853. 2 vols. 8°.
- Schere, G. A. *Hoe moet Atjeh gepacificeerd worden?* 's Gravenhage: Martinus Nijhoff, 1891. 8°.
- Schoch, C. F. *De heeren diensten op Java en Madura volgens het regeringsreglement van 1854.* Amsterdam: Holdert & Co., 1891. 8°.
- Scidmore, Eliza Ruhamah. *Java; the garden of the East.* New York: The Century Company, 1897. xiv (2), 339 pp. Illustrated. 12°.
- Search for the Dutch honesty; or, the old use and custom of that nation to those friends and allies ever since they have been a commonwealth; faithfully taken from their own histories and authentick records. Printed in the year 1712.* (2), iv (2), 32 pp. 12°. Bound with Hull, R.: The history, etc.
- Soest, G. H. van. *Geschiedenis van het cultuurstelsel.* Rotterdam, 1861–71. 3 vols. 8°.
- Temminck, C. J. *Coup-d’œil général sur les possessions néerlandaises dans l’Inde archipelagique.* Leide: A. Arnz & Co., 1846–49. 3 vols. 8°.
- Thurlow, T. J. Howell. *Report on Java and its dependencies.* July 1, 1868. (In Great Britain. Reports of Her Majesty’s secretaries of legation, February 1, 1869, pp. 337–437. London, 1869.) Note: (An additional reason rendering a new report on this subject desirable is the recent submission to the States General of some papers, prepared with great care by the Dutch colonial office, correcting inaccuracies in Mr. Money’s well-known work, entitled “Java; or, How to manage a colony.” The Dutch are far from underrating the value of this book, which maintains, in their estimation, the high place it took immediately on its publication in 1861, but the rigorous official scrutiny to which the facts, and especially the figures, it contains, have been subjected, exhibited errors which have been deemed of sufficient magnitude to require authoritative contradiction in the shape of a ministerial communication to the Second Chamber. The more important of these errors will be shown at a later period of this report in a series of tables contrasting the figures of Mr. Money with those on record in the colonial department. In England it will probably be held that the results of this comparison tend rather to enhance than to depreciate the value of “Money’s Java” as a sufficiently faithful guide to the Dutch East Indian possessions. The figures of Mr. Money are indeed proved to be untrustworthy; but his historical parallels, his chapters on the culture system in its palmy days, his study of the native races—in a word, all the valuable, practical, and original portions of his book remain unchallenged, and, consequently, acquire additional importance, while some errors of account and technical misstatements alone are brought to light.)
- Valentine, John J. *“Imperial democracy.” Dutch colonizers in Malaysia.* San Francisco, 1899. 53 pp. 8°.
- Wallace, Alfred Russel. *The Malay archipelago.* London: Macmillan, 1898. xvii (3), 515 pp. Plates (wood cuts). Map. 8°. Java, pp. 72–93.
- Wessells, L. *De opheffing van het monopolie en de vervanging van de gedwongen koffiecultuur op Java door en staatscultuur in orijen arbeid.* 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1890. 8°.

## ARTICLES IN PERIODICALS.

1896. L'évolution de la politique coloniale de la Hollande au xix<sup>e</sup> siècle. Ch. Delannoy. *Bulletin de la Société d'études coloniales*, 3<sup>e</sup> année, pp. 5-31.
- 1897-98. Les Hollandais à Java. J. Chailley-Bert. *Cosmopolis*, vol. 8 (Nov., Dec., 1897), 438, 766; vol. 10 (May, 1898), 412; vol. 11 (July, Aug., 1898), 104, 426.
1898. La colonisation hollandaise aux Indes Orientales. J. Plas. *Bulletin de la Société d'études coloniales*, 5<sup>e</sup> année, pp. 25-69.
1898. Une mission à Java. Les méthodes de colonisation. J. Chailley-Bert. *Réforme Sociale*, vol. 35-36 (1898), pp. 149-181.
1899. Java as an example. How the Dutch manage tropical islands. S. Baxter. *Amer. Rev. of Reviews*, vol. 19 (Feb., 1899): 179.
1899. Les colonies hollandaises. A. Mellion. *Revue encyclopédique*, vol. 9 (June 24, 1899), 492; (July 1, 1899), 508.
1900. Experience of the Dutch with tropical labor. C. Day. *Yale Review*, vol. 8 (Feb., 1900), 420; vol. 9 (May, 1900): 58.

## ITALIAN COLONIES.

- Bompiani, S. Italian explorers in Africa. London: Religious Tract Society, 1891. 80 pp. Illustrated. 8°.
- Brunialti, A. L'Italia e la questione coloniale; studii e proposte. Milano: A. Brigola, 1885. xvi, 348 pp. 10°.
- Canuti, G. L'Italia in Africa e le guerre con l'Abissinia. Firenze: A. Saliani, 1898. xvi, 208 pp. 16°.
- Fochifi, E. V. Colonie e colonizzazione. Milano: Tip. P. B. Bellini, 1890. viii, 198 pp. 16°.
- Glyn, F., Baron Wolverton. Five months in Somaliland. London: Chapman, 1894. 108 pp. 8°.
- Crandi, T. L'Italia in Africa e la crisi operaia. Alessandria; Tip. Sociale diretta da G. Panizzao, 1890. 27 pp. 16°.
- Heuglin, Theodor von. Reise in Nordost-Afrika. Schilderungen aus dem Gebiete der Beni Amer und Habab. Mit einer lithograph. Karte, 3 chromo-lithographischen Tafeln und 10 Illustrationen. Braunschweig: Westermann, 1877. 2 vols. 8°.
- Italy. Ministero degli affari esteri. Emigrazione e colonie; rapporti di rr. agenti diplomatici e consolari. Roma: Tip. nazionale di G. Bertero, 1893. 125 pp. 4°.
- Jonquière, C. de la. Les Italiens en Erythrée; quinze ans de politique coloniale. Paris: H. Charles-Lavauzelle, [1897]. 352 pp. Map. 8°.
- Leroy-Beaulieu, P. P. De la colonisation chez les peuples modernes. 4<sup>e</sup> édition corrigée et augmentée. Paris: Guillaumin, 1898. xix (1), 865 pp. 8°. "La colonisation italienne." pp. 316-320.
- Luciano, G. B. Le colonizzazione e l'ordinamento militare nell'Eritrea. Roma, 1891. 46 pp. 8°.
- Martini, F. Nell'Africa italiana; impressioni e ricordi. Milano: Treves, 1891. (4), 291 pp. Plates. 16°.
- Mocchi, L. La Somali italiana (Benadir) e il suo avvenire; conferenza 19 luglio, 1896. Napoli: Tip. di Michele d'Auria, 1896. 41 pp. 8°.
- Paulitschke, Philipp. Ethnographie Nordost Afrikas. Die materielle Cultur der Danakil, Galla und Somal. Berlin: D. Reiner, 1893. xvi, 338 pp. Maps and plates. 8°. "A profound study of the peoples inhabiting Somaliland and the surrounding region, with reference to their ethnography, customs, and general mode of life. A large map and a series of excellent photographs accompany the work."
- Pellenc, A. J. J. A. Les Italiens en Afrique, 1880-96. Paris: Baudouin. 1897. Plates. Maps. 8°.
- Sacerdoti, V. Saggi di studi sulla colonizzazione. Bologna: Tip. Legale, 1890. 246 pp. 8°. Contents: Cenni storici preliminari; Raffronti e critica; Colonie inglesi; Colonie francesi; Colonie spagnuole; Colonie olandesi; Colonie tedesche; Colonie italiane. Studi razionale.
- Schweinfurth, G. Il mio recente viaggio nell'Eritrea italiano. Milano: P. B. Bellini, 1894. 35 pp. Plates. 8°.
- Smith, A. Donaldson. Through unknown African countries. The first expedition from Somaliland to Lake Lamu. London: E. Arnold, 1897. xvi, 472 pp. Maps. Plates. Portrait. 8°.
- Zona, T. Avvenire coloniale d'Italia; nozioni utili all'emigrante. Palermo: Tip. del Giornale di Sicili, 1886. 61 pp. 8°.

## ARTICLES IN PERIODICALS.

1893. Notes sur l'Erythrée. L. Haneuse. Société royale belge de géographie, *Bulletin*, vol. 17 (1893), 42-74. "Record of a visit to Massowah and Asmara last winter."
1893. Itinerarii da Asmara verso sud del cap. G. Bettini. Società geografica italiana, *Bollettino*, vol. 6 (1893), 109-121. "Tables of time occupied between successive points on a series of journeys southward from Asmara."
1894. Herr G. Schweinfurth: Ueber seine letzte Reise mit Dr. Max Schoeller in der italienischen Erythraea. *Verhandlungen der Gesellschaft für Erdkunde*, Berlin, vol. 21 (1894), 379-430.
1894. Escursione dall'Asmara a Mai Daro attraverso al Deca-Tesfä. Nota del capitano F. Ciccodicola. (Map and illustrations.) Società Geografica Italiana, *Bollettino*, vol. 7 (1894), 774-788.
1894. Un'escursione nel Co-Häin, estratto dagli appunti di viaggio del cap. Niccolò Gentile. [With map of route.] Società geografica italiana, *Bollettino*, vol. 7 (1894), 162-174.
1894. Meine und Graf Richard Coudenhove's Reise nach Somali-Lande. Ernst, Graf Hoyos, jun. *Mittheilungen d. geographischen Gesellschaft*, Wien, vol. 37 (1894), 337-383.
1895. L'avvenire della colonia Eritria. L. Franchetti. Congresso geografico italiano, *Atti*, 1895, vol. 23-44.
1895. Les colonies italiennes. E. Brion. *Revue maritime et coloniale*, vol. 127 (1895), 225. "A general account of the Italian sphere of influence in East Africa."
1896. Reise des Fürsten Demeter Ghika Comanesti im Somalilande, 1895-96. With map. Philipp Paulitschke. *Petermann's Mittheilungen*, vol. 42 (1896), 245-252.
1896. Les explorations italiennes dans le pays des Somalis. Frederick Bonola. (With map.) Société khédiviale de géographie, *Bulletin*, 4<sup>e</sup> sér., (1896), 589-602.
1897. Die alten und neuen Greuzen Erythraä's. C. v. Bruchhausen. With map. *Globus*, vol. 72 (1897), 362.
1897. Dr. A. Donaldson Smith's Expedition durch das Somali- und Gala-Land zum Rudolf-See in den Jahren 1894 und 1895. Nebst Bemerkungen zur Karte von Dr. B. Hassenstein. (With map.) *Petermann's Mittheilungen*, vol. 43 (1897), 7-15.

1897. *Voyages en Abyssinie, 1889-1895.* (With illustrations.) Victor Buchs. Société neuchâteloise de géographie, Bulletin, vol. 9 (1897); 32-56. "Massawa is described in some detail, and journeys into the neighboring parts of Eritrea at less length."
1897. *Les explorations italiennes dans la péninsule des Somalis.* (With maps.) Noël. Questions diplomatiques et coloniales, vol. 1 (1897), 413-419.
1898. *Some account of Somaliland; with notes on journeys through the Gadabürsi and western Ogaden countries, 1896-1897.* Alfred E. Pease. Scottish Geographical Magazine, vol. 14 (1898), 57-73.
1898. *Voyage au Chou; exploration au Somal et chez les Danakils.* Vicomte E. de Poncius. Société de géographie de Paris, Bulletin, vol. 19 (1898), 432.
1899. *L'expansion coloniale italienne dans l'Amérique latine.* Enrico Barone. Nuova antologia, Sept. 16, 1899.
1899. *L'émigration italienne et la colonisation.* A. Ebray. Questions diplomatiques et coloniales, vol. 7 (1899), 201.
1899. *Colonizzazione e conquista.* Giuseppe Ricchieri. Rivista geografica italiana, vol. 6 (1899), 257-270, 345-356.

## SPANISH COLONIES.

- Antuvez y Acevedo, R. *Memorias históricas sobre la legislación y gobierno del comercio de los Españoles con sus colonias en las Indias occidentales.* Madrid: De Sancha, 1797. (4), xvi, 330 (2), cv pp. 8°.
- Blanco Herrero, Miguel. *Política de España.* 2ª edición. Madrid: Imprenta de Francisco G. Pérez, 1890. 674 pp. 8°.
- Blumentritt, F. *The separatist tendency in the Spanish colonies.* (In U. S. Bureau of Education. Annual report, 1897-98. pp. 925-936. Washington, 1899. Translated from "Deutsche Rundschau für Geographie und Wissenschaft," 1898.)
- Bonnycastle, R. H. *Spanish America; or, A descriptive, historical, and geographical account of the dominions of Spain in the western hemisphere, continental and insular.* Philadelphia: Printed and published by Abraham Small, 1819. 482 pp. Folded maps. 8°.
- Campbell, John. *A concise history of the Spanish America; containing a succinct relation of the discovery and settlement of its several colonies; a circumstantial detail of their respective situation, extent, commodities, trade, etc., and a full and clear account of the commerce with Old Spain by the galleons flota, etc. Collected chiefly from Spanish writers.* London: Printed for John Stagg and Daniel Browne, MDCCXLI. vii (4), 330 pp. 8°. Chapter IX, pp. 154-175, "Of the islands of Cuba, Hispaniola, and Porto Rico."
- Cappa, R. *Estudios críticos acerca de la dominación española en América.* Madrid: Imprenta de Luis Aguado, 1889-97. 26 vols. 8°.
- Castillo, Rafael del. *Gran diccionario, geográfico, estadístico é histórico de España y sus provincias de Cuba, Puerto Rico, Filipinas y posesiones de África.* Habiendo servido de base para su confección el censo de 1887, las estadísticas más recientes y gran número de datos particulares comprobados con la mayor escrupulosidad. Acompañan al diccionario el mapa general de España, el de carreteras y ferrocarriles, el postal telegráfico, el de Cuba y Puerto Rico y el de Filipinas. Barcelona: Imprenta de Henrich y Compañía, 1891. 3 vols. Folded maps. F°.
- Colección de documentos inéditos relativos al descubrimiento, conquista y colonización de las posesiones españolas en América y Oceanía. T. 1-42. Madrid, 1864-84. 42 vols. 8°. Continued as:—
- Colección de documentos inéditos relativos al descubrimiento, conquista y organización de las antiguas posesiones españolas de ultramar. 2ª serie, publicada por la Real Academia de la historia. T. 1-11. Madrid: Rivadeneyra, 1885-98. 11 vols. 8°. Contents: 1. Cuba. 2-4. Las islas Filipinas. 5. Ensayo histórico sobre la legislación de los Estados españoles de ultramar; documentos legislativos. 6. Cuba. 7-8. De los pleitos de Colón. 9-10. Documentos legislativos. 11. Relaciones de Yucatán.
- Colección legislativa de España. Decretos del rey, etc. Madrid: Impr. del ministerio de gracia y justicia, 1810-93. 146 vols. L. 8°.
- Fabié, A. M. *Ensayo histórico sobre la legislación de los Estados españoles de ultramar.* Madrid: Rivadeneyra, 1897. 336 pp. 4°.
- Gelpi y Ferro, G. *Estudios sobre la América. Conquista, colonización, gobiernos coloniales y gobiernos independientes.* Habana, 1864-70. 4 vols. 8°.
- Helps, Sir Arthur. *The Spanish conquest in America.* London: J. W. Parker, 1855-61. 4 vols. 8°.
- Humboldt, Friedrich Heinrich Alexander, Freiherr von. *Political essay on the kingdom of New Spain; with physical sections and maps.* Translated from the French by John Black. London, 1811-12. 4 vols. 8°.
- Same. Translated from the original French by John Black. New York, 1811. 2 vols. 8°.
- *Ensayo político sobre el reyno de Nueva España.* Madrid, 1818. 12°.
- *Essai politique sur l'île de Cuba. Avec une carte et un supplément qui renferme des considérations sur la population, la richesse territoriale et le commerce de l'archipel des Antilles et de Colombie.* Paris: J. Smith, 1826. 2 vols. 8°.
- Kottenkamp, Franz. *Geschichte der Kolonisation Amerikas.* Frankfurt am Main: J. Rütten, 1850. 2 vols. 8°. Band 1. "Spanische Kolonisation und Herrschaft von der Entdeckung bis 1809."
- Labra, Rafael M. de. *La autonomía colonial en España.* Madrid: Imprenta de los Sucesores de Cuesta. 1892. lii, 314 (1) pp. 16°. Contents: Prólogo; La cuestión del día; Los partidos de las Antillas; Los autonomistas en las Antillas y en la Península; Los progresos de los partidos autonomistas de Cuba y Puerto Rico.
- *La cuestión colonial.* Madrid: Tipografía de Gregorio Estrada, 1869. 118 pp. 12°.
- *Política y sistemas coloniales.* Conferencias dados en el Ateneo de Madrid. Madrid: Valverde, 1874. viii, 93 pp. 8°.
- Leroy-Beaulieu, Pierre Paul. *De la colonisation cluz les peuples modernes, 4ª edition, revue, corrigée et augmentée.* Paris: Guillaumin, 1898. xix, (1), 865 pp. 8°. "La colonisation espagnole," pp. 1-40; 251-273.
- Moses, Bernard. *The establishment of Spanish rule in America, an introduction to the history and politics of Spanish America.* G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York and London, 1898. x, (2), 328 pp. 12°.
- Perojo, José del. *Ensayos de político colonial.* Madrid: Imprenta de Miguel Ginesta, 1885. xvi, 384 pp. 16°. "Discusses the Cuban question; the general principles of Spanish colonization in comparison with those of Holland and England."
- Spain. *Estadística general del comercio exterior de España, con sus provincias de ultramar y potencias extranjeras en 1889.* Formada por la dirección general de contribuciones indirectas. Madrid: Imprenta de la "Fábrica nacional del timbre," 1890. 4°.
- Veitia Linage, José de. *The rule establish'd in Spain for the trade in the West Indies.* Translated from the Spanish by Captain John Stevens. London: Printed by Samuel Crouch [1715?]. (26), 367, (9) pp. 12°.
- Watson, R. G. *Spanish and Portuguese South America during the colonial period.* London: Trübner, 1884. 2 vols. 8°.
- Zimmermann, Alfred. *Die Kolonialpolitik Portugals und Spaniens in ihrer Entwicklung von den Anfängen bis zur Gegenwart dargestellt. Mit einer Karte in Steindruck: Uebersicht der portugiesischen und spanischen Kolonialbesitzes gegen Mitte des 16. Jahrhunderts.* Berlin: E. S. Mittler und Sohn, 1896. xvi, 515 pp. Folded map. 8°. "Includes a historical survey of Spanish government of the Philippin."

## CUBA.

## SELECTED LIST OF BOOKS TREATING OF SPANISH ADMINISTRATION.

- Abbad y Lasiera, Ifigo. Historia geográfica, civil y política de la isla de S. Juan Bautista de Puerto Rico. Dala á luz Antonio Valladares de Sotomayor. Madrid: MDCCLXXXVIII. (8), 403 pp. Sm. 4°.
- Castillo, Rafael del. Gran diccionario, geográfico, estadístico é histórico, de España y sus provincias de Cuba, Puerto Rico, Filipinas y posesiones de África. Habiendo servido de base para su confección el censo de 1887, las estadísticas más recientes y gran número de datos particulares comprobados con la mayor escrupulosidad. Acompañan al diccionario el mapa general de España, el de carreteras y ferrocarriles, el postal telegráfico, el de Cuba y Puerto Rico y el de Filipinas. Barcelona: Imprenta de Henrich y Compañía, 1891. 3 vols. Folded maps. F°.
- Colección de reales órdenes, decretos y disposiciones. Habana, 1898. 3 vols. 8°.
- Concha, José de la, Marqués de la Habana. Memorias sobre el estado político, gobierno y administracion de la isla de Cuba. Por el Teniente General Don José de la Concha. Madrid, 1853. ix (1), 362, 41 (2) pp. Folded map. 8°.
- Cuyas, Arturo, and others. The new constitutional laws for Cuba. Text of the recent measures for the self-government of the island, with comments thereon. Also a brief review of the evolution of Spanish colonization, and a statistical comparison of the progress of Cuba under Spanish rule with that of independent Spanish-American countries. New York, 1897. 168 pp. 8°.
- "Consists of three articles by Arturo Cuyas, Antonia Cuyas, L. V. Abad de Las Casas, presenting the text of the reform law of 1895, with expository comments, constituting a justification of the Spanish policy."
- Delorme del Salto, R. Cuba y la reforma colonial en España. Madrid: Imprenta de Diego Pacheco Latorre. 61 pp. 4°.
- Díaz Caneja, Ignacio. La cuestion ultramarina; bosquejo crítico é histórico, político y gubernativo, administrativo y económico. Puerto Rico: Imprenta del "Boletín mercantil," 1885. ix, 337 pp. 8°.
- Hazard, Samuel. Cuba with pen and pencil. Hartford, Conn.: Hartford Publishing Co., 1871. 584 pp. Woodcuts. 8°.
- Humboldt, Friedrich Heinrich Alexander, Freiherr von. Ensayo político sobre la isla de Cuba, por el Barón A. de Humboldt, con un mapa; obra traducida al castellano por D. José Lopez de Bustamante. Nueva edición. Paris: 1840. xxxii, 361, (3) pp. 8°.
- . Essai politique sur l'île de Cuba. Avec une carte et un supplément qui renferme des considérations sur la population, la richesse territoriale et le commerce de l'archipel des Antilles et de Colombie. Paris: J. Smith, 1826. 2 vols. 8°.
- Imberno, José. Guía geográfica y administrativa de la isla de Cuba. Habana, 1891. 8°.
- [Madan, Cristóbal.] Llamamiento de la isla de Cuba á la nación española, dirigido al excmo. é illmo. Señor Don Baldomaro Espartero, duque de la Victoria, presidente del consejo de ministros, por un hacendado, en diciembre de 1854. New York: Imprenta de E. Hallet [1856]. (8), 234 vi pp. 8°.
- "Examines into the workings of the Spanish colonial system from a Cuban standpoint."
- Morales, Francisco García. Guía de gobierno y policía de la isla de Cuba. 2ª edición. Habana, 1899. 8°.
- Pepper, Charles M. To-morrow in Cuba. New York and London: Harper & Brothers, 1899. (8), 362 pp. Folded map. 8°. Contains much information of value on Spanish administrative methods.
- Pezuela, Jacob de la. Diccionario geográfico, estadístico histórico de la isla de Cuba. Madrid: 1863-1866. 4 vols. L. 8°.
- . Historia de la isla de Cuba. Madrid: Carlos Bailly-Baillière, 1868. 2 vols. 8°.
- Sagra, Ramón de la. Historia económico-política y estadística de la isla de Cuba ó sea de sus progresos en la población, la agricultura, el comercio y las rentas. Habana, 1831. (4), xiii (5), 386, (1) pp. 4°.
- Sedano y Agramonte, José. El libro del ciudadano español; derechos políticos y administrativos 2ª edición. Habana, 1889. 8°.

## PHILIPPINES.

## SELECTED LIST OF BOOKS TREATING OF SPANISH ADMINISTRATION.

- Aguilar, F. M. Colonización de Filipinas. Estudios prácticos acerca de la colonización, con elementos peninsulares, de nuestras posesiones oceánicas. Reseña geogr.-geológico-mineralógica. Madrid: Tip. de A. Alonso, 1893. xii, 417 pp. Map. 4°.
- Alcázar, J. de. Historia de los dominios españoles en Oceanía (Filipinas). Madrid: La Fuente, 1898. vi, 190 pp. 28 plates. Map. 8°.
- Asensio, Vicente Llorens. Historia general de las Filipinas. Madrid: Murillo, 1898-99. 8°.
- Blumentritt, F. Die comandancia político-militar Escolante des Insel Negros (Philippinen). In Petermann's Mittheilungen, vol. 31, 121-122. Gotha, 1845.
- . Organisation communale des indigènes des Philippines placés sous la domination espagnole. Traduit de l'allemand, par A. Hugot. (In Société académique indo-chinoise. Bulletin, 2ª série, Tome 1, pp. 145-153. Paris, 1882.)
- Borrero, Francisco. Cuestiones filipinas, memoria. Madrid: M. Minuesa de los Ríos, 1896. 57 pp. 8°.
- Buzeta, Manuel, and Felipe Brave. Diccionario geográfico, estadístico, histórico de las islas filipinas. Madrid, 1850-51. 2 vols. Folded plans. Folded sheets. Portraits. L. 8°.
- Cabezas de Herrera, J. Apuntes históricos sobre la organización político-administrativa de Filipinas. (In Boletín de la Real Sociedad económica filipina, año 2, pp. 52-56, 70-73, 86-90. Manila, 1883.)
- Comenge, Rafael. Cuestiones filipinas. 1ª parte: Los Chinos. Madrid: Libr. de Fé., 1894. 470 pp. 8°.
- Comyn, Tomás de. State of the Philippine islands; being an historical, statistical, and descriptive account of that interesting portion of the Indian archipelago. Translated from the Spanish, with notes and a preliminary discourse by William Walton. London: Printed for T. and J. Allman, 1821. ciii, (1), 306 pp. Folded map. 8°.
- Delgado, Juan J. Biblioteca histórica general, sacro-profana, política y natural de las islas del Poniente llamadas Filipinas. Manila: Imprenta de El Eco de Filipinas de Juan Atayde, 1892. (8), xvi, 1009 pp. 4°.
- Foreman, J. The Philippine islands. A political, geographical, social, and commercial history of the Philippine archipelago and its political dependencies, embracing the whole period of Spanish rule. 2d edition, revised and enlarged. London: S. Low, Marston & Co., 1899. xvi, 653 pp. 19 plates. Portrait. Maps. 8°.
- Fulgoso, Fernando. Crónica de las islas filipinas. Madrid: Rubio, Grilo y Vitturi, 1871. 133, (3) pp. Woodcuts in the text. Portraits. Maps. F°. (Crónica general de España, T. 12.)
- Grau y Figueoras, Casimiro de. Memoria sobre la población y riqueza de las islas filipinas y reformas económico-administrativas que el gobierno español debe plantear para la prosperidad de aquellas posesiones y del estado. Barcelona: Imprenta de Ramiroz, 1855. 32 pp. 4°.



- Instituto geográfico y estadística de España, Madrid. *Reseña geográfica y estadística de España*. Madrid: Imprenta de la Dirección general del Instituto geográfico y estadístico, 1888. xxiv, 1116. (1) pp. Folded map. F°. Pages 1069-1088, contain "Breve reseña del archipiélago filipino y de las islas Marianas, Carolinas y Palaos."
- Jordana y Morera, Ramón. *Bosquejo geográfico e histórico natural del archipiélago filipino*. Publicado de real orden en vista del favorable informe de la Real Academia de ciencias exactas, físicas y naturales. Madrid: Imprenta de Moreno y Tojas, 1885. xiv, (2), 461 pp. Colored plates.
- Lala, Ramón Reyes. *The Philippine islands*. New York: Continental Publishing Company, 1899. 342 pp. Illustrated. Photogravures in the text. Map. Portraits. L. 8°. Contents: Early history of the islands; The British occupation; The Spanish colonial government; The church in the colony; The various tribes of the Philippines; The Mohammedans of Sulu; Manila; Iloilo, capital of the province of Panay; Cebu, a Mecca for many Filipinos; General topography of the islands; Natural beauty of the archipelago; A village feast; History of commerce in the Philippines; Agriculture; The sugar and rice crops; The hemp plant and its uses; Culture and use of tobacco; Cultivation of coffee; Betelnut, grain, and fruit growing; Useful woods and plants; Mineral wealth of the islands; Animal life in the colony; Struggle of the Filipinos for liberty; Dewey at Manila; The American occupation.
- Mallat, J. *Les Philippines; histoire, géographie, mœurs, agriculture, industrie et commerce des colonies espagnoles dans l'Océanie*. Paris: A. Bertrand, 1846. 2 vols. Folded sheets. 8°. Atlas, 5 colored plates, 4 plans, map.
- Malo de Luque, Eduardo. *Historia política de los establecimientos ultramarinos de las naciones Europeas*. Madrid: Por Antonio de Sancha, año de MDCCCLXXXIV-MDCCXC. 5 vols. Folded maps. 8°. (This is merely a translation of Raynal.) Vol. 5 is mainly devoted to the Spanish conquest and occupation of the Philippines. Chapter III: Idea general de la España hasta el tiempo de sus establecimientos en el archipiélago indico. Chapter IV: Descripción de los archipiélagos asiáticos del dominio español. Chapter VII: Conquista de las Filipinas. Chapter VIII: Causas de la decadencia de las Filipinas. Chapter IX: Sitio, asalto y saqueo de Manila por los Ingleses en 1762. Chapter X: Defensa de las islas después de pérdida su capital; sucesos sus acaecidos hasta su restitución. Chapter XI: Estado de las Filipinas desde el año de 1764 hasta el de 1785. Chapter XII: Erección de la Real compañía de Filipinas; sus operaciones y su estado hasta 1790.
- Martínez de Zúñiga, Joaquín. *Estadismo de las islas filipinas, 6 mis viajes por este país*. Publica esta obra por primera vez extensamente anotada W. E. Retana. Madrid: En la imprenta de la vinda de Minuesa de los Ríos, 1893. 2 vols. 8°. Volume 2, Apéndice A, consists of notes and illustrative documents to the text by the editor, W. E. Retana; Apéndice B (pp. \*93-\*352) consists of a bibliography; Apéndice C, "Lugares geográficos."
- Milan y Villanueva, C. *El gran problema de las reformas en Filipinas*. Manila: Lafont, 1898. 12 pp. 8°.
- Montero y Vidal, José. *Historia general de Filipinas desde el descubrimiento de dichas islas hasta nuestros días*. Madrid: Tello, 1887-1895. 3 vols. 8°. Contents: I. 1519-1759. II. 1759-1837. III. 1837-1873.
- Morga, Antonio de. *The Philippine islands, Moluccas, Siam, Cambodia, Japan, and China, at the close of the 16th century*. Translated from the Spanish, with notes and a preface, and a letter from Luis de Torres describing his voyage through the Torres Straits, by Henry J. Stanly. London: Printed for the Hakluyt Society, 1868. (6), ii, (2), xxiv, (2), 431 pp. Portraits and folded plates. 8°. "Capture of Manila by the English in 1762; Chinese insurrection in Manila; Administration of justice; Taxation; Produce; Trade; Agriculture and manufactures, etc. Letter of Luis Vaez de Torres, relating to his voyage through the Torres Straits, dated Manila, July 12, 1608; Table of parochial clergy, 1867." (The statistical data in the appendix are derived from consular reports and Mallat's "Philippines," etc.)
- Navarro, Ed. *Filipinas; estudios de algunos asuntos de actualidad*. Madrid: Imprenta Minuesa de los Ríos, 1897. xi, 285 pp. 4°.
- Paterno, P. A. *El regimen municipal en las islas Filipinas*. Real decreto de 19 de Mayo, 1893. Madrid, Estab. tipog. de los sucesores de Cuesta, 1893. (8), 280 pp. 12°.
- Retana, W. E. *Folleto filipinas (políticos): 1. Frailes y clérigos*. 2ª edición, corregida y aumentada. Madrid, 1891. 142 pp. 12°.
2. *Apuntes para la historia*. Madrid, 1890. 96 pp. 12°.
3. *Sinapismos*. Primera serie. Madrid, 1890. 96 pp. 8°.
4. *Reformas y otros excesos*. Madrid, 1890. 967 pp. 8°.
- Rodríguez Bériz, Miguel. *Diccionario de la administración de Filipinas por D. Miguel Rodríguez Bériz, jefe letrado de la administración central de rentas, propiedades y aduanas*. Primera edición. With apéndice, 2 vols., 1888. Manila: Impreso por Pérez, 1887-88. 15 vols. 8°. Continued as—
- *Anuario, 1888-90*. Manila: Impreso de Pérez. 2 vols. 4°. "Continúa publicandose esta obra, que ha venido á deprecier la de Rodríguez San Pedro, en lo que á las Filipinas se refiere. Tipográficamente considerada es una ignominia."
- Salcedo, Juan. *Proyectos de dominación y colonización, año de 1891*. Gerona, 1894. 188 pp. 8 tables. Map. 8°. "The author was governor of Mindanao in 1888. Treats of the military and colonial politics of Spain as relate to the Philippines."
- Sastrón, Manuel. *Colonización de Filipinas, inmigración peninsular*. Malabon: Tip. del Asilo de Huérfanos, 1897. 115 pp. 4°. "The little volume before us is an exposition of the conditions that would confront the settlers of Spanish blood (peninsulares) in their new home. It deals primarily with the problem of agricultural colonization, but also discusses the situation presented by the islands with respect to the importation of laborers and handicraftsmen of all kinds. The author has filled the position of civil governor in several provinces of the archipelago, has sat in the Spanish Cortes, and is a doctor of medicine. He writes from the standpoint of the Castilian who would shed the last drop of his blood for the maintenance of the integrity of the Spanish realm."—The Nation, Aug. 14, 1899.
- *Filipinas. Pequeños estudios*. Batangas y su provincia. Malabon, 1895. (6), 373 pp. Map. 8°. "Don Manuel Sastrón, Gouverneur der im südlichen Teile Luzons gelegenen Provinz Batangas, giebt im vorliegenden Buche eine Beschreibung der genannten Landschaft, wobei die Topographie und die politische Verwaltung den grössten Raum einnehmen und auch sehr brauchbares Material dem Geographen und Statistiker liefern. Die Karte, im Masstabe 1:400,000, ist sehr gut ausgestattet. Möchten nur die anderen Provinzgouverneure der Philippinen dem verdienstvollen Beispiele Sastróns folgen. Die Monographien von Nueva Ecija (von Rajal) und von Zambales (Cañamaque), sowie die vorliegende von Batangas sind sehr wertvolle Bereicherungen der topographischen Litteratur der Philippinen."—Blumentritt.
- Scheidnagel, M. *Las colonias españolas de Asia*. Islas Filipinas. Madrid: Murillo, 1880. 208 pp. Map. 4°.
- *Colonización española*. Estudios acerca de la misma en nuestras posesiones de Oceanía. Con un prólogo de Emilio Bonelli. Madrid: Librería de Fernando Fé, 1893. xviii, (2), 117 (2) pp. 12°. "On the problem of colonial management of the Philippines."
- Spain. *Archipiélago filipino. Régimen político-administrativo para el porvenir*. Madrid: Camacho, 1898. 88 pp. 4°.
- *Estadística general del comercio exterior de las islas Filipinas en 1894*. Publicada por la Intendencia general de hacienda. Manila, 1896. 458 pp. F°.
- Taviel de Andrade, E. *Historia de la exposición de las islas Filipinas en Madrid el año de 1887, con una explicación de su posición geográfica, de como las hemos adquirido y un compendio de la historia de las Marianas, Carolinas, Filipinas y Palaos*. Madrid: Gómez y Peréz. xv, 120, 256 pp. 8°.



Torrubia, Joseph. *Dissertación histórico-política, y en mucha parte geográfica, de las islas filipinas, extensión del Mahometismo en ellas, grandes estragos, que han hecho los Mindanaos, Joloos, Camerones, y confederados de esta secta en nuestros pueblos christianos, etc. Pónese una razón compendiosa de los fondos, y destinos del Gran Monte Piedad de la casa de la misericordia de la ciudad de Manila.* Madrid: En la imprenta de Agustín de Gordejuela y Sierra, año de 1753. (48), 115 pp. 32°. "Appended is a catechism in the Tagalog language." (19) pp. [Colophon:] En Manila: en la imprenta de la Compañía de Iesus, por D. Nicolas de la Cruz Baga y año de 1765.

## CAROLINE ISLANDS.

Bartoli, Manuel Escude. *Las Carolinas.* Descripción geográfica y estadística del archipiélago carolino, con datos recopilados y ampliados. Barcelona, 1885. 111 pp. 12°.

Bastian, A. *Die micronesischen Colonien aus ethnologischen Gesichtspunkten.* Berlin, 1899. vii, 370 pp. 8°.

Cabeza, Perciro A. *Estudios sobre Carolinas.* La isla de Ponapé. Geografía, etnografía, historia. Manila, 1895. Plates. Maps. 8°.

Christian, F. W. *The Caroline Islands. Travel in the sea of the Little Lands.* London: Methuen, 1899. xiv, 412 pp. Plates. Maps. Plans. 8°.

Miguel, G. de. *Estudio sobre las islas Carolinas.* Comprende la historia y geografía de los 36 grupos que forman el archipiélago Carolino, seguido de la descripción de todas las islas del océano Pacífico, situadas entre el ecuador y el paralelo 10° N. Madrid: Imprenta de José Perales y Martínez, 1887. xiv, 207 pp. 8°. Atlas, F°.

Taviel de Andrade, Enrique. *Historia del conflicto de las Carolinas.* Prueba del derecho de soberanía que sobre ellas posee España y demostración de la trascendencia que tiene la mediación del papa. Madrid: Manuel Tello, 1886. xix, (3), 426 pp. 8°.

## ARTICLES IN PERIODICALS, 1898-99.

1898. Spain and the Caroline Islands. E. E. Strong. *Am. Rev. of Reviews*, vol. 17 (June, 1898), 706-709. Illustrated. Map. *Living Age*, vol. 217 (June 11, 1898), 759-761.
1898. Spanish traits and the New World. S. Baxter. *Am. Rev. of Reviews*, vol. 18 (Aug., 1898), 196-198.
1898. Spain and her American colonies. T. S. Woolsey. *Century*, vol. 56 (Sept., 1898), 715-719.
1898. Zusammenbruch der spanischen Kolonialmacht. C. Peters. *Deutsches Wochenblatt*, No. 29, 1898.
1898. Zur Geschichte des Separatismus der spanischen Kolonien. F. Blumentritt. *Deutsche Rundschau für Geographie* (July, 1898), 104-127. (Translation in U. S. Bureau of Education, Annual Report, 1897-98, pp. 925-936. Washington, 1899.)
1898. Ausgang des spanischen Kolonialreichs. A. Zimmermann. *Geographische Zeitschrift* (1898), 425-431.
1898. Possible salvation of Spain. *Nation*, vol. 67 (July 28, 1898), 67.
1898. Spaniards in Cuba. A. G. Pérez. *Nineteenth Century*, vol. 44 (Aug., 1898) 196-207; *Eclectic Mag.*, vol. 131 (Sept., 1898), 395-402.
1898. La Spagna e la Filipina. *Nuova Antologia*, vol. 77, p. 538.
1898. La Guinca española y los problemas africanos. Según D. Rafael Maria de Labra. *Soc. geográfica de Madrid, Boletín* (1898), 217-228.
1898. Wie Spanien seine Kolonien verlor. A. Franz. *Velhagen und Klasing's Monatshefte* (Sept., 1898), 83-88.
1898. Das Ende der spanischen Kolonial-Herrschaft. A. Charpentier. *Die Zeit*, No. 193.
1898. Wie haben die Spanier ihre Kolonien behandelt? Ph. Woker. *Die Zeit*, No. 198.
1899. Das Ende der spanischen Kolonialmacht. With map. *Deutsche Rundschau für Geographie*, vol. 21 (1899), 273.
1899. Die geographischen Ursachen von Spaniens Niedergang. Prof. Julius Maerker. (On the geographical causes of the decline of Spain.) *Geographische Zeitschrift*, vol. 5 (1899), 177-189.
1899. Spanish colonial possessions. D. Dorchester. *Am. Rev. of Reviews*, vol. 19 (Feb., 1899), 201.
1899. Exploration in the Caroline Islands. F. W. Christian. *Geographical Jour.*, vol. 13 (Feb., 1899), 105.
1899. What Spain can teach America. N. Estévez. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 168 (May, 1899), 563-569.
1899. Last of Spain's colonial empire. *Public Opinion*, vol. 26 (June 29, 1899), 810.
1899. Spain's sale of colonies. *Chautauquan*, vol. 29 (July, 1899), 383.
1899. Espagne; état actuel des ses colonies. *Revue Encyclopédique* (Oct. 7, 1899), 857.
1899. Her (Spain's) policy in the Philippines. R. R. Lala. *Independent*, vol. 51 (Oct. 12, 1899), 2738-2743.

## PORTUGUESE COLONIES.

- Alcoforado, Francisco. *An historical account of the discovery of the island of Madeira, abridged from the Portuguese original. To which is added an account of the present state of the island.* (1748.) London: J. Payne and J. Bouquet, 1756. (2), x, 88 pp. 8°.
- *Relation historique de la découverte de l'île de Madère.* Paris: L. Billaine, 1671. (6), 185 pp. 16°.
- *Relation historique de la découverte de l'île de Madère; traduit du portugais.* Paris: Renou et Maulde, 1869. 8°.
- Aldama-Ayala, José de. *Compendio geográfico-estadístico de Portugal y sus posesiones ultramarinas.* Madrid, 1880. 8°.
- Andrade Corvo, J. de. *Estudios sobre as provincias ultramarinas.* Lisboa, 1883-87. 4 vols. 8°.
- Barré, Henri. *Les colonies portugaises.* (In Société de géographie de Marseille. *Bulletin*, vol. 22, pp. 117-142. 1898.)
- Bettencourt, E. A. de. *Descobrimientos, guerras e conquistas dos Portuguezas em terras do ultramar nos seculos 15 e 16.* Lisboa, 1881-82. 8°.
- Biddle, A. J. Drexel. *The Madeira islands.* Philadelphia and New York: Drexel Biddle, 1900. 2 vols. Maps and illustrations. 8°.
- Contents: Volume I. History of the Madeiras; information for the traveler and visitor; a treatise descriptive of the natives, their characteristics, religion, laws, and customs, and an account of the commerce. Volume II. Geography and geology, the flora, the vine and the wine, and the fauna.
- Bourke, D. R. W., 7th Earl of Mayo. *De rebus Africanis; the claims of Portugal to the Congo.* London: W. H. Allen, 1883. 8°.
- Capello, H., and R. Ivens. *De Angola á Contra Costa.* Lisboa, 1886. 2 vols. Illustrations. Maps. 8°.

- Castro, Alfonso de. *As possessões portuguezas na Oceania*. Lisboa: Imprensa nacional, 1867. (4), xxi, (3), 460, (1) pp. 2 folded maps. 8°.
- Danvers, Frederick Charles. *The Portuguese in India*. London: W. H. Allen & Co., 1894. 2 vols. 8°.
- D'Orsey, A. J. D. *Portuguese discoveries, dependencies, and missions in Asia and Africa*. London: W. H. Allen. xvi, 434 pp. 6 maps. 12°.
- Gomes da Costa, —. *Gaza, 1897-98*. Lisboa: M. Gomes. [1899.] 176 pp. Maps and illustrations. 8°. "The southern portion of Portuguese East Africa is treated under the heads of physical geography, general aspect, races, customs, history, fauna, flora, agriculture, climate, and health, commerce, justice, routes, public works, and military and political organization."
- Grémiaux, Ch. *Les possessions portugaises dans l'extrême orient*. Paris: Challamel aîné, 1883. 40 pp. 8°.
- Jessett, Montague George. *The key to South Africa: Delagoa Bay*. London: T. Fisher Unwin, 1899. xviii, 178 pp. With maps and illustrations. 8°.
- Kerhallet, Charles Marie Philippes de. *Les îles du Cap-Vert*. Revu par A. Le Gras. Paris: Imp. P. Dupont, lib. Bossange, 1868. viii, 66 pp. 8°.
- . *The Cape Verde islands*. Translated from the French, with additions to the present date, by William H. Parker. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1873. 45 pp. 8°. (United States Bureau of Navigation. Hydrographic office. Publication No. 51.)
- . *Madeira, the Salvages, and the Canary islands*. With additions by George M. Totten. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1874. 90 pp. 8°. (United States Bureau of Navigation. Hydrographic office. Publication No. 51.)
- La Teillais, Jules de. *Étude historique, économique et politique sur les colonies portugaises, leur passé, leur avenir*. Paris: P. Dupont, 1870. 279 pp. 8°.
- Leroy-Beaulieu, Pierre Paul. *De la colonisation chez les peuples modernes*. 4<sup>e</sup> edition. Paris: Guillaumin, 1898. xix (1), 865 pp. 8°. "La colonisation portugaise," pp. 41-59.
- Lopes de Lima, J. J. de. *Ensaio sobre a statistica das possessões portuguezas na Africa occidental e oriental, na Asia occidental, na China, e na Oceania*. T. 1-4, 5, pt. 1. Lisboa: Imprensa nacional, 1844-1862. 5 vols. Folded maps. 8°. Contents: 1. Ilhas de Cabo Verde e suas dependencias. 2. Ilhas de S. Thomé e Príncipe e suas dependencias. 3. Angola, Benguela, e suas dependencias. 4. Moçambique e suas dependencias. 5, part 1. Goa, Damão, e suas dependencias.
- Monteiro, Rose. *Delagoa Bay; its natives and natural history*. London: Philip, 1891. Illustrations. 8°.
- Oliveira Martins, J. P. *O Brasil e as colonias portuguezas*. Lisboa, 1880. 8°.
- Os Portuguezes em Africa, Asia, America, e Oceanica. Lisboa, 1848-50. 8 vols. in 4. Portraits. 8°. Contents: I and II. Indice chronologico dos navegações, viagens, \* \* \* dos Portuguezes nos paizes ultramarinos. III-VII. Resumo historico das decobertas e conquistas dos Portuguezes n'Africa, Asia, America, e Oceania, acompanhada de noções sobre os usos, religião, dos povos indigenas, e de diversos apontamentos historicos do Vde. de Santarem, etc. VIII. Dictionario geographico das provincias e possessões portuguezas no ultramar \* \* \* por J. M. de Souza Monteiro.
- Pery, Gerardo A. *Geographia e estadística geral de Portugal e colonias*. Com um atlas. Lisboa: Imprensa nacional, 1875. xvi, 403, (2) pp. Folded maps. 8°.
- Pinheiro Chagas, M. *As colonias portuguezas no seculo xix*. Lisboa, 1890. 228 pp. 8°.
- Serpa Pinto, A. de. *Como eu atravessei Africa: do Atlantico ao mar Indico, viagem de Benguela é Contra-Costa a través regiões desconhecidas; determinações geographicas e estudos ethnographicos*. Contendo 15 mappas e facsimiles, e 133 gravuras feitas dos desenhos do autor. Londres: S. Low, 1881. 2 vols. 8°.
- . *How I crossed Africa; from the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean, through unknown countries, discovery of the Great Zambesi affluents, etc*. Translated by Alfred Elwes. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1881. 2 vols. Maps and illustrations. 8°.
- . *Comment j'ai traversé l'Afrique depuis l'Atlantique jusqu'à l'océan Indien, de Benguela à Durban à travers des régions inconnues*. Ouvrage traduit, d'après l'édition anglaise collationnée sur le texte portugais, par J. Belin de Launay, contenant 15 cartes et facsimile et 160 gravures. Paris: Hachette & Cie., 1882. 2 vols. T. 1, xxxi, 456 pp.; t. 2, 472 pp. 8°.
- Strandes, Justus. *Die Portugiesenzeit von Deutsch- und Englisch-Ostafrika*. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer (Ernst Vohsen), 1899. xii, 348 pp. Maps and illustrations. 8°. "On the period of Portuguese predominance in East Africa, with special reference to Kilwa and Mombasa."
- Ternant, Victor. *Les colonies portugaises*. Illustré par Henry de Ternant. Paris: Alcan Lévy, à la Société d'études coloniales et maritimes, 22 novemb 1890. 67 pp. 8°.
- Theal, George McCall. *The Portuguese in South Africa*. London: Unwin, 1896. xvi, 324 pp. Map. 8°.
- Vasconcellos, E. J. de C. *As colonias portuguezas*. Geographia physica, politica e economica. Lisboa: Companhia nacional editoria. 1896. 444 pp. 8°. "A handbook of the Portuguese colonies in the Cape Verde, East and West Africa, India, Macao, and Timor, forming a detailed description of all the colonial possessions of Portugal, very clearly arranged, and the descriptions fortified with official statistics."
- . *Les colonies portugaises*. (In *Revue encyclopédique*, vol. 8, pp. 471-480. Paris, 1898.)
- Vogel, Ch. *Le Portugal et ses colonies; tableau politique et commercial de la monarchie portugaise dans son état actuel; avec des annexes et des notes supplémentaires*. Paris: Guillaumin et Cie., 1860. xii, 644 pp. 8°.
- Watson, R. G. *Spanish and Portuguese in South America during the colonial period*. London: Trübner, 1884. 2 vols. 8°.
- Worsfold, W. B. *Portuguese Nyassaland: An account of the discovery, native population, agriculture, and mineral resources, and present administration of the territory of the Nyassa Company*. With a review of the Portuguese rule on the east coast of Africa. London: Low, 1899. vi, 296 pp. Illustrations. Maps. 8°.
- Zimmermann, Alfred. *Die Kolonialpolitik Portugals und ihre Entwicklung von den Anfängen bis zur Gegenwart*. Mit einer Karte in Steindruck: Uebersicht des portugiesischen und spanischen Kolonial-Besitzes gegen Mitte des 16ten Jahrhunderts. Berlin: Ernst Siegfried Mittler und Sohn, 1896. xvi, 515 pp. 8°. (Die europäischen Kolonien, B. 1.)
1900. *Koloniales aus Portugal*. C. Singelmann. *Deutsche Kolonialzeitung*, vol. 17 (Mar. 22, 1900), 138.

### ANGLO-SAXON INTERESTS, ETC.

- Callahan, James Morton. *The neutrality of the American lakes and Anglo-American relations*. Baltimore, Jan.-Apr., 1898. 199 pp. 8°. (Johns Hopkins University studies in historical and political science, nos. 1-4.)
- Demolins, Edmond. *Anglo-Saxon superiority; to what it is due*. Translated by L. B. Lavigne. London: The Leadenhall Press, 1898. xl, 427 pp. 8vo.

- Freeman, E. A. The English people in its three homes. (In his Lectures to American audiences, pp. 7-201. Philadelphia (1882).)
- Greater Greece and Greater Britain, and George Washington, the expander of England. Two lectures, with an appendix. London: Macmillan, 1886. 143 pp. 12°.
- Gardiner, Charles A. The proposed Anglo-American alliance; an address delivered before the American Social Science Association, August 31, 1898. New York and London: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1898. (2), 30 pp. 12°. (Questions of the day, no. 92.)
- Gorren, Aline. Anglo-Saxons and others. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1900. (4), 158 pp. 8°. Contents: Certain sociologists and the Anglo-Saxons; The new empire; The gospel of action; Anglo-Saxon humanitarianism; The religious-commercial instinct; The higher civilization; Relative ethics.
- Hosmer, James K. A short history of Anglo-Saxon freedom. The polity of the English-speaking race outlined in its inception, development, diffusion, and present condition. New York: C. Scribner's Sons, 1890. xx, 420 pp. 12°.
- Mourre, Ch. D'où vient la décadence économique de la France? Paris: Plon, 1899. 460 pp. 8°. Contains an appendix entitled "Quelques mots sur une théorie expliquant la supériorité des Anglo-Saxons."
- Powers, H. H. The war as a suggestion of manifest destiny. Philadelphia: American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1898. 20 pp. 8°. (Publications of the society, no. 235.) "Professor Powers shows the development of the policy of imperialism from the time of Jefferson and the inevitableness of the war. He then sets forth the results which must follow from our appearance as a world power, and why the final struggle for world domination must be between the Anglo-Saxon and Slav races. He also endeavors to forecast the result of this struggle."
- Scholes, Theophilus E. S. The British Empire and alliances; or Britain's duty to her colonies and subject races. London: Elliot Stock, 1899. viii, 415 pp. 8°. Contents: Preface; Anglo-Saxon alliances; The British Empire—its colonies; The British Empire—its dependencies; The wars that built the British Empire; The growth of British industries; The growth of British commerce; The character and growth of the Russian Empire; The origin of Chinese trade; Recent official Chinese correspondence; China a road to India; New international and commercial conditions; The white races and the dark races; The West Indies and the sugar question; A divided empire; The evils of "color prejudice;" Our future policy.
- Smith, Edward. England and America after independence. A short examination of their international intercourse, 1783-1872. Westminster: Archibald Constable, 1900. iv, (2), 397 pp. 8°.
- Waldstein, Charles. The expansion of western ideals and the world's peace. New York and London: J. Lane, 1899. 194 pp. 12°. Pp. 113-194: The English-speaking brotherhood; a lecture delivered \* \* \* on July 7, 1898.

## ARTICLES IN PERIODICALS.

1885. An Anglo-Saxon alliance. J. R. Dougall. (Argues for an alliance with the United States.) Contemp. Rev., vol. 48 (Nov., 1885), 693. Eclectic Mag., vol. 106 (Feb., 1886), 190. Living Age, vol. 167 (Dec. 19, 1885), 759.
1898. Success of Anglo-Saxon race. Edinb. Rev., vol. 130 (Jan., 1898), 130. Living Age, vol. 217 (May 7, 1898), 352.
1898. Are the Americans Anglo-Saxons? Spectator, vol. 80 (Apr. 30, 1898), 614. Living Age, vol. 217 (June 4, 1898), 681. Public Opinion, vol. 24 (May 26, 1898), 662.
1898. Wanted, an imperial minimum. Westminster Rev., vol. 149 (May, 1898), 477. Living Age, vol. 217 (June 25, 1898), 871.
1898. Which shall dominate, Saxon or Slav? D. Mills. No. Amer. Rev., vol. 166 (June, 1898), 729.
1898. American greetings and tributes to Britain. Am. Rev. of Reviews, vol. 18, (July, 1898), 71.
1898. Anglo-Saxon against the world. H. W. Wilson. Am. Rev. of Reviews, vol. 18 (July, 1898), 84.
1898. Is there an Anglo-American understanding? Fortnightly Rev., vol. 70 (July, 1898), 163. Living Age, vol. 218 (Aug., 1898), 425.
1898. Anglo-American future. F. Greenwood. Nineteenth Century, vol. 44 (July, 1898), 1. Eclectic Mag., vol. 131 (Sept., 1898), 289. Living Age, vol. 218 (Aug. 27, 1898), 563.
1898. United States and the concert of Europe. J. C. Ridpath. Arena, vol. 20 (Aug., 1898), 145.
1898. Proposed federation of the Anglo-Saxons. B. O. Flower. Arena, vol. 20 (Aug., 1898), 223.
1898. Anglo-Saxon alliance. Canadian Mag., vol. 11 (Aug., 1898), 363.
1898. English-speaking brotherhood. C. Waldstein. No. Amer. Rev., vol. 167 (Aug., 1898), 223.
1898. Anglo-Saxon German alliance. M. von Brandt. Living Age, vol. 218 (Sept. 24, 1898), 859.
1898. Anglo-American alliance versus a European combination. R. Temple. No. Amer. Rev., vol. 167 (Sept., 1898), 306.
1898. Possibilities of Anglo-American alliance. Sir C. W. Dilke. Pall Mall Mag., vol. 16 (Sept., 1898), 37.
1898. Anglo-American friendship. C. Schurz. Atlantic, vol. 8 (Oct., 1898), 433.
1898. Anglo-American alliance and the Irish-Americans. G. McDermot. Catholic World, vol. 68 (Oct., 1898), 75.
1898. The coming fusion of East and West. E. F. Fenollosa. Harper's Mag., vol. 98 (Dec., 1898), 115.
1898. Five hundred years of the Anglo-Saxon. G. B. Waldron. McClure's Mag., vol. 12 (Dec. 1898), 185.
1898. Recent developments of policy in the United States and their relation to an Anglo-American alliance. J. Chamberlain. Scribner, vol. 24 (Dec. 1898), 674.
1898. Great fact of 1898 (Anglo-Saxon rapprochement). Spectator, vol. 81 (Dec. 31, 1898), 972.
1899. L'Europe nouvelle. P. Fauchille. Revue de droit internationale publique, no. 1. On the Anglo-Saxon menace.
1899. The future relations of Great Britain and the United States. Sir C. W. Dilke. Forum, vol. 26 (Jan., 1899), 521.
1899. The union of the flags (Anglo-American). P. Young. United Service Mag., vol. 139 (Jan., 1899), 393.
1899. An Anglo-American alliance. Charles Beresford. Independent, vol. 51 (Feb. 23, 1899), 527.
1899. America's debt to England. A. M. Low. Anglo-Amer. Mag., vol. 1 (Mar., 1899), 148.
1899. Stevenson, Kipling, and Anglo-Saxon imperialism. E. H. Mullin. Book Buyer, vol. 18 (Mar. 1899), 85.
1899. England and the United States and a defensive alliance. Self Culture, vol. 9 (Mar. 1899), 8.
1899. Toward universal peace. Advocates Anglo-American alliance. Westminster Rev. (Apr., 1899).
1899. Anglo-Saxon imperialism. Impressions and opinions. Anglo-Saxon Rev., vol. 1 (June, 1899), 243.
1899. Anglo-Saxon genius. H. D. Oakeley. Westminster Rev., vol. 152 (July, 1899), 73.
1899. Anglo-Saxon superiority. M. E. Springer. The Globe, vol. 9 (Sept., 1899), 360.
1899. Anglo-Saxon responsibilities. H. M. Stanley. Outlook, vol. 62 (Sept. 30, 1899), 249.
1899. Russia, England, and the United States. A. M. Low. Forum, vol. 28 (Oct., 1899), 172.
1900. Shall Slav, Teuton, or Anglo-Saxon prevail? R. W. Grant. Anglo-Amer. Mag., vol. 3 (Jan., 1900), 35.
1900. America's attitude toward England. R. A. Alger. No. Amer. Rev., vol. 170 (Mar., 1900), 332.
1900. America and the war (Transvaal). S. Brooks. No. Amer. Rev., vol. 170 (Mar., 1900), 337.

## THE FAR EAST.

### INTRODUCTION.

The Far Eastern question centering in the affairs of China, this list is largely taken up with references to works upon that country. Works on the history of events leading up to the present situation have been noted, or those in any way touching upon the European advance in Asia.

The following notes are exclusively concerned with

#### CHINA.

*History.*—The most extensive single work in English is Boulger's *History of China*, first published in 1881-1884, and revised editions in 1898 and 1900, respectively. Its chief value lies in its detailed account of "European progress in China subsequent to the signing of the treaty of Nankin in 1842, including the Taiping rebellion in all its phases and Gordon's campaign." The earlier part of his history is drawn mainly from the Jesuit epitomes of the Chinese annalists. The new edition of his *Short History* has an additional chapter, written by another hand, giving a summary account of the reign of Kwang Su, covering the capture of Peking.

Douglas's *History*, forming a volume of the "Story of the nations series," will give all that the general reader needs.

In Macgowan's "A history of China from the earliest days to the present" recourse has been had to the original authorities. "It is not a compilation gathered from all sources, but a reproduction from the original of the *Standard History of China*."

Williams's "Middle Kingdom," first published in 1848, constituted for a long time the principal source of information for English readers, and in its revised form is still regarded as a classic.

The Anglo-French expedition to China in 1860 parallels in some measure the memorable march of the allies to Peking the past summer. Gordon's private diary of his campaign in China was edited by S. Mossman in 1885. See also Gordon's "Recollections of thirty-nine years in the army," London, 1898. Also lives of Gordon by Boulger, Butler, Hake, and Mossman.

The *Journals of Sir James Hope Grant*, who commanded the allies in the march to Peking, edited by Henry Knollys, appeared in London, 1895.

Other English accounts noted in this list are McGhee's "How we got to Peking;" Loch's personal narrative; Sir Garnet Wolseley's "Narrative of the war in China in 1860." The first named was chaplain to the English forces, Loch was secretary at headquarters in Peking, and Lord Wolseley served as deputy assistant quartermaster-general.

In Poole's "Life of Sir Harry Parkes" will be found an account of the latter's participation in the events at Peking in 1860-61. Parkes was for a time a prisoner at Peking and subsequently accompanied Napier in his entrance to the city in October, 1860.

The Earl of Elgin's experiences upon his mission in 1860 at Peking are related in his "Letters and Journals," London, 1872. Oliphant's "Narrative of the Earl of Elgin's mission" deals with his embassy of 1859.

The French narratives noted in this list are: Chassiron, "Notes sur le Japon, la Chine," etc.; Keroullec, "Un voyage à Pé-kin;" Lavollée, "La Chine contemporaine," Paris, 1860; "France et Chine," Paris, 1900; Mutrécy, "Journal de la Campagne de Chine, 1859-60-61," Paris, 1861.

Spielmann, a German writer, has lately published "Die Taiping Revolution in China, 1860-1864."

The later history is dealt with, among others, in Boulger's *History*; Colquhoun, "China in Transformation;" Eitel, "Europe in China;" Krause, "China in Decay; The Story of the Chinese Crisis;" Leroy-Beaulieu, "The awakening of the East;" Norman, *Peoples and Politics of the Far East*.

Political and economic conditions are discussed in works by Beresford, Brenier, Chirol, Coates, Colquhoun, Curzon, Gorst, Krause, Leroy-Beaulieu, Marcillac, Parker, Parsons, Reinsch, Smyth, Watson, and Wildman. (See under these names in the body of this list.)

*Railroads.*—This subject is treated by the following writers: Lord Beresford, von Brandt, de Bray, Colquhoun, Fauvel, Glass, Krahmer, Marcillac, Mikhailoff, Perowne, Vladimir. See also important articles in *Questions Diplomatiques*, vol. 4 (1898); vol. 7 (1899); *Engineering Magazine*, vol. 16 (Dec., 1898); *Forum*, vol. 28 (Nov., 1899); *Archiv für Eisenbahnwesen* (Jan., Feb., 1900).

*Russia in the Far East.*—See the following: Adams, Bookwalter, Boulger, Carol, Cobbold, Colquhoun, Curzon, Krahmer, Krause, Lebedev, Legras, Leroy-Beaulieu, Norman, Perowne, Reid, Rohrbach, Skrine, Vladimir.

*United States in the Far East.*—Adams, Boulger, Cailleux, Conant, Giddings, Parsons, Reinsch, Wildman, Dilke, and Wilson, Wu Ting Fang (in Smyth's *The Crisis in China*).

The social life of China can be studied in Douglas's "Society in China," Little's "Intimate China," Macgowan's "Pictures of China," Moule's "New China and old," Smith's "Chinese Characteristics" (which the *Edinburgh Review* calls "the most brilliant book ever written on the subject"). See also his *Village life in China*.

*Travel.*—Recent works are Bishop's "The Yangtze Valley and beyond," Cumming's "Wanderings in China," Little's "Through the Yang-tse gorges," Plauchut's "China and the Chinese," Seidmore's "China."

*Missions.*—For this subject see works of Barrows, Beach, Edkins, Gundry, Johnston, Michie, Smyth, Speer, Stott.

*Periodicals.*—The following periodicals are devoted to the affairs of the Far East: *Customs Gazette*, Shanghai; *China Review*; *Chinese Recorder*; *Imperial and Asiatic quarterly review*; *Journal Asiatique*, Journal of the China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society; *T'oung Pao*, Leyden; *Oesterreichische Monatsschrift für den Orient*, Vienna; *Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesellschaft*, Leipzig.

For accounts of the events of last summer recourse must be had in the main to current periodicals. The siege of the legations is described by Sir Robert Hart in the *Fortnightly Review* for November and the *Cosmopolitan* for December. The *Century* for December contains an article on the march of the allies by a member of the expedition. An important article is "The siege of the Peking legation," by Dr. Morrison, originally published in the *London Times* and reprinted in the *Living Age* for the latter part of November and the first part of December. McClure's for November and the *Outlook* for the latter part of the same month contain diaries of the siege kept by women who were prisoners in Peking.

## THE FAR EAST.

### "COMMERCIAL RELATIONS"—"OPEN DOOR"—"SPHERES OF INFLUENCE."

- Adams, Brooks. *America's economic supremacy*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1900. 222 pp. 12°. Contents: The Spanish war and the equilibrium of the world; The new struggle for life among nations; England's decadence in the West Indies; Natural selection in literature; The decay of England; Russia's interest in China.
- Bard, E. *Les Chinois chez eux*. Paris: A. Colin, 1900. (4), 360 pp. 12°. "The author, a merchant in China, describes more especially agriculture, finances, money, and other economic aspects."
- Barrows, John Henry. *The Christian conquest of Asia*. Studies and personal observations of Oriental religions. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1899. xvii, (1), 258 pp. 12°. (Morse lectures of 1898.) Chapter VII: Confucianism and the awakening of China. Chapter VIII: Success of Asiatic missions; America's responsibility to the Orient.
- Beach, Harlan P. *Dawn on the hills of T'ang; or, missions in China*. New York: Student volunteer movement for foreign missions, 1898. xviii, 181 pp. Frontispiece. Folded map. 12°.
- Beresford, Lord Charles. *The break-up of China*. With an account of its present commerce, currency, waterways, armics, railways, politics, and future prospects. With portraits and maps. New York and London: Harper & Brothers, 1899. xxii, 491 pp. Folded maps. 8°.
- Bishop, Isabella L. Bird. *The Yangtze Valley and beyond*. An account of journeys in China, chiefly in the province of Sze-Chwan and among the Man-tze of the Somo territory. With map and 116 illustrations. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1900. 8°. Reviewed in *Spectator*, January, 1900, under the title "Spheres of influence in China."
- Bookwalter, John W. *Siberia and Central Asia*. Springfield, Ohio, 1900. xxxi, 548 pp. Illustrations. 8°. "With regard to Russian expansion, like Mr. Cobbold, Mr. Bookwalter dwells on the fact that she makes her way by subtlety rather than by force; and on the whole, after reading the book, we are confirmed in the impression that all immediate prospects are in favor of peace."
- Boulger, Demetrius C. *Central Asian questions*. Essays on Afghanistan, China, and Central Asia. With portrait and maps. London: T. Fisher Unwin, 1885. xvi, 457 pp. 8°.
- *Central Asian questions*. Essays on Afghanistan, China, and Central Asia. With portrait and maps. London: T. Fisher Unwin, 1885. xvi, 457 pp. 8°.
- *England and Russia in Central Asia*. With two maps and appendices (one map being the latest Russian official map of Central Asia). London: W. H. Allen & Co., 1879. 2 vols. 8°.
- *The history of China*. New and revised edition, with portraits and maps. London: W. Thacker & Co., 1898. 2 vols. 8°.
- Same. A new edition, revised and brought up to date. Containing chapters on the recent concessions to the European powers. Illustrated with portraits and maps. London: W. Thacker & Co., 1900. 2 vols. 8°.
- *The life of Gordon*. \* \* \* With portrait. London: T. Fisher Unwin, 1896. 2 vols. Plates. 8°.
- *The life of Sir Stamford Raffles*. With portraits, maps, and illustrations. London: H. Marshall & Son, 1899. xv, (1), 403 pp. 8°. Malacca, pp. 58-83; The Java expedition, pp. 84-124; The conquest of Java, pp. 125-154; The British administration of Java, pp. 155-217; Sumatra, pp. 263-291; The founding of Singapore, pp. 292-340. "Among the men who have established the political and commercial power of this country in the seas of India and China, no one would deny a foremost place to Stamford Raffles."
- *A short history of China*. An account for the general reader of an ancient empire and people. A new edition, with an additional chapter continuing the history from 1890 to date. London: Gibbings & Co., 1900. (6), 436 pp. 8°. Pages 356-373 contain "How China is governed." The "Reign of Kwangsu, 1890-1900" (pp. 374a-374l), said to be written "by a competent authority."
- Brandt, M. von. *Industrielle und Eisenbahn-Unternehmungen in China*. Mit einer Kartenskizze. Berlin: Reimer, 1899. 121-140 pp. 8°. (Deutsche Kolonial-Gesellschaft. Verhandlungen, 1898-99. Heft 4.)
- Bray, Ferdinand de. *La Chine et ses besoins au point de vue de l'utilisation des Belges, de leur capitaux et de leur industrie*. Louvain: Polleunis et Centerick, 1898. xvi, 60 pp. Map. 8°. Note:—The map shows a scheme for a railway system for China.
- Brenier, Henri. *La mission Lyonnaise d'exploration commerciale en Chine*. 1895-1897. Lyons, 1898. xxxvi, 386-470 pp. 8°. "Of all the commercial missions to which the immediate prospect of the development of the resources of China by modern methods has recently given rise, the most fully equipped and that with the most extensive and elaborate programme is that organized by the Chamber of Commerce of Lyons, and the report published by the director of this mission, Mr. Henri Brenier, is of corresponding interest and value."
- Bray, Ferdinand de. *La Chine et ses besoins au point de vue de l'utilisation des Belges, de leurs capitaux et de leur industrie*. Louvain: Polleunis & Centerick, 1898. xvi, 60 pp. Map 8°. Note: The map shows a scheme for a railway system for China.
- Brenier, Henri. *La mission lyonnaise d'exploration commerciale en Chine, 1895-1897*. Avec cartes, plans, et gravures d'après les documents rapportés par la mission. Lyons: A. Rey et Cie., 1898. xxxvi, 386, 473 pp. 4°. Contents: 1<sup>re</sup> partie. Récits de voyages. 2<sup>me</sup> partie. Rapports commerciaux. "Of all the commercial missions to which the immediate prospect of the development of the resources of China by modern methods has recently given rise, the most fully equipped and that with the most extensive and elaborate programme is that organized by the Chamber of Commerce of Lyons, and the report published by the director of this mission, Mr. Henri Brenier, is of corresponding interest and value."
- Bretschneider, E. *History of European botanical discoveries in China*. London: S. Low, Marston & Co., 1898. 2 vols. 4°. "Dr. Bretschneider's present *magnum opus* is by no means a mere botanical work, as its name would seem to imply, but also a magnificent political and geographical record of all that Europeans have ever done in China, from Marco Polo down to Mr. G. M. H. Playfair, and there is hardly any subject connected with the Far East, but what accurate light is shed upon it by the dates, data, itineraries, geographical details, commercial notes, and other information furnished by the industrious and scrupulously painstaking author, than whom there is no one in the sinological field more worthy of absolute confidence."

- Busley, C. *Der Kampf um den ostasiatischen Handel. Mit einer Karte und 18 Tabellen.* Berlin: 1897. 195-244 pp. (Deutsche Kolonial-Gesellschaft. Verhandlungen, 1896-97. Heft 6.)
- Cailleux, E. *La question chinoise aux États-Unis et dans les possessions des puissances européennes.* Paris: A. Rousseau, 1898. xiii, 277 pp. 8°.
- Carli, Mario. *Il Ce-Kiang; studio geografico-economico.* Roma, 1899. xx, 278 pp. 8°. "Bien qu'il soit une simple compilation, ce volume par l'abondance des faits qu'il contient, apporte une contribution importante à la connaissance d'une province assez ignorée du Céleste empire. Après une introduction historique sur les rapports de la Chine avec l'Europe, l'auteur décrit la province de Tchékiang, qui aurait du, après la demande de cession à bail de la baie de San Moun, constituer la zone d'influence réservée à l'Italie en vue du partage de la Chine. L'auteur traite de l'orographie, de l'hydrographie, des voies de communications, des produits, etc." "It opens with an introduction (pp. 1-71) giving an account of Chinese relations with the Western world, and latterly Japan, from the time of the first Portuguese expedition in 1516."
- Carol, Jean. *Colonisation russe: les deux routes du Caucase; notes d'une touriste.* Paris: Hatchette et Cie., 1899. xl, 311 pp. Illustrations. Maps. sm. 8°.
- Chang-Chih-Tung. *China's only hope. An appeal by her greatest viceroy.* Translated from the Chinese edition by Samuel L. Woodbridge. Introduction by Griffith John. New York, etc.; F. H. Revell Company, 1900. (2), 151 pp. 12°.
- Chassiron, Charles de, Baron. *Notes sur le Japon, la Chine et l'Inde, 1858, 1859, 1860.* Paris: E. Dentu, 1861. xi, 359 pp. Plates. Maps. Plans. 8°.
- *La Chine. Expansion des grands puissances en Extrême-Orient (1895-1898).* Paris: R. Chapelot & Cie., 1889. viii, 223 pp. Folded map. 8°. Contents: 1. Géographie économique de la Chine; Description économique des provinces chinoises; Statistique économique de la Chine. 2. Rapports de la Chine avec les grandes puissances de 1894 à 1898; L'Europe au traité de Simonsaki; Les premiers progrès de la Russie en Chine et en Corée; L'intervention de l'Allemagne à Kiao-tchéou; Les conséquences de l'occupation de Kiao-tchéou: Le rôle de la France. 3. L'exploitation du marché chinois; Les concessions obtenues par les étrangers en Chine; L'exploitation économique de la Chine; La pénétration des provinces méridionales par l'Indo-Chine française; Conclusion; Le partage éventuel de l'empire chinois. With folded map; carte économique de la Chine.
- Chirol, V. *The Far Eastern question.* London: Macmillan & Co., 1896. viii, (4), 196 pp. Plates. 2 folded maps. 8°.
- The Chronicle and directory for China, Japan, Corea, Indo-China* \* \* \* for 1900. Hongkong: Printed at the "Daily Press" Office, 1900. 8°.
- Coates, —. *China and the open door.* Bristol: Taylor & Hawkins, 1899. 8°.
- Cobbold, Ralph P. *Innermost Asia; travel and sport in the Pamirs, with map and illustrations.* London: Heinemann, 1900. xvii, 354 pp. Portrait. 8°. Contains a Bibliography of innermost Asia, p. 346. "In Mr. Cobbold's opinion, the destiny of Afghanistan is to be absorbed, and to be divided between the rival empires, though if the reigning Ameer is succeeded by a son of his own mould, the inevitable crisis will be deferred. To sum up his political survey, what chiefly struck him in his travels in innermost Asia was 'the barbarous insistence of the Russian Government system, the brilliant success which invariably attends Russian aims, and the puerile weakness of the British Government in the protecting of the country's interests.'"
- Colquhoun, Archibald Ross. *China in transformation. With frontispiece, maps, and diagrams.* New York and London: Harper & Brothers, 1898. ix (1), 382 pp. Plate. Folded maps. 8°.
- *Overland to China. With maps, illustrations, and diagrams.* New York and London: Harper & Brothers, 1900. xi, (1), 464 pp. Plates. Portrait. Colored maps. 8°.
- *The problem in China and British policy.* London: P. S. King, 1900. 50 pp. Map. 8°.
- *Russia against India: the struggle for Asia. With special maps.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1900. vii, (3) 246 pp. 12°. "This contribution of Mr. Colquhoun to the discussion of the Eastern question is primarily designed for English readers; but since, in the author's view, British interests in India are closely bound up with the interests of the whole Anglo-Saxon race, the topics that he treats will not be without interest to American readers. At any rate, the book will be helpful in clearing away the mistiness of the whole Eastern situation."
- Conant, Charles A. *The United States in the Orient. The nature of the economic problem.* New York: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1900. (2), x, 237 pp. 8°.
- Cordes, H. *Handelsstrassen und Wasserverbindungen von Hankau nach dem Inneren von China.* Berlin: E. S. Mittler & Sohn, 1899. 21 pp. Map. 4°.
- Cumming, Constance F. Gordon-. *Wanderings in China. Illustrated by the author.* William Blackwood & Sons, Edinburgh and London, 1900. vi, (2), 528 pp. Plates (photogravures). Folded map. 8°.
- Curtis, William Eleroy. *The Yankees of the East. Sketches of modern Japan.* New York: Stone & Kimball, 1896. 2 vols. Plates (photogravures). 12°.
- Curzon, George Nathaniel, Baron. *Russia in Central Asia in 1889 and the Anglo-Russian question. With appendices, maps, illustrations, and an index.* London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1889. xxiv, 477 pp. 8°.
- *Problems of the Far East. Japan—Korea—China. New and revised edition.* New York, London, and Bombay: Longmans, Green & Co., 1896. xxiv, 444 pp. Plates. Portrait. Folded map. 8°.
- Dennys, Nicholas B., editor. *The treaty ports of China and Japan. A complete guide to the open ports of those countries. With 29 maps and plans.* London: Trübner, 1867. viii, (2), 668, (2), xxvi pp. 8°.
- Diósy, Arthur. *The new Far East. With 12 illustrations from special designs by Kubota Beison of Tokio.* London: Capell & Co., 1899. xvi, 374 pp. 8°. "This is a brilliantly written history of new Japan, containing much instructive information on the affairs of the Far East."
- Same. 2d edition. London: Cassell & Co., 1900. 388 pp. 8°.
- Douglas, R. K. *China. Revised and enlarged. With many illustrations and an index.* Chicago, New York: The Werner Company, 1895. 604 pp. Plates (woodcuts). 12°.
- *China.* New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1899. 8°. (Story of the Nations.)
- *Li Hung Chang.* London: Bliss, Sands & Foster, 1895. 251 pp. Portraits. 12°. (Public men of to-day.)
- *Society in China. With 22 illustrations.* London: A. D. Innes & Co., 1894. xvi, 415 pp. Plates. 8°.
- Driault, Édouard. *Les problèmes politiques et sociaux à la fin du XIX<sup>e</sup> siècle.* Paris: F. Alcan, 1900. 338 pp. 8°. (Bibliothèque d'histoire contemporaine.) Contents: La question d'Alsace-Lorraine. La question romaine: le pape, le roi, le peuple. La question d'Autriche-Hongrie. La question ottomane. La Méditerranée. La Mer Rouge. Égypte et Abyssinie. Le partage de l'Afrique. L'Asie antérieure. L'Asie centrale. La question chinoise. Les États-Unis. La triple alliance. L'alliance franco-russe. Les grandes puissances et le partage du monde. Les conflits et la paix. La société: église et science.
- Edkins, Joseph. *Religion in China. A brief account of the three religions.* 3d edition (revised and enlarged). London: Trübner, 1884. xvi, 260 pp. 8°.
- *La religion en Chine. Exposé des trois religions des Chinois, suivi d'observations sur l'état actuel et l'avenir de la propagande chrétienne parmi ce peuple. Traduit de l'anglais, avec autorisation de l'auteur, par L. de Milloué.* (In *Annales du Musée Guimet*, vol. 4, pp. 61-311. Paris, 1882. 4°.)



- Egerton, H. E. *Sir Stamford Raffles. England in the Far East.* London: Unwin, 1900. xx, 290 pp. Frontispiece. Maps. 8°.  
(Builders of Greater Britain.)
- Eitel, E. J. *Europe in China. The history of Hongkong from the beginning to 1882.* London: Luzac, 1895. vii (3), 575, xiii pp. 8°.
- Fauvel, A. A. *Les chemins de fer chinois. Travail d'organisation.* (In *Questions diplomatiques et coloniales*, 3<sup>e</sup> année, pp. 459, 468. Dec. 15, 1899.)
- Favier, Alphonse. *Péking. Histoire et description. Ouvrage orné de 524 gravures anciennes et nouvelles, reproduites ou exécutées par des artistes chinois d'après les plus précieux documents.* Bruxelles: Desclée de Brouwer et Cie., 1900. 416 pp. Sm. 4°.
- Franzius, G. *Kiautschou. Deutschlands Erwerbung in Ostasien.* 7. Aufl. Berlin: A. Schall [1900]. (8), 142 pp. Plates. 8°.
- Fraser, Mary Crawford. *Letters from Japan. A record of modern life in the island empire.* New York and London: The Macmillan Company, 1899. 2 vols. Illustrations. 8°.
- Giddings, Franklin Henry. *Democracy and empire. With studies of their psychological, economic, and moral foundations.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1900. x, 363 pp. 8°. Pages, 267-290 argue for Anglo-Saxon alliance; also contain a discussion of the commercial advantages of the East.
- Glass, J. G. H. *Report on the concessions of the Pekin Syndicate, Limited, in the provinces of Shansi and Honan, China, with estimates of cost of railways and other works necessary for their development.* Pekin, 1899. 174 pp. Map. 4°. "A comprehensive report on the resources of the territories for the commercial exploitation of which the Pekin Syndicate has obtained a concession from the Chinese Government."
- Gordon, Sir Charles Alexander. *Recollections of thirty-nine years in the army. Gwalior and the battle of Maharajpore, 1843; the Gold Coast of Africa, 1847-48; the Indian mutiny, 1857-58; the expedition to China, 1860-61; the siege of Paris, 1870-71, etc.* London: Schwan Sonnenschien & Co., 1898. viii, 320 pp. Portrait. 8°.
- Gorst, Harold E. *China. On the economic resources of China, and the present political and commercial conditions of the country.* ("The Imperial Interest Library," edited by Hamish Hendry.) London: Sands & Co., 1899. xx, 300 pp. Map and illustrations. 12°. "Mr. Gorst has produced a very readable book, and has certainly succeeded in showing up very clearly some of the chief points in the political problems which present themselves to us, now that up-to-date events have altered the bearings of the general outlook in the Far East."
- Grant, Sir James Hope. *Journals [1841-1875], with selections from correspondence.* Edited by Lieut. Col. Henry Knollys. London: Blackwood, 1894. 2 vols. Portrait. Map. 8°.
- Gundry, R. S. *China present and past. Foreign intercourse, progress, and resources; the missionary question, etc.* With map. London: Chapman & Hall, 1895. xxxi (1), 414 pp. 8°.
- Hake, A. Egmont. *The story of Chinese Gordon. With portraits and maps.* 9th edition. London: Remington & Co., 1884. (8), 407 pp. 8°.
- Hausmann, Auguste. *Voyage en Chine, Cochinchine, Inde et Malaisie.* Paris: G. Olivier, 1847. 3 vols. 8°. Contents: Part I (vols. 1, 2), Voyage. Part II (vol. 3), Commerce de la Chine.
- Hesse-Wartegg, E. v. *China und Japan; Erlebnisse, Studien, Beobachtungen auf einer Reise um die Welt.* Mitt 44 Vollbildern, 132 im Text gedruckten Abbildungen. Leipzig: J. J. Weber, 1897. vii, 508 pp. Map. 8°.
- . Same. *2te vermehrte Auflage.* Leipzig: J. L. Weber, 1900. 8°.
- . *Schantung und Deutsch-China. Von Kiautschau ins Hinterland Land von China und vom Jangtsekiang nach Peking im Jahre 1898.* Mit 145 in den Text gedruckten und 27 Tafel-Abbildungen, 6 Beilagen und 3 Karten. Leipzig: J. J. Weber, 1898. vii, 264 pp. 8°.
- . *Siam, das Reich des weissen Elefantes.* Leipzig, 1899. 252 pp. Plates. Illustrations. Maps.
- Howorth, Henry H. *History of the Mongols from the 9th to the 19 century.* London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1876-1888. 3 parts in 4 volumes. Folded maps. 8°. Part I. The Monguls proper and the Kalmuks. Part II. The so-called Tartars of Russia and Central Asia. Part III. The Mongols of Persia.
- Huc, Evariste Régis. *The Chinese empire: forming a sequel to the work entitled "Recollections of a journey through Tartary and Thibet."* London: Longmans, etc., 1855. 2 vols. Folded Map. 8°.
- Jenks, Jeremiah W. *English colonial fiscal systems in the Far East.* (In *Essays in colonial finance*, by the members of the American economic association. August, 1900, pp. 263-303. New York [1900]. 8°.)
- Johnston, James. *China and Formosa. The story of a successful mission. With many illustrations prepared for the work, and four maps.* London: Hazell, Watson & Viney, 1898. xvi, 400 pp. 12°.
- . *China and its future, in the light of the antecedents of the empire, its people, and their institutions.* London: E. Stock, 1899. ix, 180 pp. Illustrations. 8°.
- Keroulée, Georges de. *Un voyage à Pé-Kin. Souvenirs de l'expédition de Chine.* Paris: P. Brunet, 1861. vii, (1), 319 pp. 18°.
- Kiautschou-Gebiet. *Das deutsche Kiautschou-Gebiet und seine Bevölkerung. Kartenkrokis und statistische Tabellen.* \* \* \* Veröffentlicht auf Veranlassung des Reichs-Marine-Amtes. Berlin: D. Reimer, 1900. 68 pp. Colored plates.
- Krahmer, G. *Russland in Asien.* Leipzig: Zuckschwerdt, 1897-1899. 4 vols. Plates. Maps. 8°. Contents: V. 1: Transkaspien und seine Eisenbahn, von O. Heyfelder. V. 2: Russland in Mittel-Asien. V. 3: Sibirien und die grosse sibirische Eisenbahn. V. 4: Russland in Ost-Asien.
- Krausse, Alexis. *China in decay. A handbook to the Far Eastern question.* With 6 maps and 21 illustrations. London: Chapman & Hall, 1898. ix, (1), 400 pp. 8°.
- . *China in decay. The story of a disappearing empire.* 3d edition. With 5 maps and 15 illustrations. London: Chapman & Hall, 1900. xiv, (2), 418 pp. Plates. Portraits. 8°. "The present issue of 'China in Decay' has been thoroughly overhauled and revised, and contains a considerable amount of added matter. It includes a record of the recent events in China down to the reported fall of the legations, and will be found to contain all that is requisite to insure a complete understanding of the present crisis in China."
- . *Russia in Asia. A record and a study, 1558-1899.* With 12 maps. London: G. Richards. 428 pp. 8°.
- . *The story of the Chinese crisis. Specially prepared map, plan of Peking.* London: Cassell, 1900. 246 pp. 8°.
- . *The Far East: Its history and its question.* London: Richards, 1900. 372 pp. 8°. "The Far East" is, as far as some three or four hundred pages permit, a complete account of the history of the Oriental Asiatic world in its relations with Western civilization, with an examination of the existing factors in the Far Eastern question, and a statement of the evidence bearing upon the subject. The appendices to the book are particularly useful for reference, as they include a chronology of the history of the Far East, the text of the more important treaties and conventions, and furnish a bibliography of authorities on the Far East.
- Lavollée, Charles Hubert. *La Chine contemporaine.* Paris: Lévy, 1860. x, 362 pp. 8°.
- . *France et Chine. I. Traité de Whampoa, 1844. II. Expédition de 1860 contre la Chine.* Paris: Plon, 1900. 8°. "Ce livre comprend la correspondance diplomatique de M. de Lagréné, qui conclut en 1844 le premier traité entre la France et la Chine; puis le récit de l'expédition franco-anglaise qui, en 1860, pénétra jusqu'à Pékin. L'auteur est un des rares survivants de la mission de M. de Lagréné, qui vint de 1844 à 1846 les principales contrées de l'Extrême-Orient. Il contient des documents très précieux à consulter au milieu des difficultés de l'heure présente; il éclaire spécialement d'une façon très sûre, le fond des idées de la Chine, ses mœurs, ses traditions, son état d'âme."



- Lebedev, V. T. Russes et Anglais en Asie centrale. Vers l'Inde. Esquisse militaire statistique et stratégique. Projet de campagne russe. Traduit du russe par le capitaine du génie breveté cazalas. Avec 4 croquis et 1 carte. Paris: Chapelot, 1900. 247 pp. 12°.
- Legge, James. The religions of China. Confucianism and Taoism described and compared with Christianity. London: Hodder & Stoughton, 1880. ix, (1), 310 pp. 12°.
- Legge, W. A handbook to Hong Kong; being a popular guide to the various places of interest in the colony for the use of tourists. Hong Kong: Kelly & Walsh, 1893. 8°.
- Légras, J. La Sibérie. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie., 1899. xvii, 384 pp. Illustrations. Map. 16°.
- Leroy-Beaulieu, P. La rénovation de l'Asie (Sibérie, Chine, Japon). Paris: Armand Colin & Cie., 1900. xxvii, 483 pp. 16°.
- “L'ouvrage de M. Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu, ‘La rénovation de l'Asie (Sibérie, Chine, Japon),’ a eu un grand succès. Les pages où le jeune voyageur a jugé avec tant de clairvoyance les pays d'Extrême-Orient, qu'il a étudiés sur place, ont fait, non seulement en France, mais à l'étranger, la plus vive impression. En trois mois la première édition de cet ouvrage a été épuisée; la deuxième vient de paraître, avec une nouvelle préface, chez l'éditeur Colin . . . En même temps, l'on en prépare une traduction anglaise et une traduction allemande.”—L'Economiste française. “M. Leroy-Beaulieu, in his interesting work, ‘La rénovation de l'Asie’, deals with the Japanese question at some length. His book is doubly interesting because it is the first serious contribution to the discussion of the Far Eastern question by a French writer, and because, like Mr. Colquhoun's book, it regards the Chinese problem not as an isolated fact, but as part of a vast evolution.”
- The awakening of the East: Siberia, Japan, China. [Translated by Richard Davey.] With a preface by Henry Norman. New York: McClure, 1900. xxvii, (1), 298, (1), pp. 12°.
- Little, A. J. Through the Yang-tse gorges; trade and travel in western China. 3d revised edition. London: Low, 1898. 340 pp. Plates. Map. 8°.
- Little, Alice E. N. B. Intimate China. The Chinese as I have seen them. With illustrations. London: Hutchinson & Co., 1899. xv, (1), 615 pp. L. 8°.
- Loch, Henry Brougham, Lord. Personal narrative of occurrences during Lord Elgin's second embassy to China in 1860. 3d edition. London: J. Murray, 1900. xii, 185 pp. Illustrations. Map. 8°.
- “It has been truly said that in the last few months our prestige in the Far East has suffered more than in the whole period since 1895; and what it was forty years ago can only be realized by reading such books as Sir Henry Loch's ‘Narrative of Events in China.’ He speaks throughout in measured language of what Britain must do, and hardly mentions other powers. How are the mighty fallen! We have now neither the confidence of the Chinese nor the friendship of the other powers to rely on. There are certain moves in the game, however, which would be advantageous to us, and might at the same time meet with the approval, not only of some of the great powers, but of a section of China. We must play off one force against another.”
- M'Ghee, R. J. L. How we got to Peking. A narrative of the campaign in China of 1860. With illustrations. London: R. Bentley, 1862. xii, 365 pp. Plates. 8°.
- Macgowan, J. A history of China from the earliest days down to the present. London: K. Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., 1897. ix, (1), 622 pp. Folded map. 8°.
- Pictures of southern China. With seventy-seven illustrations. London: Religious tract society, 1897. 320 pp. Plates. 8°.
- Mahan, A. T. The problem of Asia and its effect upon international policies. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1900. xxvi, 233 pp. Folded map. 12°.
- Marcillac, Jean de. La Chine qui s'ouvre. Paris: Perrin et Cie., 1900. xi, 308 pp. 8°. Contents: La guerre sino-japonaise et la pénétration étrangère en Chine de 1894 à 1897. L'affaire de Kiao-Tcheou et le protectorat religieux en Chine. La France et la question d'Extrême-Orient en 1900. Appendices: 1. Les chemins de fer en Chine. 2. La question de la concession française à Chang-hai. 3. L'extension de Hong-Kong. Cartes et plans.
- Martin, R. Montgomery. China; political, commercial, and social; in an official report to Her Majesty's Government. London: James Madden, 1847. 2 vols. Folded maps and tables. 8°.
- Martin, W. A. P. A cycle of Cathay, or China south and north, with personal reminiscences. With illustrations and map. New York: Fleming H. Revell Company, 1896. 464 pp. Plates. 8°.
- Matignon, J. J. Superstition, crime et misère en Chine. Paris: Masson, 1899. xxx, 383 pp. Plates. 8°. (Bibliothèque de criminologie, XXI.) “Cet ouvrage, écrit par le médecin aide-major attaché à la légation de France à Pékin, présente, en raison des événements actuels, un intérêt tout particulier. Les observations du Dr. Matignon sont une véritable révélation de l'âme chinoise. Elles font entrer dans un milieu qui n'avient été jusqu'ici que superficiellement décrit.” “Le livre est d'un observateur pénétrant et équitable.”—L. Raveneau.
- Michie, Alexander. China and Christianity. Boston: Knight & Millet, 1900. xiv, (2), 232 pp. 12°.
- The Englishman in China in the Victorian era, as illustrated in the life of Sir Rutherford Alcock, many years consul and minister in China and Japan. With illustrations, portraits, and maps. London: Blackwood, 1900. 2 vols. 8°.
- Mitford, A. B. Freeman. The attaché at Peking. London: Macmillan & Co., 1900. 264 pp. 8°.
- Monnier, M. Le tour d'Asie. L'empire du milieu. Paris: Plon, 1899. (6), 373 pp. Engravings. Plan. Map. 8°. “The main part of the work is taken up by M. Monnier's travels in China, beginning with Tientsin and its 800,000 inhabitants.” “Regards China as a poor market for European goods.”
- Morris, J. Advance Japan; a nation thoroughly in earnest. London: W. H. Allen & Co., 1895. xix, (1), 443 pp. Plates (woodcuts). 8°.
- What will Japan do? A forecast. London: Lawrence & Bullen, 1898. 198 pp. 8°.
- Morrison, G. E. An Australian in China, being the narrative of a quiet journey across China to British Burma. London: H. Cox, 1895. xii, 299 pp. Plates (photogravures). Folded maps. 8°.
- Mossman, Samuel. General Gordon's private diary of his exploits in China; amplified. With portraits and map. London: Sampson Low, Marston, Searle & Rivington, 1885. xiv, (1), 302 pp. 12°.
- Moule, Arthur E. New China and old. Personal recollections of thirty years. With 31 illustrations. London: Seeley & Co., 1891. xii, 312 pp. Plates (woodcuts). 12°.
- Mutrécy, Charles de. Journal de la campagne de Chine, 1859-1860-1861 . . . précédé d'une préface de Jules Noriac. Paris: A. Bourdilliat et Cie., 1861. 2 vols. 8°.
- Navarra, B. China und die Chinesen. Bremen: Max Noessler, 1900. 8°.
- Negrioni, M. J. L. de. Souvenirs de la campagne de Chine. Paris: Renou et Maulde, 1864. 231 pp. 8°.
- Norman, Henry. The peoples and politics of the Far East; travels and studies in the British, French, Spanish, and Portuguese colonies, Siberia, China, Japan, Korea, Siam, and Malaya. With 60 illustrations and 4 maps. London: T. Fisher Unwin, 1895. xvi, 608 pp. 8°.
- Oliphant, Laurence. Narrative of the Earl of Elgin's mission to China and Japan in the years 1857, '58, '59. With illustrations from original drawings and photographs. William Blackwood & Sons, Edinburgh and London, 1859. 2 vols. Plates (colored lithographs). Folded maps. 8°.
- Same. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1860. 645 pp. Plates (colored frontispiece). 8°.

- Parker, E. H. *China and her commerce. From the earliest times to the present day.* With 19 maps. London: Chapman & Hall, 1900. 8°.
- Parsons, William Barclay. *An American engineer in China.* New York: McClure, 1900. Illustrated. 12°. "William Barclay Parsons spent several months investigating the commercial possibilities of the East. Not only did he secure information about fields for development by Americans, but he gained a wealth of information about Chinese finance, government, and manner of life."
- Percival, William Spencer. *The land of the dragon. My boating and shooting excursions to the gorges of the Upper Yangtze.* With map of the author's route. London: Hurst & Blackett, 1889. vii (1), 338 pp. Frontispiece. 8°.
- Perowne, J. T. Woolrych. *Russian hosts and English guests in Central Asia.* London: The Scientific Press, 1898. 6. xvi, 188 pp. Map and illustrations. 8°. Note: The author in his preface states that he has in this book "purposely avoided any attempt to make a volume that should bring up to date our knowledge of the geographical, commercial, or political aspect of the countries" he visited. The journey is described as one of great comfort and enjoyment, and the illustrations are characteristic and numerous. The route followed was that of the Trans-Caucasus and Trans-Caspian railways from Batum to Samarcand, with trips thence to Ferghana and to Tashkent.
- Pickering, W. A. *Pioneering in Formosa. Recollections of adventures among Mandarins, wreckers, and head-hunting savages.* With an appendix on British policy and interests in China and the Far East. With 25 illustrations from photographs and sketches by the author. London: Hurst & Blackett, 1898. xvi, 283 pp. Plates. 8°.
- Plauchut, E. *China and the Chinese.* Translated and edited by Mrs. Arthur Bell. London: Hurst & Blackett, 1899. 282 pp. Illustrations. 8°.
- Poole, Stanley Lane. *Life of Sir Harry Parkes.* London: Macmillan & Co., 1894. 2 vols. 8°.
- Pouvourville, Albert de. *La question d'Extrême-Orient.* Paris: Pedone, 1900. 8°.
- Ransome, Stafford. *Japan in transition; a comparative study of the progress, policy, and methods of the Japanese since their war with China.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 1899. (2), xv (1), 261 pp. Plates. Maps. Portrait. 8°.
- Reid, Arnot. *From Peking to Petersburg.* With frontispiece and map. London: E. Arnold, 1899. vi (2), 300 pp. 8°.
- Reinsch, Paul S. *World politics at the end of the nineteenth century as influenced by the oriental situation.* New York: The Macmillan Company, 1900. xviii, 366 pp. 8°. Contents: National imperialism; The opening of China; The consequences of the opening of China in world politics; German imperial politics; some considerations on the position of the United States as a factor in oriental politics.
- Richtshofen, Ferdinand von. *China. Ergebnisse eigener Reisen und darauf gegründeter Studien.* Berlin: D. Reimer, 1877–1883. 3 vols. Maps. 8°. Bd. 1. *Einleitender Theil.* Mit 29 eingedruckten Holzschnitten und 11 Karten. xlii, 758 pp. 8°. Bd. 2. *Das nördliche China.* Mit 126 Holzschnitten, einer farbigen Ansicht, 2 Karten, und 5 geologischen Profilen. xxiv, 792 pp. 8°. 1882. Bd. 4. *Paläontologischer Theil, enthaltend Abhandlungen von Wilh. Dames, Emanuel Kayser, G. Lindström, A. Schenk und Conrad Schwager.* Mit 15 Holzschnitten und 54 Tafeln. xvi, 288 pp. 8°. Mit 54 Bl. Tafel Erklärungen. 1883. Band 3. was never published.
- Rohrbach, Paul. *Russische Kolonisation in Asien.* Berlin: D. Reimer, 1900. 67–82 pp. 8°. (Deutsche Kolonial-Gesellschaft. Verhandlungen, 1900–01. Heft 3.)
- Ross, John. *The Manchus, or the reigning dynasty of China; their rise and progress.* Maps and illustrations. Paisley: J. and R. Parlange. London: Houlston & Sons, 1880. xxxii, 751 pp. 8°.
- Schumacher, R. *Kiautschou und die ostasiatische Frage. Erlebnisse aus China und der japanischen Gefechtsfront.* Berlin: Fussinger, 1898. 144 pp. 8°.
- Schwabe, ———. *Die Verkehrsverhältnisse des chinesischen Reiches.* Berlin: Sienenroth & Troschel, 1900. 8°.
- Scidmore, Eliza Ruhamah. *China. The long-lived empire.* New York: The Century Co., 1900. xiii (3), 459 pp. Plates (photogravures). 12.
- Siebold, Alexander, Freiherr von. *Der Eintritt Japans in das europäische Völkerrecht.* Berlin: Kisek Tamai, 1900. iii, 49 pp. 8°.
- Skrine, Francis Henry, and Edward Denison Ross. *The heart of Asia. A history of Russian Turkestan and the central Asian Khanates.* With 29 illustrations from sketches by Verestschagin, numerous photographs, and maps. London: Methuen & Co., 1899. xi (1), 444 pp. 8°.
- Smith, Arthur H. *Chinese characteristics.* 2d edition, revised, with illustrations. New York: F. H. Revell Co. [1894]. 342 pp. Plates. 8°.
- Same. With illustrations. 6th edition. London: Oliphant, Anderson & Ferrier, 1900. 8°.
- Same. *Village life in China. A study in sociology.* \* \* \* New York: F. H. Revell Company [1899]. 360 pp. Plates. 8°.
- Same. With 31 illustrations from photographs. New edition. London: Oliphant, Anderson & Ferrier, 1900. 8°. "It is a great mistake to approach the Chinese in an insular and contemptuous frame of mind, and it is a relief to one who can not altogether forego his belief in a future for China to take up such a book as that by Arthur H. Smith, and to trace in 'Village Life in China' the sympathetic touch of the writer of 'Chinese Characteristics,' the most brilliant book ever written on that subject."
- [Smith, D. Warres.] *European settlements in the Far East. China, Japan, Korea, Indo-China, Straits Settlements, Malay States, Siam, Netherlands, India, Borneo, the Philippines, etc.* With map and illustrations. London: S. Low, 1900. xii, 331 pp. Plates (photogravures). Maps. 12°. "It is difficult to overestimate the value at the present moment of this excellent work, the Chinese section of which, in particular, deserves to be carefully studied by all who desire, at this critical period, an accurate knowledge of the strength and resources of the Celestial Empire. It contains a good map and a large number of interesting illustrations."
- Smyth, George B., and others. *The crisis in China.* With maps and illustrations. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1900. v (1), 271 pp. Plates. Portrait. 12°. Reprinted by permission from the North American Review. Contents: Causes of antiforeign feeling in China, by George B. Smyth; The powers and the partition of China, by G. Reid; The struggle for reform in China, by C. Johnston; Political possibilities in China, by John Barrett; The gathering of the storm, by Robert E. Lewis; The Far Eastern crisis, by A. R. Colquhoun; The great Siberian railway, by M. Mikhailoff; China and the powers, by Lord Charles Beresford; Mutual helpfulness between China and the United States, by Wu Ting Fang; America's share in a partition of China, by D. C. Boulger; America's interest in China, by J. H. Wilson; The American policy in China, by Sir C. W. Dilke.
- Speer, Robert E. *Missions and politics in Asia. Studies of the spirit of the Eastern peoples, the present making of history in Asia, and the part therein of Christian missions.* New York: Fleming H. Revell Company, 1898. 271 pp. 12°. (Students' lectures on missions, Princeton Theological Seminary, 1898.)
- *Missions and politics in China: a record of cause and effect.* New York: Fleming H. Revell Company, 1900. 61 pp. 16°.
- Spielmann, C. *Die Taiping-Revolution in China, 1850–1864. Ein Kapitel der menschlichen Tragikomödie. Nebst einem Ueberblick über Geschichte und Entwicklung Chinas.* Halle: Hermann Geseenius, 1900. iv, 163 pp. 8°.
- Stott, Grace. *Twenty-six years of missionary work in China.* With 8 illustrations. London: Hodder & Stoughton, 1897. viii, 366 pp. 8°.
- Tcheng-ki-tong. *The Chinese painted by themselves.* Translated from the French by James Millington. London: Field & Tuer [1885]. (4), 203 pp. Portrait. 12°.

- Tcheng-ki-tong and others. *The Chinese empire, past and present*. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. [1900]. 243 pp. Plates. Folded map. 12°.
- Thomson, John. *Through China with a camera*. With nearly 100 illustrations. Westminster: A. Constable & Co., 1898. xiv, 284 pp. Plates (photogravures). 8°.
- Vladimir. *Russia on the Pacific and the Siberian railway*. With maps and illustrations. London: Sampson Low, etc., 1899. xii, 373 pp. 8°.
- Walton, Joseph. *China and the present crisis*. With notes on a visit to Japan and Korea. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co., 1900. viii, 319 pp. Folded map. 12°. "Mr. Walton has only recently returned from an eight months' journey in the Far East. He had interviews with many of those who figure so prominently in the present crisis, and his work will be found as interesting as it is opportune."
- Wellby, M. S. *Through unknown Tibet*. London: T. Fisher Unwin, 1898. xiv, 440 pp. Portraits, maps, and illustrations. 8°. "This handsome volume gives a plain, straightforward narrative of the journey of Captain Wellby and Lieutenant Malcolm across Tibet and Northern China, an account of the geographical results of which was communicated to the Society, and will appear in the 'Journal.' This volume is well illustrated and has a series of maps of the route on the large scale of 16 miles to an inch."
- Wildman, Rounsevelle. *China's open door: a sketch of Chinese life and history*. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Company, 1900. xvi, 318 pp. 12°. "Writing from the modern American point of view, Mr. Wildman could hardly fail to treat quite fully of the commercial and economic problems of the Far East. His residence at Hongkong as the official representative of the United States has afforded him many opportunities for accurate judgment on these subjects."
- Williams, Samuel Wells. *A history of China, being the historical chapters from "The Middle Kingdom" \* \* \* with a concluding chapter narrating recent events*. New York: Charles Scribner's Son's, 1897. xiv, 474 pp. Plan. 8°.
- . *The middle kingdom, a survey of the geography, government, literature, social life, arts, and history of the Chinese empire and its inhabitants*. Revised edition, with illustrations and a new map of the empire. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1883. 2 vols. Plates. 8°.
- Wolseley, Sir Garnet Joseph. *Narrative of the war in China in 1860, to which is added the account of a short residence with the Tai-Ping rebels at Nankin and a voyage from thence to Hankow*. London: Longman, Green, Longman & Roberts, 1862. xiv, 415 pp. Portrait. 8°.
- Yorck von Wartenburg, Graf. *Das Vordringen der russischen Macht in Asien*. 2. Auflage. Berlin: E. S. Mittler, 1900. 67 pp. Map. L. 8°.
- Younghusband, Francis. *Among the Celestials. A narrative of travels in Manchuria, across the Gobi desert, through the Himalayas to India*. Abridged from "The heart of a continent." London: John Murray, 1898. viii, 262 pp. Illustrations. Maps. 8°.
- . *The heart of a continent; a narrative of travels in Manchuria, across the Gobi desert, through the Himalayas, the Pamirs, and Chitral, 1884-1894*. London: J. Murray, 1896. xvii (2), 409 pp. 17 plates. Portrait. Maps. 8°.

## ARTICLES IN PERIODICALS.

- 1896-97. *The grand canal of China*. W. R. Carles. Royal Asiatic Society, China Branch, Journal, vol. 31 (1896-97), 102-115. "This is the complete paper contributed by Mr. Carles to the China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society in 1895, which had been lost and an imperfect summary published in its place."
- 1897. *Convotises japonaises et colonies européennes*. Paul Thirion. Correspondant (1897), 256-282.
- 1897. *Hainan. La colonisation chinoise; l'île au point de vue économique et diplomatique*. (With map.) Claudius Madrolle. Questions diplomatiques et coloniales, vol. 1 (1897), 516-522. "Notes on a visit to Hai-nan in 1896, with a linguistic map of the island."
- 1897. *Le développement économique du Japon depuis la guerre contre la Chine*. J. Franconie. (Extrait des Annales de l'École libre des sciences politiques.) Société de géographie commerciale, Havre, Bulletin, vol. 14 (1897), 109-117, 131-138, 214-223.
- 1897. *Les grandes voies commerciales de l'Asie centrale*. Ch. E. Bonin. Société de géographie commerciale, Paris, Bulletin, vol. 19 (1897), 301-306. "On routes in Tibet and Mongolia."
- 1898. *History of the English factory at Hirado (1613-1622), with an introductory chapter on the origin of English enterprise in the Far East*. Dr. Ludwig Riess. Asiatic Society of Japan, Transactions, vol. 26 (1898), 1-114, 163-218.
- 1898. *Die gegenwärtige Lage in China*. Begleitworte zu einer Kartenskizze von Dr. Tiessen. (With map.) Deutsche Kolonialzeitung, vol. 15 (1898), 268-272. "The map shows railways completed, in construction, and projected, and also the 'spheres of interest' of the various European powers."
- 1898. *Kiautschou. Kolonial-Jahrbuch*, vol. 11 (1898), 33-90, 148-155. "A history of the acquisition of Kiauchou, and an estimate of its value to Germany."
- 1898. *The Yangtse basin and the British sphere*. Archibald Little. Society of Arts Jour., vol. 47 (1898), 77-84.
- 1898. *Die Aufstände in China*. Oesterreichische Monats. für den Orient, vol. 4 (1898), 99-104, 113-119.
- 1898. *Questions chinoises: Kouang-Tcheou, Sancier, Hai-Nan*. (With maps.) Claudius Madrolle. Questions diplomatiques et coloniales, vol. 4 (1898), 6-12.
- 1898. *Les chemins de fer en Chine, dernières concessions*. (With map.) A. Fauvel. Questions diplomatiques et coloniales, vol. 4 (1898), 413-419, 457-563.
- 1898. *Le premier partage de la Chine*. (With sketch-map.) A. Montell. Revue française, vol. 23 (1898), 221-225, 277-283. "On the spheres of European influence in China."
- 1898. *La province du Chantoung*. (With map.) A. A. Fauvel. Revue française, vol. 23 (1898), 263-276.
- 1898. *The Chinese question; how it may effect our imperial interests*. (With map.) Archibald Colquhoun. Royal United Service Journal, vol. 42 (1898), 406-437.
- 1898. *La part de la France en Chine*. Société de géographie de Marseille, Bulletin, vol. 22 (1898), 169.
- 1898. *Les voyages et les résultats de la mission lyonnaise d'exploration commerciale en Chine*. (With map.) Henri Brenier. Société de géographie commerciale de Paris, vol. 20 (1898), 10-27.
- 1898. *La situation commerciale des principales puissances en Chine, mission lyonnaise*. Henri Brenier. Société de géographie de Lyon, Bulletin, vol. 14 (1898), 693-709.
- 1898. *Les positions navales de la mer Jaune, Tai-Lien-Wan et Port-Arthur, Wei-Hai-Wei*. (With maps and illustrations.) Villetard de Laguerie. Tour du monde, vol. 4 (1898), 113-116, 129-132.
- 1898. *L'Extrême-Orient*. (With map.) M. Elisée Reclus. Société royale de géographie d'Anvers Bulletin, vol. 22 (1898), 143-155. "On the political geography of the East and its possible changes."

1898. The Keng-hung contention; Upper Mékong trade. E. H. Parker. *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 5 (Jan., 1898), 39.
1898. Crisis in the Far East. *Spectator*, vol. 80 (Jan. 22, 1898), 104.
1898. British commercial relations with China, 1834-1896. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 24 (Feb. 1898), 143.
1898. Treaty ports of China. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 24 (Feb., 1898), 227.
1898. Trade and shipping of the Yangtze-kiang. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 24 (Feb., 1898), 174.
1898. Our trade with western China. John Foster Fraser. *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 73 (Feb., 1898), 235-240.
1898. Crisis in the Far East. *National Rev.*, vol. 30 (Feb., 1898), 817.
1898. Crisis in China. *Rev. of Reviews*, vol. 17 (Feb., 1898), 144.
1898. Crisis in China. *Blackwood's Mag.*, vol. 163 (Feb., 1898), 295. (Map.)
1898. Crisis in China. *Missionary Rev.*, vol. 21 (Feb., 1898), 137.
1898. Problem in the Far East. *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 73 (Feb., 1898), 193.
1898. "Of extreme gravity." (The open door in China.) *Outlook (Eng.)*, vol. 1 (Feb. 12, 1898), 48.
1898. The development of Persian trade. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 24 (Mar., 1898), 272.
1898. The "but" in the Far East. (The open door in China.) *Outlook (Eng.)*, vol. 1 (Mar. 5, 1898), 144.
1898. Recent move of Germany in the East. F. Charnes. *Living Age*, vol. 216 (Mar. 12, 1898), 705.
1898. Problem in the Far East. F. T. Jane. *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 73 (Mar., 1898), 387.
1898. The policy of playing dog in the manger. (Russia and England in China.) *Spectator*, vol. 80 (Mar. 12, 1898), 364.
1898. Anglo-Russian duel in the Far East. *Public Opinion*, vol. 24 (Mar. 17, 1898), 332.
1898. England in China. (England's future policy in China.) *Outlook (Eng.)*, vol. 1 (Mar. 26, 1898), 231.
1898. Chinese imbroglio. *Blackwood's Mag.*, vol. 163 (Apr., 1898), 552.
1898. The economic condition of Hong Kong. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 24 (Apr., 1898), 397.
1898. Trade and trade routes in Siam. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 24 (Apr., 1898), 402.
1898. The Far Eastern question. *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 5 (Apr., 1898), 275.
1898. China in commotion. A. Mitchie. *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 5 (Apr., 1898), 301.
1898. "Japan—A forecast." J. Morris. *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 5 (Apr., 1898), 309.
1898. Mongolia, with an introduction on "The partition of China." W. E. Gowan. *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 5 (Apr., 1898), 387-400. "The account of Mongolia is stated to be translated from Lieut. Z. Matusovski's Russian 'Sketch of the Chinese Empire.'"
1898. France and England in the Far East. F. D. Pressensé. *Nineteenth Century*, vol. 43 (Apr., 1898), 531.
1898. England and Russia in China. *Spectator*, vol. 80 (Apr. 30, 1898), 612.
1898. The failure of our foreign policy. (China.) *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 73 (Apr., 1898), 457.
1898. What will Mr. Balfour say? ("Open-door question.") *Outlook (Eng.)*, vol. 1 (Apr. 2, 1898), 272.
1898. Crisis in China. *Eclectic Mag.*, vol. 130 (Apr., 1898), 524.
1898. Breakdown of our Chinese policy. *Diplomaticus. Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 69 (May, 1898), 844.
1898. Independence and integrity of China. *Rev. of Reviews*, vol. 17 (May, 1898), 530.
1898. British interests in the Far East. *Blackwood's Mag.*, vol. 163 (May, 1898), 718.
1898. The trade and shipping of the Yangtse-kiang in 1897. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 24 (May, 1898), 525.
1898. British interests as stated by Mr. Balfour. *National Rev.*, vol. 31 (May, 1898), 340.
1898. Our "expert" statesmen. (England and Russia in China.) *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 73 (May, 1898), 628.
1898. Dans le Tian Chan Russe. Au tour de l'Issyk-Koul. With illustrations. G. Saint-Yves. *Annales de Géographie*, vol. 8 (May 15, 1898), 201-215.
1898. Russian and England in China. *Saturday Rev.*, vol. 85 (May 7, 1898), 610.
1898. The commercial importance of the Yang-tze. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 24 (June, 1898), 651.
1898. Russia and Mr. Chamberlain's long spoon (China). W. T. Stead. *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 73 (June, 1898), 761.
1898. Our policy in the Far East. W. Des Voeux. *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 73 (June, 1898), 795.
1898. Splendid isolation, or what? (China and Japan.) H. M. Stanley. *Nineteenth Century*, vol. 43 (June, 1898), 869. *Littell's Living Age*, vol. 218 (July 9, 1898), 67. *Eclectic Mag.*, vol. 131 (Aug., 1898), 234.
1898. Problem in the Far East. *Eclectic Mag.*, vol. 130 (June, 1898), 744.
1898. Mr. Chamberlain's syllogism. (Russia in China.) *Spectator*, vol. 80 (June 18, 1898), 848.
1898. American competition with British trade in Japan. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 25 (July, 1898), 43.
1898. The commercial importance of the Si-Kiang (West River). With map. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 25 (July, 1898), 31.
1898. New Chinese treaty ports. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 25 (July, 1898), 40.
1898. The railway connection of India and China. A. R. Colquhoun. *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 6 (July, 1898), 35.
1898. The Yang-tze valley and British commerce. A. Barton. *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 6 (July, 1898), 62.
1898. New China. Tau Sien Ko. *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 6 (July, 1898), 69.
1898. England's foreign policy in China. *Edinburgh Rev.*, vol. 188 (July, 1898), 252.
1898. The Crown colonies in Asia in 1898. G. D. Badenoch. *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 6 (July, 1898), 91.
1898. England's future policy in China. A. Michie. *National Rev.*, vol. 31 (July, 1898), 654.
1898. England and Russia. (China.) *Independent*, vol. 50 (Aug. 11, 1898), 427.
1898. Wei-Hai-Wei, our latest leasehold possession. (Being recollections of Wei-Hai-Wei, with suggestions for a definite policy in the Far East.) R. S. Yorke. *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 70 (July, 1898), 36.
1898. Lord Salisbury and China. *Saturday Rev.*, vol. 86 (July 16, 1898), 70.
1898. French aspirations in the Upper Yangtse. *Spectator*, vol. 81 (Aug. 13, 1898), 210.
1898. England and Russia. *Outlook*, vol. 59 (Aug. 13, 1898), 901.
1898. England's future empire in the Far East. *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 74 (Aug., 1898), 153.
1898. The cotton industry of the Far East. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 25 (Sept., 1898), 290.
1898. The trade of British, French, and German possessions in West Africa. With map. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 25 (Sept., 1898), 264.
1898. England and Russia. C. F. Hamilton. *Canadian Mag.*, vol. 11 (Sept., 1898), 444.

1898. *The Yangtze Valley and its trade.* Archibald Little. *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 74 (Sept., 1898), 363-374.
1898. *British record in China.* A. Krausse. *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 70 (Sept., 1898), 347.
1898. *Great Britain and Russia in China.* *Harper's Weekly*, vol. 24 (Sept. 17, 1898), 906.
1898. *England and Russia in China.* *National Rev.*, vol. 32 (Sept., 1898), 12.
1898. *The trade of East Africa.* With map. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 25 (Oct., 1898), 390.
1898. *England's destiny in China.* F. E. Younghusband. *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 74 (Oct., 1898), 457.
1898. *British record in China.* A. Krausse. *Eclectic Mag.*, vol. 131 (Oct., 1898), 486.
1898. *England and Russia in the Far East.* G. Drage. *Forum*, vol. 26 (Oct., 1898), 129.
1898. *China, England, and Russia.* *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 6 (Oct., 1898), 300.
1898. *Coming struggle in the Pacific.* B. Taylor. *Nineteenth Century*, vol. 44 (Oct., 1898), 656.
1898. *United States policy in China.* M. B. Dunnell. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 167 (Oct., 1898), 393.
1898. *The United States and the Far East.* M. W. Hazeltine, Mark B. Dunnell. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 167 (Oct., 1898), 385.
1898. *Customs tariff of Japan.* *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 25 (Nov., 1898), 546.
1898. *Trade regulations of the Yang-Tsze Kiang.* *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 25 (Nov., 1898), 534.
- ~ 1898. *The resources and means of communication of China.* G. G. Chisholm. *Geogr. Jour.*, vol. 12 (Nov., 1898), 500-519.
1898. *Crisis in the Far East.* A. R. Colquhoun. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 167 (Nov., 1898), 513.
1898. *Coming struggle in the Pacific.* B. Taylor. *Eclectic Mag.*, vol. 131 (Nov., 1898), 662.
1898. *England's destiny in China.* F. E. Younghusband. *Eclectic Mag.*, vol. 131 (Nov., 1898), 708.
1898. *The Chinese, and recent industrial progress in the Far East.* J. S. Fearon and E. P. Allen. *Engineering Magazine*, vol. 16 (Nov., 1898), 165.
1898. *British trade and the integrity of China.* Holt S. Hallett. *Fortnightly Rev. n. s.*, vol. 63 (1898), 664-679.
1898. *Eastward expansion of the United States.* A. R. Colquhoun. *Harper's Monthly*, vol. 97 (Nov., 1898), 932.
1898. *Le problème chinois: Peking—la classe des lettrés.* Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu. *Revue des Deux Mondes*, vol. 150 (Nov. 15, 1898), 314.
- ~ 1898. *Chinese railway development, past, present, and future.* Charles Denby and E. P. Allen. *Engineering Magazine*, vol. 16 (Dec., 1898), 339.
1898. *Coming fusion of East and West.* E. F. Fenollosa. *Harper's Monthly*, vol. 98 (Dec., 1898), 115.
1898. *Shall the open door be closed?* G. Reid. *National Rev.*, vol. 32 (Dec., 1898), 491.
1899. *The commercial development of Japan.* O. P. Austin. *National Geogr. Mag.*, vol. 10 (1899), 329-337.
1899. *A journey through the khanate of Bokhara.* (Russian Central Asia.) Mrs. Rickmer Rickmers. *Liverpool Geographical Society, Transactions* (1899), 37-43.
1899. *The Yangtze valley and the British sphere.* Archibald J. Little. *Liverpool Geographical Society, Transactions* (1899), 15-20.
- ~ 1899. *Les télégraphes et les postes en Chine.* With map. A. A. Fauvel. *Questions Diplomatiques et Coloniales*, vol. 6 (1899), 83-87.
1899. *La Chine économique, d'après les travaux de la mission lyonnaise, 1895-1897.* With map. M. L. Raveneau. *Annales de géographie*, vol. 8 (1899), 62-73. "A summary of the great report of the commercial mission of the Lyons Chamber of Commerce."
1899. *Eine Rekognoszierungsreise in der Provinz Schan-Tung.* With map. A. Gaedertz. *Petermann's Mittheil.*, vol. 45 (1899), 49-56, 82-91, 106-113.
- ~ 1899. *The prospect in Chinese trade and the present opportunity.* G. F. Scott Elliot. *Proceedings of the Philosophical Society of Glasgow*, 1899, p. 20.
1899. *La Chine entr'ouverte; sa perfectibilité.* Paul Barré. *Revue de géographie*, vol. 45 (1899), 347, 418.
- ~ 1899. *Les chemins de fer en Chine.* With map. Jean de Marcellac. *Questions Diplomatiques et Coloniales*, vol. 7 (June 15, July 15, 1899), 265, 321.
- ~ 1899. *Les chemins de fer en Chine.* (With map.) J. Servigny. *Revue Française*, vol. 24 (1899), 157-164.
1899. *Notice géographique, ethnographique et commerciale sur le haut Fleuve Rouge (de Yuan-kiang à Man-hao).* (With map.) Société de Géographie Commerciale, Paris. *Bulletin*, vol. 21 (1899), 80-97.
1899. *La province du Tché-Kiang (Chine).* A. A. Fauvel. *Questions Diplomatiques et Coloniales*, vol. 8 (September 1, 1899), 22.
1899. *The administrative history of the British dependencies in the farther East.* H. M. Stephens. *Amer. Historical Rev.*, vol. 4 (Jan., 1899), 246.
1899. *Anglo-America and China.* G. Sharp. *Anglo-American Mag.*, vol. 1 (Jan., 1899), 90.
- ~ 1899. *American interests in the Far East.* J. Foord. *Anglo-American Mag.*, vol. 1 (Jan., 1899), 1.
1899. *Russia and England in China.* P. S. Reinsch. *The Arena*, vol. 21 (Jan., 1899), 75.
1899. *The relations of the United States to their new dependencies.* A. T. Mahan. *Engineering Magazine*, vol. 16 (Jan., 1899), 521.
1899. *China: spheres of interest and the open door.* R. S. Gundry. *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 66 (Jan., 1899), 37-52.
1899. *Future relations of Great Britain and the United States.* C. W. Dilke. *Forum*, vol. 26 (Jan., 1899), 515.
1899. *The partition of China.* A. Little. *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 7 (Jan., 1899), 58.
1899. *A colonial empire on economic and just principles.* H. R. Fox Bourne. *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 7 (Jan., 1899), 94.
1899. *Le problème chinois; le peuple chinois et ses relations actuelles avec les Européens.* Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu. *Revue des Deux Mondes*, vol. 151 (Jan. 1, 1899), 43.
1899. *Le problème chinois. Le Chine et les puissances.* Pierre Leroy-Beaulieu. *Revue des Deux Mondes*, vol. 152 (Mar. 1, 1899), 112.
1899. *The open door in China.* *Independent*, vol. 52 (Jan. 11, 1899), 137.
1899. *America in the Far East.* W. E. Griffis. *Outlook*, vol. 61 (Jan. 14, 1899), 110.
1899. *Mr. Morley on jingoism.* *Spectator*, vol. 82 (Jan. 21, 1899), 77.
1899. *The commercial future. The new struggle for life among the nations.* Brooks Adams. *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 65 (Feb., 1899), 274.
1899. *The awakening of China.* J. Smith. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 168 (Feb., 1899), 229.
1899. *Lord Beresford's open door mission to the United States.* *Public Opinion*, vol. 26 (Feb. 23, Mar. 2, 1899), 233, 263.
1899. *Effects of England's war; a retrospect from the twentieth century.* J. Foreman. *Westminster Rev.*, vol. 151 (Feb., 1899), 146.
1899. *The trade and trade routes in Siam.* (With map.) *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 26 (Mar., 1899), 267.
1899. *The trade of Thibet.* (With map.) *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 26 (Mar., 1899), 284.

1899. China to be partitioned? *Independent*, vol. 51 (Mar. 16, 1899), 775.
1899. Crisis in China. *Independent*, vol. 51 (Mar. 16, 23, 1899), 731, 798. [Map.]
1899. Breaking up of China. *Nation*, vol. 68 (Mar. 30, 1899), 236.
1899. The dissolution of the Chinese Empire. D. C. Boulger. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 168 (Mar., 1899), 258.
1899. Lord Charles Beresford on America and the Far East. C. H. Shinn. *Outlook*, vol. 61 (Mar., 1899), 530.
1899. Italy, Russia, and England in China. *Outlook*, vol. 61 (Mar. 18, 1899), 618.
1899. Far Eastern press on the Beresford policy. *Public Opinion*, vol. 26 (Mar. 9, 1899), 299.
1899. Italy's demand upon China. *Public Opinion*, vol. 26 (Mar. 30, 1899), 394.
1899. Russia versus England? *Am. Rev. of Reviews*, vol. 19 (Apr., 1899), 401.
1899. Japanese view of China's predicament. *Am. Rev. of Reviews*, vol. 19 (Apr., 1899), 481.
1899. A year's diplomacy in Peking. *Blackwood's Mag.*, vol. 165 (Apr., 1899), 773; *Living Age*, vol. 221 (May, 1899), 371.
1899. New routes for Persian trade. (With map.) *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 26 (Apr., 1899), 397.
1899. British North Borneo. John Jardine. *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 75 (Apr., 1899), 578.
1899. Lord Salisbury's new Chinese policy. *Diplomaticus. Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 71 (Apr., 1899), 539.
1899. American opportunities in China. G. Reid. *Forum*, vol. 27 (Apr., 1899), 237.
1899. Chinese reform and British interests. "Sinicus." *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 7 (Apr., 1899), 318.
1899. China and her persecutors. *Public Opinion*, vol. 26 (Apr. 20, 1899), 484.
1899. American policy in the Far East. J. M. King, jr. *Anglo-American Mag.*, vol. 1 (May, 1899), 432.
1899. The commercial relations of the United States with the Far East. W. C. Ford. *Annals of the American Academy* (May, 1899, suppl.), 107.
1899. Political relations of the United States with the Far East. Wu Ting Fang, L. M. Keasbey, F. W. Williams. *Annals of the American Academy* (May, 1899, suppl.), 168.
1899. Partition of China. *Harper's Weekly*, vol. 43 (May 20, 1899), 492.
1899. Relation of the United States to Asiatic politics. J. B. Moore. *Independent*, vol. 51 (May 4, 1899), 1206.
1899. China; a coroner's inquest. H. Norman. *Independent*, vol. 51 (May 4, 1899), 1226.
1899. England and Russia. *Independent*, vol. 51 (May 11, 1899), 1315.
1899. China and the powers. C. Beresford. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 168 (May, 1899), 530.
1899. Russia, England, and Italy in China. *Outlook*, vol. 62 (May 13, 1899), 100.
1899. Anglo-Russian agreement. *Public Opinion*, vol. 26 (May 25, 1899), 650.
1899. Le partage de la Chine. *Questions Diplomatiques et Coloniales*. (May 1, 1899.)
1899. The division of China. *Saturday Rev.*, vol. 87 (May 20, 1899), 612.
1899. Wei-hai-wei; its value as a naval station. *Blackwood's Mag.*, vol. 165 (June, 1899), 1069.
1899. The trade of the nations with their colonial possessions, 1895-97. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 26 (June, 1899), 651.
1899. China and the powers. P. Leroy-Beaulieu. *Chautauquan*, vol. 29 (June, 1899), 274.
1899. Europeans in China. *Current Literature*, vol. 25 (June, 1899), 484.
1899. Unsettled situation in China. *Independent*, vol. 51 (June 15, 1899), 1595.
1899. American trade in China. *Outlook*, vol. 62 (June 17, 1899), 369.
1899. The Far Eastern question. A. V. V. Raymond. *Outlook*, vol. 62 (June 24, 1899), 425.
1899. England's commercial policy toward her colonies. *Polit. Sci. Quar.*, vol. 14 (June, 1899), 211.
1899. The expansion of Russia. *Saturday Rev.*, vol. 87 (June 17, 1899), 755.
1899. American trade interests in China. *Protectionist*, vol. 11 (June, 1899), 71.
1899. The imperialism of British trade. "Ritortus." *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 76 (July, 1899), 132.
1899. China; spheres of interest and the open door. R. S. Gundry. *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 66 (July, 1899), 37.
1899. America in China. *Harper's Weekly*, vol. 43 (July 29, 1899), 736.
1899. Intercourse in the past between China and foreign countries. T. L. Bullock. *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 8 (July, 1899), 92.
1899. Khokand and China. E. H. Parker. *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 8 (July, 1899), 114.
1899. Shall the United States unite with England or Russia? *Independent*, vol. 51 (July 13, 1899), 1895.
1899. England's policy in China. V. Holmstrom. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 169 (July, 1899), 17.
1899. Interview with the foreign adviser to the Emperor of China. *Am. Rev. of Reviews*, vol. 20 (Aug., 1899), 204.
1899. The break-up of China, and our interest in it. *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 84 (Aug., 1899), 276.
1899. Regulations for navigation on Chinese inland waters. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 27 (Aug., 1899), 172.
1899. United States; the paramount power of the Pacific. J. Barrett. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 169 (Aug., 1899), 165.
1899. Trade relations with our islands. *Protectionist*, vol. 11 (Aug., 1899), 215.
1899. American policy on the Chinese question. *Protectionist*, vol. 11 (Aug., 1899), 234.
1899. The awakening of an island empire. (Japan.) R. W. Grant. *Anglo-American Mag.*, vol. 2 (Sept., 1899), 269.
1899. The opening of new ports in Japan. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 27 (Sept., 1899), 292.
1899. Immigration regulations for the islands of Cuba and the Philippines. *Board of Trade Jour.*, vol. 27 (Sept., 1899), 305.
1899. White man's burden in China. Senex. *Contemp. Rev.*, vol. 76 (Sept., 1899), 318; *Living Age*, vol. 223 (Mar., 1899), 274.
1899. America, England, and Germany as allies for the open door. J. Barrett. *Engineering Mag.*, vol. 17 (Sept., 1899), 893.
1899. Yangtze region. R. S. Gundry. *Fortnightly Rev.*, vol. 72 (Sept., 1899), 448.
1899. Ex oriente lux; a reply. A. Little. *No. Amer. Rev.*, vol. 169 (Sept., 1899), 329.
1899. Territorial government and differential duties. A. Clarke. *Protectionist*, vol. 11 (Sept., 1899), 288.
1899. China's appeal to Japan. *Public Opinion*, vol. 27 (Sept. 14, 1899), 331.
1899. How to save China. *Public Opinion*, vol. 27 (Sept. 28, 1899), 402.
1899. Imperial Chinese railways. *Engineering*, vol. 68 (Oct. 20, 1899), 500.
1899. Commercial Japan. O. P. Austin. *Forum*, vol. 28 (Oct., 1899), 146.
1899. The coming struggle for Persia. R. P. Lord. *Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev.*, 3d series, vol. 8 (Oct., 1899), 284.



1899. America and England in the East. Sir C. W. Dilke. No. Amer. Rev., vol. 169 (Oct., 1899), 558.
- 1899. Chinese railroad and mining concessions. C. Denby, jr. Forum, vol. 28 (Nov., 1899), 334.
1899. Will Chinese development benefit the Western world? J. P. Young. Forum, vol. 28 (Nov., 1899), 348.
1899. Saxon or Slav? (With map.) J. R. Procter. Harper's Weekly, vol. 43 (Nov. 25, 1899), 1179.
1899. Our duties in China. Independent, vol. 51 (Nov. 16, 1899), 3103.
1899. From London to Karachi in a week. (With map.) Francis H. Skrine. Scottish Geogr. Mag., vol. 15 (Nov., 1899), 462-470.  
"Suggestion for a mail route by India by uniting the Russian railway at Kushk with the Indian system at Chaman by the new line of 438 miles."
1899. Trade of the new "open ports" of Formosa. Board of Trade Jour., vol. 27 (Dec., 1899), 540.
1899. Foreign trade of the United States. W. P. Sterns. Journal of Political Economy, vol. 8 (Dec., 1899), 34.
1899. The coming storm in the Far East. (China.) "Ignotus." National Rev., vol. 34 (Dec., 1899), 494.
1899. Russia and Japan; a coming struggle. A. White. Harper's Weekly, vol. 43 (Dec. 23, 1899), 1291.
- ~ 1900. Our interests in China. J. Barrett. Am. Rev. of Reviews, vol. 21 (Jan., 1900), 42.
1900. Gains and losses in the Pacific. J. G. Leigh. Fortnightly Rev., vol. 73 (Jan., 1900), 45.
1900. Commercial possibilities of China. G. S. Fearon. Forum, vol. 28 (Jan., 1900), 592.
1900. Foreign trade of the United States. W. P. Sterns. Jour. of Polit. Economy, vol. 8 (Jan., 1900).
1900. Philippine islands and their environment. J. Barrett. National Geogr. Mag., vol. 11 (Jan., 1900), 1.
1900. The open door in China. Outlook, vol. 64 (Jan. 13, 1900), 19.
1900. Philippines; the Oriental problem. N. P. Chipman. Overland Monthly, vol. 35 (Jan., 1900), 22.
- 1900. British interests in China. Quar. Rev., vol. 191 (Jan., 1900), 1.
1900. The British sphere in China. Saturday Rev., vol. 89 (Jan. 6, 1900), 16.
1900. Reform in China. G. Reid. Forum, vol. 29 (Feb., 1900), 724.
1900. Japan's entry into the world's politics. G. Droppers. International Monthly, vol. 1 (Feb., 1900), 162.
1900. The expansion policy and the protectionists. Literary Digest, vol. 20 (Feb. 3, 1900), 139.
1900. The "Palace revolution" in China. Literary Digest, vol. 20 (Feb. 17, 1900), 223.
1900. China and the Philippines. P. Carus. Open Court, vol. 14 (Feb., 1900).
1900. Lettre d'Extrême-Orient; le Japon, l'Angleterre et la Russie. Jean de Cuers de Cogolin. Questions Diplomatiques et Coloniales, 4<sup>e</sup> année, no. 71 (Feb. 1, 1900), 139.
1900. Eastern commerce; what is it worth? E. Atkinson. No. Amer. Rev., vol. 170 (Feb., 1900), 295.
1900. Our interests in China. Protectionist, vol. 11 (Feb., 1900), 595.
1900. Chine entr'ouverte; sa perfectibilité. P. Barré. Revue de Géographie (Févr., 1900).
1900. Les droits de la France au Siam. P. Ibos. Revue de Géographie (Févr., 1900).
1900. Growth of our foreign policy. R. Olney. Atlantic, vol. 85 (Mar., 1900), 289. Note: Discusses "Open door" advantages, etc.
- 1900. The warfare of railways in Asia. A. H. Ford. Century, vol. 59 (Mar., 1900), 794.
1900. Western benefits through China's development. Ho Yow. Forum, vol. 29 (Mar., 1900), 79.
1900. Russia's sphere of influence; or, A thousand years of Manchuria. E. H. Parker. Imp. and Asiatic Quar. Rev., 3d series, vol. 9 (Apr., 1900), 287.
1900. The warlike policy of the Empress dowager of China. W. N. Brewster. Am. Rev. of Reviews, vol. 21 (Apr., 1900), 462.
- 1900. Trade corporations in China. M. M. Courant. Appleton's Pop. Sci. Monthly, vol. 56 (Apr., 1900), 722.
1900. The Eastern question. E. Maxey. Arena, vol. 23 (Apr., 1900), 358.
1900. A successful colonial experiment. (Hongkong.) Poultney Bigelow. Harper's Mag., vol. 100 (Apr., 1900), 712.
1900. Secretary Hay and the "open door" in China. Literary Digest, vol. 20 (Apr. 7, 1900), 415.
1900. A Japanese view of Japan in transition. A. Kinrossuké. Critic, vol. 36 (May, 1900).
1900. The United States and the future of China. W. W. Rockhill. Forum, vol. 29 (May, 1900), 324.
1900. Problem of Asia. A. T. Mahan. Harper's Mag., vol. 101 (May, 1900).
1900. The British sphere in Asia. C. E. D. Black. Nineteenth Century, vol. 47 (May, 1900), 767.
1900. Japan and Russia in the Far East. J. Murdock. No. Amer. Rev., vol. 170 (May, 1900), 609.
1900. Powers and the partition of China. G. Reid. No. Amer. Rev., vol. 170 (May, 1900), 634.
1900. The impending partition of China. W. W. Rockhill. Collier's Weekly, vol. 25 (June 16, 1900), 3.
1900. Russia's opening for Anglo-Saxon enterprise in Asia. A. R. Ford. Engineering Mag., vol. 19 (June, 1900), 354.
1900. The attitude of the United States toward the Chinese. Ho Yow. Forum, vol. 29 (June, 1900), 385.
1900. In the Far East. Literary Digest, vol. 20 (June 9, 1900), 705.
1900. Antagonism of England and Russia. D. C. Boulger. No. Amer. Rev., vol. 170 (June, 1900), 884.
1900. The Chinese situation. Outlook, vol. 65 (June, 1900), 328.
1900. The ferment in China. The Nation, vol. 70 (June 21, 1900), 470.
1900. America's part in the far-Eastern crisis. Literary Digest, vol. 20 (June 23, 1900), 743.
1900. The Chinese disturbances and the powers. Literary Digest, vol. 20 (June 23, 1900), 764.
1900. Is Russia to control all of Asia? A. H. Ford. Cosmopolitan, vol. 29, (July, 1900), 253.
- ~ 1900. Railway development in China. W. B. Parsons. McClure's Mag., vol. 15 (July, 1900), 238.
1900. Kritische Studien zur Bevölkerungsfrage China's. E. M. Köhler. Deutsche Rundschau für Geographie, vol. 22 (1900), 337-347.  
"The total population of the Chinese empire is here estimated at 450,000,000."
1900. Russian Central Asia: countries and peoples. By Archibald R. Colquhoun. With map. Journal of the Society of Arts, vol. 48 (1900), 554-568.
1900. La Chine entr'ouverte; sa perfectibilité. Paul Barré. Revue de géographie, vol. 46 (1900), 25, 107.
1900. À travers le Tonkin. La rivière Claire. G. L'Homme. (With maps.) Revue maritime, vol. 144 (1900), 5-56.
1900. La Chine d'après des auteurs récents. G. de Leval. (With illustrations.) Société des études coloniales, Bulletin, 7<sup>e</sup> année (1900), 1-23, 71-100. "A résumé of recent writings on the resources of China and the prospects of European trade."
- ~ 1900. L'action économique des puissances en Chine. Maurice de Coppet. Annales des sciences politiques, 5<sup>e</sup> année (Jan., 1900), 65.
1900. Le partage de Samoa et la politique dans le Pacifique-Sud. P. Lefébure. Annales des sciences politiques, 5<sup>e</sup> année (Jan., 1900), 116.



- 1900. Eisenbahnen und Eisenbahnpläne in China. H. Schumacher. Archiv für Eisenbahnwesen, Jahrg. 1900 (Jan., Feb., 1900), Heft 1.
- 1900. Secretary Hay's open-door victory. Public Opinion (N. Y.), vol. 28 (Jan. 11, 1900), 37.
- 1900. "Things Chinese." With a short account of a journey through the heart of China. Capt. A. W. S. Wingate. (With a map in sections.) Journal of the United Service Institution of India, vol. 29 (Jan., 1900), 1-28. "The journey referred to was described in the Geographical Journal, vol. 14 (1899), 639."
- 1900. Le nouveau porte de San-tow-ao. A. A. Fauvel. La Géographie (May 15, 1900), 385.
- 1900. Last palace intrigues at Peking. R. S. Gundry. Fortnightly Review, vol. 73 (June, 1900), 958; Littell's Living Age, vol. 226 (July 7, 1900), 1.
- 1900. Intellectual awakening of China. (R. K. Douglas.) Nineteenth Century, vol. 47 (June, 1900), 988; Littell's Living Age, vol. 226 (July 21, 1900), 137.
- 1900. Géographie générale des provinces chinoises voisines du Tonkin. A. Leclère. (With illustrations.) La Géographie, Bulletin de la Société de géographie (Apr. 15, 1900), 267-288.
- 1900. British and Russian diplomacy. By a diplomat. North American Review, vol. 170 (June, 1900), 871.
- 1900. Great Britain in Asia. Sir Richard Temple. North American Review, vol. 170 (June, 1900), 897.
- 1900. Tsi An, the ruling spirit of China. M. A. Hamm. Independent, vol. 52 (June 14, 1900), 1430.
- 1900. The Chinese disorder. Literary Digest, vol. 20 (June 30, 1900), 776.
- 1900. Chinese ideas about China. Literary Digest, vol. 20 (June 30, 1900), 794.
- 1900. European politics and the Chinese imbroglio. Literary Digest, vol. 20 (June 30, 1900), 793.
- 1900. La situation dans le nord du Chine. Maurice Courant. Annales des sciences politiques, 5<sup>e</sup> année (July, 1900), 523.
- 1900. The scramble for China. D. C. Boulger. Contemporary Review, vol. 78 (July, 1900), 1.
- 1900. France, Russia, and the peace of the world. Karl Blind. Fortnightly Review, vol. 68 (July, 1900), 28.
- 1900. The crisis in the Far East. Diplomaticus. Fortnightly Review, vol. 68 (July, 1900), 143.
- 1900. Kiaochow: A German colonial experiment. C. Denby. Forum, vol. 29 (July, 1900), 572.
- 1900. The revolt of the "Boxers" in China. E. H. Parker. Imperial and Asiatic Quarterly Review, 3d series, vol. 10 (July, 1900), 57.
- 1900. Mutual helpfulness between China and the United States. Wu Ting Fang. North American Review, vol. 171 (July, 1900), 1.
- 1900. The struggle for reform in China. Charles Johnston. North American Review, vol. 171 (July, 1900), 13.
- 1900. Missions and missionaries in China. Poultney Bigelow. North American Review, vol. 171 (July, 1900), 26.
- 1900. Chine et Japon. Projets des Japonais en Chine. Revue politique et parlementaire, vol. 25 (July, 1900), 187.
- 1900. La Chine économique. Anciens rapports commerciaux de la Chine avec l'Occident. Revue encyclopédique, année 10 (July 7, 1900), 531.
- 1900. Party of reform in China. J. Foord. Independent, vol. 52 (July 12, 1900), 1651.
- 1900. L'insurrection des Boxeurs et la politique de la France en Chine. Henri d'Orléans. Questions diplomatiques et coloniales, année 4 (July 15, 1900), 65.
- 1900. De Canton à Yun-Nan-Sen. A. François. (Lettres sur le Tonkin et la Chine méridionale.) Revue de Paris, 7<sup>e</sup> année (July 15, 1900).
- 1900. Les emprunts chinois et l'avenir financier de la Chine. P. Leroy-Beaulieu. L'Économiste français, année 28 (July 21, 1900), 85.
- 1900. La Chine économique. C. Saglis. Revue encyclopédique, année 10 (July 21, 1900), 366.
- 1900. Kouang-Tchéou Ouan. L. Maury. Revue encyclopédique, année 10 (July 21, 1900), 577.
- 1900. La Chine, l'Europe et le saint-siège. E. Lamy. Le Correspondant, 72<sup>e</sup> année (July 25, 1900), 193.
- 1900. La Chine et le gouvernement français. D. Cochin. Le Correspondant, 72<sup>e</sup> année (July 25, 1900), 216.
- 1900. Les Chinois. Mœurs et état social des Chinois. Nadaillac. Le Correspondant, 72<sup>e</sup> année (July 25, 1900), 225.
- 1900. European aggressions in China. The Nation, vol. 71 (July 26, 1900), 65.
- 1900. Distracted China. Blackwood's Magazine, vol. 168 (Aug., 1900), 287.
- 1900. Openings for mechanical engineers in China. Lord C. Beresford. Cassier's Magazine, vol. 18 (Aug., 1900), 290.
- 1900. China and the powers. E. Bainbridge. Contemporary Review, vol. 78 (Aug., 1900), 172.
- 1900. The United States in China. J. Quincy. Contemporary Review, vol. 78 (Aug., 1900), 183.
- 1900. Who's who in China. D. C. Boulger. Contemporary Review, vol. 78 (Aug., 1900), 255.
- 1900. China in regeneration. J. Foord. Engineering Magazine, vol. 19 (Aug., 1900), 655.
- 1900. Peking—and after. D. C. Boulger. Fortnightly Review, new series, vol. 68 (Aug., 1900), 198.
- 1900. Have we a policy in China? Diplomaticus. Fortnightly Review, new series, vol. 68 (Aug., 1900), 327.
- 1900. Les intérêts européens en Chine. D. Bellet. Journal des économistes, vol. 43 (Aug., 1900), 161.
- 1900. The Chinese revolt. F. Greenwood. Nineteenth Century, vol. 48 (Aug., 1900), 330.
- 1900. Vengeance and afterwards. E. Dicey. Nineteenth Century, vol. 48 (Aug., 1900), 339.
- 1900. America's duty in China. John Barrett. North American Review, vol. 171 (Aug., 1900), 145.
- 1900. The responsibility of the rulers for the disturbances in China. Carlyon Bellairs. North American Review, vol. 171 (Aug., 1900), 158.
- 1900. America's share in a partition of China. D. C. Boulger. North American Review, vol. 171 (Aug., 1900), 171.
- 1900. Causes of anti-foreign feeling in China. George B. Smyth. North American Review, vol. 171 (Aug., 1900), 182.
- 1900. The Japanese view of the situation in China. By a Japanese diplomat. North American Review, vol. 171 (Aug., 1900), 198.
- 1900. The gathering of the storm in China. Robert E. Lewis. North American Review, vol. 171 (Aug., 1900), 208.
- 1900. America's treatment of the Chinese. Charles F. Holder. North American Review, vol. 171 (Aug., 1900), 214.
- 1900. Nos missionnaires, patriotes et savants en Chine. A. A. Fauvel. Le Correspondant, 72<sup>e</sup> année (Aug. 10, 1900), 438.
- 1900. The enemies of civilization. Nation, vol. 71 (Aug. 16, 1900), 125.
- 1900. American dealing with China. Nation, vol. 71 (Aug. 23, 1900), 145.
- 1900. Die internationale Lage in China. Koloniale Zeitschrift, Jahrgang 1 (Aug. 30, 1900), 239.
- 1900. Can China be saved? Talcott Williams. American Review of Reviews, vol. 22 (Sept., 1900), 295.
- 1900. Missions in China. A defense and an appreciation. J. S. Dennis. American Review of Reviews, vol. 22 (Sept., 1900), 302.
- 1900. Japan's present attitude towards China. J. K. Goodrich. American Review of Reviews, vol. 22 (Sept., 1900), 308.
- 1900. Sir Henry Parkes in China. S. Lane Poole. Anglo-Saxon Magazine, vol. 6 (Sept., 1900), 225.

1900. *Mongolian vs. Caucasian: China's defensive strength*; J. H. Wisby. *Philosophic basis of Chinese conservatism*; A. K. Glover. *Our Asiatic missionary enterprise*; J. M. Scanland. *Prince Hamlet of Peking*; C. Johnston. *The Arena*, vol. 24 (Sept., 1900), 244.
1900. *Influence of the Western world on China. Progress, mistakes, and responsibilities*. D. Z. Sheffield. *Century*, vol. 60 (Sept., 1900), 784.
1900. *The revolution in China and its causes*. R. Van Bergen. *Century*, vol. 60 (Sept., 1900), 791.
1900. *China and the powers*. J. B. Walker. *Cosmopolitan*, vol. 29 (Sept., 1900), 468.
1900. *Crisis in China—its meaning for engineering interests*. *Engineering Magazine*, vol. 19 (Sept., 1900), 801.
1900. *China against the world. The national uprising against foreigners*. P. S. Reinsch. *Forum*, vol. 30 (Sept., 1900), 67.
1900. *Japan's attitude toward China*. D. W. Stevens. *Forum*, vol. 30 (Sept., 1900), 76.
1900. *La Chine et la diplomatie européenne*. É. Réclus. *L'Humanité nouvelle*, 4<sup>e</sup> année (Sept., 1900), 257.
1900. *On égorge en Chine \* \* \* si nous parlions du péril japonais*. Félix Régamey. *L'Humanité nouvelle*, 4<sup>e</sup> année (Sept., 1900), 289.
1900. *Problems of the East and problems of the Far East*. A. Rambaud. *International Monthly*, vol. 2 (Sept., Oct., 1900), 211, 341.
1900. *The conflict in China*. Edmund Buckley. *International Monthly*, vol. 2 (Sept., 1900), 323.
1900. *Les affaires de Chine. Questions diplomatiques et coloniales, année 4* (Sept., 1900), 304.
1900. *Les sociétés secrètes en Chine*. C. Saglio. *Revue encyclopédique*, vol. 10 (Sept. 1, 1900), 686.
1900. *L'Europe en Chine*. *Revue de Paris*, 7<sup>e</sup> année (Sept. 1, 1900), 1.
1900. *L'évacuation de Peking et la sécurité des étrangers en Chine*. Francis Mury. *Le Correspondant*, 72<sup>e</sup> année (Sept. 25, 1900), 1046.
1900. *China's "Holy Land."* A visit to the tomb of Confucius. Ernest von Hesse-Wartegg. *Century*, vol. 60 (Oct., 1900), 803.
1900. *The Chinese as business men*. Sheridan P. Read. *Century*, vol. 60 (Oct., 1900), 864.
1900. *Chinese education*. Romyn Hitchcock. *Century*, vol. 60 (Oct., 1900), 900.
1900. *Chinese traits and Western blunders*. Henry C. Potter. *Century*, vol. 60 (Oct., 1900), 921.
1900. *A plea for fair treatment*. Wu Ting Fang. *Century*, vol. 60 (Oct., 1900), 951.
1900. *Our future policy in China*. *Contemporary Review*, vol. 78 (Oct., 1900), 483.
1900. *China and international questions*. *Edinburgh Review*, vol. 192 (Oct., 1900), 450.
1900. *À Peking*. H. Delorme. *Le Correspondant*, 72<sup>e</sup> année (Oct. 10, 1900), 59.
1900. *The coming regeneration of China*. John Henry Barrows. *Gunton's Magazine*, vol. 19 (Oct., 1900), 303.
1900. *Wei-hai-wei*. Poultney Bigelow. *Harper's Magazine*, vol. 101 (Oct., 1900), 645.
1900. *The Chinese resentment*. H. H. Lowry. *Harper's Magazine*, vol. 101 (Oct., 1900), 740.
1900. *The Chinese imbroglio and how to get out of it*. E. H. Parker. *Imperial and Asiatic Quarterly Review*, vol. 10 (Oct., 1900), 252.
1900. *Missionary trouble in China*. Taw Sein Ko. *Imperial and Asiatic Quarterly Review*, vol. 10 (Oct., 1900), 278.
1900. *The German danger in the Far East*. X. *National Review*, vol. 36 (Oct., 1900), 178.
1900. *A plea for the control of China*. F. E. Younghusband. *National Review*, vol. 36 (Oct., 1900), 210.
1900. *China and Russia*. Josiah Quincy. *North American Review*, vol. 171 (Oct., 1900), 528.
1900. *Misunderstood Japan*. Y. Ozaki. *North American Review*, vol. 171 (Oct., 1900), 566.
1900. *The Chinese crisis*. *Quarterly Review*, vol. 192 (Oct., 1900), 542.
1900. *Great Britain and China*. *The Spectator*, vol. 85 (Oct. 20, 1900), 517.
1900. *Cultural factors in the Chinese crisis*. P. S. Reinsch. *American Academy of Political and Social Science, Annals*, vol. 16 (Nov., 1900), 435.
1900. *Sir Robert Hart*. H. C. Whittlesey. *Atlantic Monthly*, vol. 86 (Nov., 1900), 699.
1900. *The Peking legations: a national uprising and international episode*. Sir Robert Hart. *Fortnightly Review*, new series, vol. 68 (Nov., 1900), 713.
1900. *Europe, China, and the peace conference*. F. de Martens. *Monthly Review*, vol. 1 (Nov., 1900), 32. "Favors the Russian policy of leniency to China; opposes the exaction of severe penalties and concessions."
1900. *Effects of Asiatic conditions upon international policies*. A. T. Mahan. *North American Review*, vol. 171 (Nov., 1900), 609.
1900. *The industrial revolution in Japan*. Count Okum. *North American Review*, vol. 177 (Nov., 1900), 677.
1900. *China and the western powers*. F. Crispi. *North American Review*, vol. 171 (Nov., 1900), 692.
1900. *Le problème chinois. Le céleste empire et le monde civilisé*. *Revue des Deux Mondes*, vol. 162 (Nov. 1, 1900), 61.
1900. *La Chine et les puissances*. A. Moireau. *Revue Bleue*, 4<sup>e</sup> sér. t. 14 (Nov., 24, 1900), 658.
1900. *With the Peking relief column*. F. Palmer. *Century*, vol. 61 (Dec., 1900), 302.
1900. *Chinese foreign policy*. John Ross. *Contemporary Review*, No. 420 (Dec., 1900), 761-775.
1900. *Missionaries and governments*. Louise C. Brown. *Contemporary Review*, No. 420 (Dec., 1900), 870-876.
1900. *Russia's foreign policy*. A Russian publicist. *Contemporary Review*, No. 420 (Dec., 1900), 776-783.
1900. *Of some of the causes which led to the preservation of the foreign legations in Peking*. Roland Allen (of the Church of England Mission, Peking). *Cornhill Magazine*, No. 54 N. S. (Dec., 1900), 754-776.
1900. *The Peking legations: a national uprising and international episode*. Sir Robert Hart. *Cosmopolitan*, vol. 30 (Dec., 1900), 121.
1900. *A plea for peace—an Anglo-Russian alliance*. Capt. J. W. Gambier, R. N. *Fortnightly Review*, No. 408 N. S. (Dec. 1, 1900), 998-1008.

## APPENDIX.

### DUTCH COLONIES.

[Supplement to preceding list of Dutch colonies.]

The following list represents a recent purchase of books on Dutch colonies. These form part of a large collection of Dutch history and literature purchased by the Librarian of Congress in Europe the past summer. The books have not yet been received, consequently the titles have not been verified, except by comparison with the catalogues of Brinkmann and Nijhoff.

- Aardrikskundig en statistisch Woordenboek van Nederlandsch Indië. Amsterdam: P. N. van Kampen. 1861-1869. 3 vols. L. 8°.
- Aardrikskundig Genootschap. Tijdschrift. Amsterdam: C. L. Brinkmann, 1875-1899. Plates. Maps. L. 8°.
- Archief voor de geschiedenis der oude Hollandsche zending, 1884-1894. Utrecht: G. van Bentum, 1884-1891. 6 vols. 8°.
- Bataviaasch Genootschap van kunsten en wetenschappen. Notulen der vergaderingen. Batavia, 1864-1899. 8°.
- Tijdschrift voor Indische taal-, land-, en volkenkunde. Batavia, 1853-1899. 41 vols. 4°.
- Verhandelingen. Batavia, 1778-1899.
- Begin en Voortgangh van de Vereenighde Nederlantsche Geoctr. Oost-Indische Compagnie. Vervatende de voornaemste reysen by de inwoonderen ders. provincien derwaerts gedaen \* \* \* met veele discoursen verrijckt; nevens eenighe koopere platen verciert \* \* \* Met dry besondere tafels ofte registers, in twee delen verdeelt: waer van't eerste begrijpt veerthien voyagien, den meeren-deelen voor desen noyt in 't licht geweest. Gedrukt in den jaere 1646. Amsterdam, 1646. 2 vols. Plates. Maps. 4°.
- Bijdragen tot de taal-, land- en volkenkunde van Nederlandsch Indië. 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1853-1899. Plates. Maps. L. 8°.
- Blankenheym, C. M. Geschiedenis van de Compagnie van Ostende. Leyden, 1861. 8°.
- Bleeker, P. Reis door de Minahassa en den Molukschen Archipel. Batavia: Lange & Co., 1857. 2 vols. L. 8°.
- Bock, Carl. Reis in Oost- en Zuid-Borneo. 1879, 1880. 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1881. 4°. Atlas.
- Same. 2° druk. 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1888. 4°.
- Chijs, J. A. van der. Nederlandsch-Indische bibliographie. 1659-1870. 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1879. 4°.
- Geschiedenis der stichting van de Oost-Indische Compagnie. 2° druk. Leyden: P. Engels, 1857. L. 8°.
- Daendels, H. W. Staat der nederl. Oost-Indische bezittingen. 1808-1811. 's Gravenhage, 1814. 4 vols. F°.
- Deventer, J. S. Bijdragen tot de kennis van het landelijk stelsel op Java. Zalt-Bommel: Joh. Noman, 1865-66. 3 vols. L. 8°.
- Elout, C. T. Bijdragen betreffende koloniale en andere aangelegenheden in den raad van state behandeld. 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1874. L. 8°.
- Encyclopaedie van Nederlandsch Indië, met medewerking van verschillende ambtenaren, geleerden en officieren, samengesteld door P. A. van der Lith en F. Fokkens. 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1895-1900. 2 vols. 8°.
- Gerlach, A. J. A. Fastes militaires des Indes Orientales Néerlandaises. Zalt-Bommel: J. Noman, 1859. Plans. Maps. Portrait. 4°.
- Haga, A. Nederlandsch Nieuw Guinea en de Papoesch eilanden. Historische bydrage. 1500-1883. Batavia: W. Bruining & Co., 1885. 2 vols. Map. L. 8°.
- Ijzerman, J. W. Dwars door Sumatra. Tocht van Padang naar Siak. Haarlem: E. F. Bohn, 1895. (16), 536 pp. Plates. Map. 8°.
- Indisch Genootschap. Handelingen. 's Gravenhage. 1854-1899. 8°.
- Indische Gids. Tome I-XXI. Leyden: E. J. Brill, 1879-1899. L. 8°.
- Jacobs, Julius. Eenigen tijd onder de Baliërs. Batavia: G. Kolff & Co., 1883. Plates. Map. 8°.
- Junghuhn, F. Die Battaläländer auf Sumatra, 1840, 1841, untersucht und beschrieben. Berlin: G. Reimer, 1847. 2 vols. Plates. L. 8°.
- Java, zijne gedaante, zijn plantentooi en inwendige bouw. 2d edition. 's Gravenhage, 1853. 4 vols. Plates. Map. 8°.
- Kemp, P. H. van der. De administratie der geldmiddelen van Neêrlandsch-Indië. Amsterdam: J. H. de Bussy, 1881-1883. 4 vols. L. 8°.
- Kielstra, E. B. Beschrijving van den Atjeh-oorlog. 's Gravenhage: Gebr. v. Cleef, 1883-1885. 3 vols. Plates. Maps. L. 8°.
- Koloniale Jaarboeken. Maandschrift tot verspreiding van kennis der Nederlandsche en Buitenl. overzeesche bezittingen. 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1861-1864. 4 vols. large 8°.
- Koning, G. A. de. De burgerlijke gouvernementbetrekkingen in nederlandsch Oost-Indië. Amsterdam: J. H. de Bussy, 1892. L. 8°.
- Koninklijk Instituut van de taal-, land- en volkenkunde van Nederlandsch-Indië. Nieuw Guinea ethnographisch en natuurkundig onderzocht en beschreven in 1858. Amsterdam, 1862. 26 plates. 7 maps. 8°.
- Lauts, G. Geschiedenis van de vestiging, uitbreiding bloei en verval van de magt der Nederlanders in Indië, 1602-1858. Amsterdam: F. Muller, 1853-1866. 7 vols. L. 8°.
- Levysohn, Norman H. De Britische heerschappij over Java en onderhoorigheden, 1811-1816. 's Gravenhage: Gebrüder Belinfante, 1857. L. 8°.
- Lion, Jac. De Nederlandsch-Indische strafvordering voor Europeanen en met hen gelijkgestelden, toegelicht uit de jurisprudentie \* \* \* enz. Leyden: E. J. Brill, 1886. 8°.
- Lith, P. A. van der. Nederlandsch Oost-Indië. Leyden: E. J. Brill, 1892-1895. 2 vols. Plates. L. 8°.
- Mijer, A. De agrarische verordeningen in Nederlandsch-Indië. 3° druk. 's Gravenhage: Martin Nijhoff, 1885. Map. L. 8°.
- Millies, H. C. Recherches sur les monnaies des indigènes de l'Archipel Indien. 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1871. 26 pl. 4°.
- Modigliani, Elio. Viaggio a Nias. Milano: Treves, 1890. 15, 726 pp. Plates. Maps. 8°.

- Moniteur des Indes Orientales et Occidentales. Recueil de mémoires concernant les possessions Néerlandaises d'Asie et d'Amérique. 's Gravenhage: Gebrüder Belinfante, 1846-1849. 3 vols. Plates. 4°.
- Netherlands. Bibliotheek van het Departement van Kolonien. Catalogue. 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1885-1891. L. 8°.
- Nederlandsch-Indisch Plakaatboek, 1602-1811. Door J. A. van der Chijs. Batavia: J. A. van der Chijs, 1885-1892. 9 vols. 8°.
- Dagh-register gehouden in 't Casteel Batavia vant passerende daer ter plaetse als over geheel Nederlants-India, anno 1640-1863. Uitgegeven door het Bataviaasch Genootschap van Kunsten en Wetenschappen. Van J. A. van der Chijs. Batavia: J. A. van der Chijs. 1887-1891. 5 volq. 8°.
- Handelingen der Regering en der Staten-generaal betr. het reglement op het beleid der regering van Nederlandsch-Indië. Utrecht: Kemink, 1858. 3 vols. L. 8°.
- De Indo-Nederlandsche wetgeving. Staatsbladen van Nederlandsch-Indië, bewerkt en met aantekeningen voorzien door J. Boudewijnse \* \* \* Amsterdam: Maatsch., 1882-1899. L. 8°.
- Verzameling van instruction, ordonnanciën en reglementen voor de regering van Nederlandsch-Indië in 1609, 1617, 1632, 1650, 1807, 1815, 1818, 1827, 1830 en 1836. Amsterdam: W. H. Zeelt, 1848. L. 8°.
- Verslag van het beheer en de staat der Nederlandsche bezittingen in Oost- en West-Indië, en ter kust van Guinea. 's Gravenhage, 1849-1899. F°.
- Verslag over den aanleg en de exploitatie van de staats-poorwegen in Nederlandsch-Indië over 1890-1899. Batavia: Ogilvie & Co., 1890-1899. 4°.
- Oudemans, J. A. C. Triangulation von Java. 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1871-1891. 3 vols. 4°.
- Raffles, T. S. Substance of a minute on the introduction of an improved system of international management and the establishment of a land rental on the island of Java. London, 1814. 4°.
- Realia. Register op de generale resolutiën van het Kasteel Batavia, 1632-1805. Batavia: W. Bruining, 1885-1887. 3 vols. 4°.
- Rees, O. van. Geschiedenis der staathuishoudkunde in Nederland. Utrecht: Kemink, 1868. 2 vols. 8°.
- Regeringsalmanak voor Nederlandsch-Indië. 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1835-1898. L. 8°.
- Revue coloniale internationale. Amsterdam, 1885-87. 3 vols. Maps. L. 8°.
- Rhede van der Kloot, M. A. van. De gouverneurs-generaal van Nederlandsch-Indië, 1610-1888. 's Gravenhage: W. P. v. Stockum, 1891. L. 8°.
- Riedel, J. C. F. De sluik- en Kroesharige rassen tusschen Selebes en Papua. 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1886. Plates. Maps. L. 8°.
- Rosenberg, C. H. B. von. Reistogten in de afdeeling Gorontalo. Amsterdam: F. Muller, 1865. Plates. L. 8°.
- Schwaner, C. O. L. M. Borneo. Beschrijving v. h. stroomgebied v. d. Barito. Amsterdam: P. N. van Kampen, 1853-54. 2 vols. Plates. Maps. L. 8°.
- Snouck Hurgronje, C. De Atjehers. Leyden: E. J. Brill, 1893-1895. 2 vols. 8°. Atlas. F°.
- Statistisch Instituut der Vereeniging voor de etatistiek in Nederland, Amsterdam. Jaarcijfers (Koloniën). Amsterdam: J. Müller, 1884-1890. L. 8°.
- Stuers, T. V. A. de. Mémoire sur la guerre de l'île de Java de 1825-1830. Leyden, 1833. 4°. Atlas. F°.
- Tiele, P. A. Nederlandsche bibliographie van Land- en Volkenkunde. Amsterdam: M. Nijhoff, 1884. 8°.
- Tijdschrift voor Nederlandsch-Indië. Zalt-Bommel: Joh. Noman, 1838-1899. L. 8°.
- Valentijn, Fr. Oud en nieuw Oost-Indiën. Dordrecht, 1724-1726. 5 vols. F°.
- Verbeek, Reinier D. De mijnwetten in Nederlandsch-Indië. Batavia: Ogilvie, 1879. L. 8°.
- Topographische en geologische beschrijving van Sumatra's westkust. 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1883. 8°. Atlas. F°.
- Veth, P. J. Borneo's Wester-afdeeling, geographisch, statistisch, historisch. 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1854-1856. 2 vols. Plates. L. 8°.
- Java. 2° druk. Haarlem: De Erven F. Bohn, 1898. L. 8°.
- Wilken, G. A. Handleiding voor de vergelijkende volkenkunde van Nederlandsch-Indië. Leyden: E. J. Brill, 1892. L. 8°.
- Wiselius, J. A. B. De opium in Nederlandsch-en Britisch-Indië, oeconomisch, critisch, historisch. 's Gravenhage: M. Nijhoff, 1885. Plates. Map. L. 8°.

# INDEX.

	PAGE.		PAGE.
Abuses in colonial management, guaranties against .....	1221	Cabinet officers for colonial management .....	1218
Aden, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1465	Cambodia, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1479
Agricultural education needed in the colonies .....	1302	Cameroons, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1485
training schools in the colonies .....	1298	Canada, area, population, commerce, revenues, etc. ....	1473
Agriculture, development of, in colonies .....	1297	exports, by articles, 1893-1899 .....	1512
diversification of, in colonies .....	1299, 1302, 1304	imports, by articles, 1893-1899 .....	1511
Alaska, area, population, commerce, etc., of .....	1491	Canals and railways in India .....	1295
Algeria, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1480	Canadian preferential tariff, effect of .....	1412
growth of production in, under French tariff .....	1403	Cape Colony, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1409
tariff relations with France .....	1403	Cape of Good Hope, commerce of, 1892-1899 .....	1514, 1515
American Economic Association, study of colonial revenue methods by ..	1359	Capital, British, invested in British colonies .....	1315
American officers on labor in Porto Rico and the Philippines .....	1345	Caroline Island, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1486
Angola, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1487	Causes of colonial success and failure .....	1201
Army in French and Dutch colonies .....	1263	Ceylon, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1466
India, share of British and natives .....	1262	commerce of, by articles .....	1528-1529
the colonies .....	1262	development of production in .....	1256
Australian colonies, commerce of, by articles, 1892-1899 .....	1517-1527	method of government described .....	1255
intercolonial and foreign commerce .....	1516	tea culture in .....	1297
commonwealth, constitution and government, area, etc. ....	1477	Chartered companies in colonial development .....	1316
statistics of .....	1478	Chief questions in colonial management .....	1217
land sales in aid of immigration .....	1348	China, dependencies of .....	1490
Austro-Hungarian occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina .....	1489	Chinese in Malay federated states .....	1253
		Cinchona culture in the colonies .....	1298
Bahamas, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1475	development of production in Ceylon .....	1256
Banking and currency in the colonies .....	1305, 1308	Citizens of colonies, how rights of, are protected .....	1235
in the British colonies, regulations of .....	1314	Civil service for French colonial service .....	1276
Barbados, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1476	in India, requirements for entering .....	1267, 1272
commerce of, 1892-1899 .....	1510	Java .....	1273
Basutoland, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1468	the colonies .....	1264
Bechuanaland, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1459	Cochin China, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1479
Bermuda, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1473	Coins, kinds of, used in the colonies .....	1305, 1308
Bibliography of colonies and colonization .....	1567	Colonial appointments .....	1220
Bismark archipelago, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1486	cabinet officers .....	1218
Bokhara, area, population, etc. ....	1488	civil service .....	1268
Bonds, colonial, prices of, in London market .....	1565	commerce aided by modern facilities of communication .....	1406
Books on colonies and colonization, list of .....	1567	growth of .....	1395
Bosnia and Herzegovina, area, population, etc. ....	1489	currency .....	1305, 1308
British capital invested in colonies, estimated value of .....	1315	described .....	1306
Central Africa, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1439	demand for foodstuffs and manufactures .....	1444
colonial currency described .....	1306	development, use of chartered companies in .....	1316
methods .....	1411	indebtedness, how met .....	1332
French view of .....	1225	information, how distributed by home government .....	1219
system, home office .....	1219	intercommunication, methods described .....	1285
colonies, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1499	laws, how made .....	1222
banking regulations in .....	1314	noninterference by home government in .....	1225
exports to United Kingdom, 1893-1899 .....	1505	legislative bodies .....	1220
growth of their commerce .....	1393	map of the world, 1901, facing .....	1199
imports from United Kingdom, 1893-1899 .....	1503	1800-1900, facing .....	1201
indebtedness of .....	1333	market more reliable than foreign markets .....	1400
revenue of .....	1358	markets for products of the mother country .....	1393, 1404
share of natives in government of .....	1258	methods, Spanish .....	1409
statistics of exports, 1893-1899 .....	1504	office, British, how organized .....	1219
imports, 1893-1899 .....	1502	officers, how appointed .....	1220
tariffs of .....	1546-1561	policy, evolution of .....	1461
their trade with the mother country .....	1427	postal service .....	1284
East Africa, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1470	railway systems .....	1281, 1283
Gulana, area, population, commerce, revenues, etc. ....	1474	securities, prices of, in London market .....	1565
Honduras, area, population, commerce, revenues, etc. ....	1474	success and failures, causes of .....	1201
India, method of administering law in .....	1228, 1239, 1240	system of Java described by Netherlands official .....	1420
manufactures find their best market in the colonies .....	1401	telegraphs and telephone systems .....	1283, 1284
North Borneo, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1465	Colonies, British, commerce of .....	1396, 1397
officials in India, number of .....	1267	defenses of .....	1262
policy in the Malayan peninsula .....	1449	distributing stations for the mother country .....	1391
revenue methods in the Orient described .....	1371	emigration of capital to .....	1315
West African colonies, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1471	French, commerce of .....	1396, 1397
West Indian commission, extracts from report of .....	1455	how their labor supply is obtained .....	1340
recommendations of .....	1460	land ownership in .....	1334
West Indies, diversification of industries in .....	1455	laws and lawmaking in .....	1319
fiscal methods of, described .....	1368	language in .....	1337
industrial education in .....	1458	of the world, area .....	1199
share of natives in government of .....	1257	educational systems of .....	1326
share of soil cultivated .....	1461	laws in the various .....	1320
Bulgaria, commerce, etc. ....	1488	number, area, population, etc. ....	1164, 1797
		statistical statements of .....	14:5

	PAGE.		PAGE.
Colonies of the world, tariff relations of, with mother country .....	1383	Educational system in India .....	1325
religion in .....	1329	systems of the various colonies of the world .....	1326
the best market for manufactures .....	1401	Education, industrial, in the British West Indies .....	1458
tropical; are their products required by the governing country .....	1390	in the colonies .....	1324
world's, commerce of, with mother country .....	1396, 1397	Fiji Islands .....	1454
Colonization, bibliography of .....	1567	Egypt, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1489
does it pay? view of Lucas on .....	1413	Elective franchises in colonies .....	1264
studies of the economics of .....	1339	Emigration of capital to colonies .....	1315
Colonizing nations, commerce of, with their colonies .....	1396, 1397	European population in tropical colonies .....	1237
Colony bears cost of local improvements .....	1292	Evolution of colonial policy .....	1461
Commerce in the colonies, development of .....	1301		
of colonies, growth of .....	1292, 1343	Falkland Islands, area, population, commerce, revenues, etc. ....	1474
Cuba with Spain .....	1434	Federated Malay States, revenue methods in .....	1372, 1382
Porto Rico with Spain .....	1435	Fiji Islands, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1478
the British colonies with the mother country .....	1427	education in .....	1454
colonies, growth of .....	1375	industries in .....	1453
colonizing countries, share of, with their colonies .....	1123	labor question in .....	1464
nations with their colonies .....	1396, 1397	system of government described .....	1453
Danish colonies with mother country .....	1436	Fiji, revenue methods in .....	1373
French colonies with the mother country .....	1430	Financial methods in the Dutch East Indies .....	1375
Netherlands colonies with the mother country .....	1431	system of the Spanish colonies described .....	1365
Orient, relation of, Manila to .....	1391, 1395	Finland, relation of, to Russia .....	1488
Philippines with Spain .....	1435	Fiscal and commercial relations between the United States and its non-	
Portuguese colonies with the mother country .....	1433	contiguous territory .....	1490
United Kingdom aided by the colonies .....	1391	Fiscal methods in the Philippines .....	1378
with British colonies, 1893-1899 .....	1396	of the British West Indies described .....	1368
with the colonies and the Orient .....	1344	system of the French colonies described .....	1360
world's colonies with the mother country, percentage of .....	1405	German colonies described .....	1363
with the colonies greater than if the territory was controlled		Spanish colonies described .....	1365
by other nations .....	1395, 1398	Flag and trade .....	1442
Commercial relations between the colony and the home government .....	1390, 1408	discussion before British Statistical Society .....	1425
Commonwealth of Australia, constitution, government, etc. ....	1477	Food stuffs of temperate zone required in the Tropics .....	1392
statistics of .....	1478	Forced labor in the colonies, experiments with .....	1340
Communication of mother country with colonies .....	1283	system of Java described .....	1414
Congo, rubber cultivation in .....	1238	Formosa, area, population, etc. ....	1489
Convict labor, experiments with in the colonies .....	1341	France, colonial methods discussed .....	1204
Coolie labor, its use in the colonies .....	1342	tariff relations with Algeria .....	1403
Cost of colonial development, how borne .....	1292	French Africa and the Sahara .....	1480
Crete, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1488, 1489	colonial civil service .....	1276
Crown colonies, share of world's colonies governed as .....	1240	methods .....	1410
colony government described .....	1230	school, course of study .....	1276
system explained by Earl Grey .....	1233	colonies and their trade with the mother country .....	1430
Cuba, commerce of, with Spain .....	1434	area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1500
provision for establishment of independent government for .....	1490	army in .....	1263
temporary occupation of by United States .....	1499, 1493	commerce of 1893-1899 .....	1532-1541
Culture system of Java described .....	1411	description of .....	1479-1483
Curaçao, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1484	law making and administration in .....	1226
Currency and banks in the world's colonies, details of .....	1308	revenue methods of, described .....	1366
"Currency areas," theory of .....	1366	revenue of .....	1358
Currency, forms of in the colonies .....	1305, 1308	trade of, with other colonies .....	1438
how supplied in the colonies .....	1305, 1308	French Guiana, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1482
of the Straits Settlements .....	1312	Guinea, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1481
Cyprus, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1466	India, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1479
		Indo-China, Anam, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1479
Danish colonies, commerce of, with mother country .....	1436	Kongo and Gabon, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1480
Danish West Indies, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1487	system of making and administering laws .....	1226
Debts of the British colonies .....	1333	West Indies, government described .....	1261
world's colonies .....	1332		
Defenses of colonies .....	1292	General Davis, views of, on people and government of Porto Rico .....	1260
Distributing station, colonial, for products of mother country .....	1391	Geographical distribution and form of government of world's colonies .....	1497
Diversification of industries in the colonies .....	1297, 1299, 1302, 1304	German colonies, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1501
products in the British West Indies .....	1155	budget estimates, 1901 .....	1515
Does trade follow the flag .....	1412	description of .....	1484-1486
Dutch civil-service methods for colonies .....	1273	in Pacific, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1486
colonial methods .....	1410	East Africa, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1485
colonies, commerce with mother country .....	1397	Southwest Africa, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1485
financial methods in .....	1375	Germany, colonial system of, described .....	1363
revenue of .....	1358	revenue system of colonies of, described .....	1363
their trade with the mother country .....	1431	Gibraltar, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1465
East Indies, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1483	Government, area, population, etc., of each colony of the world .....	1497
Guiana, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1484	more difficult than conquest .....	1409
		of colonies; share entrusted to natives .....	1237
Exports from the United Kingdom to the colonies and the Orient .....	1394	Government of colony, share conducted in the colony, and how .....	1237, 1407
of British colonies, statistics of, 1893-1899 .....	1591	Government of colonies, share originating at seat of home government .....	1218, 1407
to United Kingdom, 1893-1899 .....	1565	Government of Porto Rico, General Davis' views on .....	1260
the colonizing countries, share of, to their colonies .....	1126	the Fiji Islands described .....	1453
Exchange of products between the colony and the mother country .....	1412	Tropics, how best performed .....	1230
with mother country, effect of .....	1392	Government, share originating at seat of home government .....	1218
Earl Grey, views of, on colonial management .....	1221, 1232	Greenland, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1487
East Indian colonies, object lessons in .....	1238	Growth of exports of manufactures to the colonies .....	1444
Economic Association, study of colonial revenue methods by .....	1359	Guadeloupe and dependencies, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc. ....	1482
Economics of colonization, how studied .....	1330	Guam, area and population of .....	1492
Education, agricultural, needed in the colonies .....	1302	Guiana, British, commerce of, 1893-1900 .....	1509

	PAGE.		PAGE.
Hawaiian Islands, area, population, commerce, etc., of .....	1491	Labor in the Spanish colonies, Spanish view of .....	1350
increased production in, under reciprocity .....	1398	of convicts in the colonies .....	1341
increase of commerce with United States under reci- procity .....	1393, 1404	question in oriental colonies .....	1451
Herzegovina and Bosnia, area, population, etc .....	1489	the Fiji Islands .....	1454
Home government control of colonies, Earl Grey on .....	1233	supply in the colonies, how obtained .....	1340
how exercised .....	1233	natural versus artificial methods .....	1353
Hongkong and other British colonies as distributing stations .....	1394, 1395	system of Java described .....	1414
Hongkong, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1466	Land ownership by natives essential to success .....	1459
Iceland, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1487	in Java .....	1335
Importation of coolie labor described .....	1342	the colonies .....	1334
Imports of British colonies from United Kingdom, 1893-1899 .....	1503	sales in Australia devoted to importation of labor .....	1348
statistics of, 1893-1899 .....	1502	Language in the colonies .....	1337
the colonizing countries, share of, from their colonies .....	1426	Lawmaking bodies in British Crown colonies, detailed description of .....	1223
Indebtedness of British colonies .....	1333	for colonies .....	1222
the world's colonies .....	1332	in the West Indies .....	1257
Indentured labor, its use in the colonies .....	1342	Laws and lawmaking in the colonies .....	1319
Indian civil service, requirements for entering .....	1267, 1272	Laws, systems in the various colonies of the world .....	1320
educational system in .....	1325	Leeward Islands, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1476
railway and canal system described .....	1295	Legislation for colonies, where enacted .....	1218
railways .....	1279	Legislative bodies in British Crown colonies, detailed description .....	1223
India, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1467	the colonies .....	1222
army in .....	1262	Liberality the keynote of success in dealing with natives .....	1451
cinchona cultivation in .....	1298	Local improvements of colony, how paid for .....	1292
duty on sugar from bounty-paying countries .....	1551	Lord John Russell on the Crown colony system .....	1232
irrigation system of, described .....	1290	Madagascar, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1481
laws of, described .....	1321, 1322	Malayan Peninsula, British policy in .....	1449
method of administering law in .....	1228, 1239, 1240	government of, described .....	1446
methods of government, offices, etc .....	1222, 1239	Malay federated States, government, and development described .....	1219, 1232
native States, government of .....	1228	federation, financial success .....	1254
number of British officials in .....	1240, 1267	States, revenue methods in .....	1372, 1382
principal exports, 1893-1900 .....	1531	Malta, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1465
principal imports, 1893-1900 .....	1530	Manchuria, occupation of, by Russia .....	1488
quinine production of .....	1298	Manila, relation of, to commerce of the Orient .....	1391, 1395
revenues of .....	1359	Manufactures, better market for, in the colonies than in other countries .....	1401
revenue system in .....	1380	increase in demand for, in colonies .....	1444
tea culture in .....	1297	of the mother country required in the colonies .....	1391
Indo-China, French, its government described .....	1245	required in the Tropics .....	1392
Industries, diversification of, in the colonies .....	1299, 1302, 1304	Map of the world's colonies, 1901 .....	1199
in the Fiji Islands .....	1453	1800-1900 .....	1201
Interchange of products between colony and mother country .....	1412	Markets, colonial, for products of the mother country .....	1393, 1404
Intercolonial commerce of Australian colonies .....	1516	more reliable than foreign markets .....	1400
Intercommunication in the world's colonies, methods of .....	1285	of the Orient, value of .....	1394, 1395
Irrigation, cost of, in India .....	1290	Marshall Island, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1486
how cost is borne .....	1292	Martinique, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1482
in India .....	1290	Material, mental, and moral conditions of natives, how improved .....	1278
tropical colonies .....	1290	Mauritius, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1470
value of, far exceeds cost .....	1290	Mexican dollar in the Orient .....	1305, 1307
Italian colonies in Africa, area, population, and revenue .....	1487	Military in India .....	1252
Italy, colonial methods discussed .....	1204	territories, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1481
Ivory Coast and Da'omey, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1481	Militia in French and Dutch colonies .....	1263
Jamaica, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1475	Modern methods of communication an aid to colonization .....	1412
principal exports, 1894-1900 .....	1507	facilitate colonial commerce .....	1406
imports, 1894-1900 .....	1506	value of, in colonial government .....	1237
revenue methods in .....	1368	Money and banking in the colonies .....	1305, 1308
Japanese possession .....	1489, 1490	Natal, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1470
Java, abandonment of forced labor and culture systems in .....	1417, 1419	commerce of .....	1515
army in .....	1263	Native customs should be respected .....	1449
cinchona production in .....	1298	labor supply in the West Indies .....	1299, 1302, 1304
civil service in .....	1273	Natives, assimilation of .....	1409
colonial system of described by Netherlands lawmaker .....	1420	of colony, share of government given them .....	1237
culture and forced labor systems of .....	1414	Natives of colony, steps taken to improve condition .....	1273, 1407
forced labor in .....	1342	Natives, secret of success in dealing with .....	1451
land ownership in .....	1335	share of in government of West Indies .....	1238
new labor system adopted .....	1417	government of colonies, French view of .....	1248
quinine production of .....	1298	Indian civil service .....	1267
rubber cultivation in .....	1298	Netherlands civil-service methods for colonies .....	1273
share of Europeans and natives in administration of .....	1242	colonial lawmaking .....	1227
Khiva, area, population, etc .....	1488	methods discussed .....	1207
Klau-Chau, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1466	colonies, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1500
Knowledge of the people of the colony necessary for government .....	1447	commerce of .....	1541-1544
Kwan-Tung, relation of, to Russia .....	1488	description of .....	1483, 1484
Labor and industry in the colony, how encouraged .....	1340, 1407	financial methods in .....	1375
Labor, contract system described .....	1342	revenue of .....	1358
in Porto Rico and the Philippines, American officers on .....	1345	sugar production, 1875-1900 .....	1541
General Davis on .....	1260	their trade with the mother country .....	1431
		commerce of, with the colonies .....	1397
		New Caledonia and dependencies, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1483
		Newfoundland and Labrador, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1475
		commerce of, by articles, 1893-1899 .....	1513



	PAGE.		PAGE.
New Guinea, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1478	Rubber, cultivation of, in the tropical colonies.....	1298
New South Wales, area, population, revenue, commerce, etc.....	1478	Russian possessions in Asia, area, population, etc.....	1488
New Zealand, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1478	Safeguards to rights of citizens in colonies.....	1235
Nigeria, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1472	St. Pierre and Miquelon, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1483
Noninterference by home government with local colonial laws.....	1225	Salaries paid in Indian civil service.....	1267
Officers of colonies, Earl Gray's view on.....	1221	Samoa Islands, area, population, commerce, etc.....	1486
how chosen.....	1220	Samos, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1488
Orange River Colony, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1471	Savings banks, deposits of, in British colonies.....	1278
Oriental colonies, labor question in.....	1451	Schools for agriculture in the colonies.....	1298
Orient, relation of Manila to commerce of.....	1394, 1395	civil service in colonies.....	1276
value of the markets of.....	1394, 1395	the colonial civil service.....	1264
People of the colony, knowledge of, necessary for government.....	1447	Securities, colonial, prices of, in London market.....	1565
Percentage of the commerce of the colonies with the mother country.....	1405	Self-governing colonies, location.....	1199
Pescadores Islands, relation of, to Japan.....	1489	population.....	1199
Philippines and Porto Rico, American officers on labor in.....	1345	Senegal, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1481
Philippines, area, population, commerce, etc., of.....	1491, 1492	Share of government entrusted to natives.....	1237
commerce of, with Spain.....	1435	given to natives, French view of.....	1248
currency of.....	1313	Singapore and other British colonies as distributing stations.....	1391, 1395
fiscal methods in.....	1378	Society Islands, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1483
Spanish view of labor in.....	1350	Solomon Islands, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1486
Plan of study followed in this work.....	1217	South Australia, area, population, revenue, commerce, etc.....	1478
Population, area, and governing country of each of world's colonies.....	1497	Spain, colonial methods discussed.....	1201
of world's colonies.....	1199	Spanish colonial fiscal system described.....	1365
share in self-governing colonies.....	1199	methods.....	1409
Porto Rico and the Philippines, American officers on labor in.....	1345	colonies in Africa, area, population, etc.....	1488
area, population, commerce, etc.....	1492	labor in.....	1350
commerce of, with Spain.....	1435	Spoils system in French colonies.....	1247
Spanish view of labor in.....	1350	Statistical statements of world's colonies.....	1495
view of General Davis on its government and people.....	1260	Steamship and electricity, effect of, upon colonization.....	1412
Portugal, colonial methods discussed.....	1204	communication with the colonies.....	1253
Portuguese African colonies, area, population, commerce, etc.....	1487	Straits Settlements, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1468
colonies, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1501	currency of.....	1312
description of.....	1487	revenue methods in.....	1371
their trade with the mother country.....	1433	Studies of the economics of colonization.....	1330
Portuguese East Africa, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1487	Success, secret of, in dealing with natives.....	1451
Postal systems of world's colonies.....	1284	Sugar exportations from the British West Indies.....	1456
Preferential tariff of Canada, effect of.....	1412	from bounty-paying countries, Indian, duty on.....	1564
Products, diversification of, in the British West Indies.....	1455	production in Hawaiian Islands, increase of, under reciprocity.....	1393, 1404
of colonies, diversification of, necessary.....	1297	Tariff relations of the colonies with the mother country.....	1383
Productions of the colonies stimulated by exchange with mother country.....	1392	Tariffs between colony and mother country.....	1412
Products of the colony and the mother country, exchange of.....	1412	of British colonies.....	1368, 1546-1564
Public works in colonies, necessity for.....	1296	the French colonies described.....	1360
how funds are provided for.....	1292	Spanish colonies described.....	1365
Purchasing power of the colonies increased.....	1304	Tasmania, area, population, revenue, commerce, etc.....	1478
Queensland, area, population, revenue, commerce, etc.....	1478	Taxation in India described.....	1380
Quinine, increase of world's supply of, from colonies.....	1298	the British West Indies described.....	1368
production in the colonies.....	1298	Dutch East Indies.....	1375
Railways and canals in India.....	1295	Federated Malay States.....	1372, 1382
roads in the colonies.....	1278	Philippines.....	1378
how constructed in colonies.....	1292	Spanish colonies described.....	1365
Indian.....	1279	world's colonies, methods of, described.....	1356
in Malay Federation.....	1254	Taxation, methods of, in British East Indies.....	1371
the colonies.....	1296	Fiji.....	1373
Tropics, growth and importance of.....	1281	Tea culture in the colonies and its effect.....	1297
methods of construction.....	1281, 1283	development of production in Ceylon.....	1256
world's colonies, length of.....	1279	increase in the world's supply of, from colonies.....	1297
Reciprocity between United States and Hawaii, effect of.....	1393, 1404	Telegraphs and telephones in world's colonies.....	1283, 1284
Religion in the colonies.....	1329	Togoland, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1485
Revenue methods in Fiji.....	1373	Tonkin, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1490
the Dutch East Indies.....	1375	Trade, does it follow the flag.....	1442
British East Indies.....	1371	of Cuba with Spain.....	1434
Federated Malay States.....	1372, 1382	Porto Rico with Spain.....	1435
of the British West Indies described.....	1368	the British colonies with the mother country.....	1427
French colonies described.....	1360	Danish colonies with mother country.....	1436
Revenues of colonies, how provided.....	1356, 1408	the French colonies with the mother country.....	1430
Revenues of India.....	1359	Portuguese colonies with the mother country.....	1433
the British colonies.....	1358	Philippines with Spain.....	1435
colonies of the world, how raised.....	1356	Netherlands colonies with the mother country.....	1431
Dutch colonies.....	1353	Training schools for agriculture in the colonies.....	1298
French colonies.....	1358	colonial civil service.....	1264
Revenue system of the German colonies described.....	1363	Transvaal, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1471
Revenues of the world's colonies, study by American Economic Association.....	1359	Trinidad, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1476
Revenue raising in the Philippines.....	1378	commerce of, by principal articles, 1894-1900.....	1508
system of India.....	1380	Tripoli, area, population, and commerce.....	1489
Rhodesia, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1472	Tropical colonies, European population in.....	1237
River and harbor improvements, how made.....	1292	small number of European officials in.....	1237
Roads and railways in the colonies.....	1278	importations of United States.....	1391
how constructed in colonies.....	1292	production, importance of to consuming world.....	1230
		productions, imports of, by the Temperate Zone.....	1390
		territory, its government important to the consuming world.....	1230
		Tropics, chief seat of colonization.....	1390
		consumers of the products of the Temperate Zone.....	1392

	PAGE.		PAGE.
Tropics, invasion of by railways .....	1281	Victoria, area, population, revenue, commerce, etc .....	1473
should they be governed from the Temperate Zone.....	1230	Voting privilege in the colonies.....	1264
Tunis, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1482		
Turkish tributary states.....	1488		
Tutuila, area and population, etc., of.....	1492	Wake Island.....	1492
		Western Australia, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc .....	1478
United Kingdom, colonial methods discussed .....	1210	West Indies, British, share of natives in government of .....	1257
commerce of with British colonies, 1893-1899 .....	1506	French, government described .....	1261
exports from, to the colonies and the Orient.....	1394	Windward Islands, area, population, commerce, revenue, etc.....	1476
United States, fiscal and commercial relations with its noncontiguous		World's colonial area .....	1199
territory.....	1490	population.....	1199
increase of commerce with Hawaii under reciprocity. 1393, 1404		Works on colonies and colonization, list of .....	1557
tropical importations of.....	1391	World's colonies, methods of raising revenue.....	1356
		number, area, population, etc .....	1461

ettlements

from Sen. McMillan Mich. University

TREASURY DEPARTMENT—BUREAU OF STATISTICS.

---

# COLONIAL ADMINISTRATION, 1800-1900.

METHODS OF GOVERNMENT AND DEVELOPMENT ADOPTED BY THE PRINCIPAL  
COLONIZING NATIONS IN THEIR CONTROL OF TROPICAL AND  
OTHER COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES.

WITH STATISTICAL STATEMENTS OF THE AREA, POPULATION, COMMERCE,  
REVENUE, ETC., OF EACH OF THE WORLD'S COLONIES.

---

INCLUDING BIBLIOGRAPHY OF COLONIES AND COLONIZATION PREPARED  
BY THE LIBRARY OF CONGRESS.

---

[FROM THE SUMMARY OF COMMERCE AND FINANCE FOR OCTOBER, 1901.]

---

O. P. AUSTIN,  
*Chief of Bureau.*

---

WASHINGTON:  
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.  
1901.





